

Annex 6

Supervisory Slotting Criteria for Specialised Lending

Table 1 – Supervisory Rating Grades for Project Finance Exposures

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Financial strength				
Market conditions	Few competing suppliers or substantial and durable advantage in location, cost, or technology. Demand is strong and growing	Few competing suppliers or better than average location, cost, or technology but this situation may not last. Demand is strong and stable	Project has no advantage in location, cost, or technology. Demand is adequate and stable	Project has worse than average location, cost, or technology. Demand is weak and declining
Financial ratios (e.g. <i>debt service coverage ratio (DSCR)</i> , <i>loan life coverage ratio (LLCR)</i> , <i>project life coverage ratio (PLCR)</i> , and <i>debt-to-equity ratio</i>)	Strong financial ratios considering the level of project risk; very robust economic assumptions	Strong to acceptable financial ratios considering the level of project risk; robust project economic assumptions	Standard financial ratios considering the level of project risk	Aggressive financial ratios considering the level of project risk
Stress analysis	The project can meet its financial obligations under sustained, severely stressed economic or sectoral conditions	The project can meet its financial obligations under normal stressed economic or sectoral conditions. The project is only likely to default under severe economic conditions	The project is vulnerable to stresses that are not uncommon through an economic cycle, and may default in a normal downturn	The project is likely to default unless conditions improve soon

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
<i>Financial structure</i>				
Duration of the credit compared to the duration of the project	Useful life of the project significantly exceeds tenor of the loan	Useful life of the project exceeds tenor of the loan	Useful life of the project exceeds tenor of the loan	Useful life of the project may not exceed tenor of the loan
Amortisation schedule	Amortising debt	Amortising debt	Amortising debt repayments with limited bullet payment	Bullet repayment or amortising debt repayments with high bullet repayment
Political and legal environment				
Political risk, including transfer risk, considering project type and mitigants	Very low exposure; strong mitigation instruments, if needed	Low exposure; satisfactory mitigation instruments, if needed	Moderate exposure; fair mitigation instruments	High exposure; no or weak mitigation instruments
Force majeure risk (war, civil unrest, etc),	Low exposure	Acceptable exposure	Standard protection	Significant risks, not fully mitigated
Government support and project's importance for the country over the long term	Project of strategic importance for the country (preferably export-oriented). Strong support from Government	Project considered important for the country. Good level of support from Government	Project may not be strategic but brings unquestionable benefits for the country. Support from Government may not be explicit	Project not key to the country. No or weak support from Government
Stability of legal and regulatory environment (risk of change in law)	Favourable and stable regulatory environment over the long term	Favourable and stable regulatory environment over the medium term	Regulatory changes can be predicted with a fair level of certainty	Current or future regulatory issues may affect the project
Acquisition of all necessary supports and approvals for such relief from local content laws	Strong	Satisfactory	Fair	Weak

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Enforceability of contracts, collateral and security	Contracts, collateral and security are enforceable	Contracts, collateral and security are enforceable	Contracts, collateral and security are considered enforceable even if certain non-key issues may exist	There are unresolved key issues in respect if actual enforcement of contracts, collateral and security
Transaction characteristics				
<i>Design and technology risk</i>	Fully proven technology and design	Fully proven technology and design	Proven technology and design — start-up issues are mitigated by a strong completion package	Unproven technology and design; technology issues exist and/or complex design
<i>Construction risk</i>				
Permitting and siting	All permits have been obtained	Some permits are still outstanding but their receipt is considered very likely	Some permits are still outstanding but the permitting process is well defined and they are considered routine	Key permits still need to be obtained and are not considered routine. Significant conditions may be attached
Type of construction contract	Fixed-price date-certain turnkey construction EPC (engineering and procurement contract)	Fixed-price date-certain turnkey construction EPC	Fixed-price date-certain turnkey construction contract with one or several contractors	No or partial fixed-price turnkey contract and/or interfacing issues with multiple contractors
Completion guarantees	Substantial liquidated damages supported by financial substance and/or strong completion guarantee from sponsors with excellent financial standing	Significant liquidated damages supported by financial substance and/or completion guarantee from sponsors with good financial standing	Adequate liquidated damages supported by financial substance and/or completion guarantee from sponsors with good financial standing	Inadequate liquidated damages or not supported by financial substance or weak completion guarantees

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Track record and financial strength of contractor in constructing similar projects.	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
<i>Operating risk</i>				
Scope and nature of operations and maintenance (O & M) contracts	Strong long-term O&M contract, preferably with contractual performance incentives, and/or O&M reserve accounts	Long-term O&M contract, and/or O&M reserve accounts	Limited O&M contract or O&M reserve account	No O&M contract: risk of high operational cost overruns beyond mitigants
Operator's expertise, track record, and financial strength	Very strong, or committed technical assistance of the sponsors	Strong	Acceptable	Limited/weak, or local operator dependent on local authorities
<i>Off-take risk</i>				
(a) If there is a take-or-pay or fixed-price off-take contract:	Excellent creditworthiness of off-taker; strong termination clauses; tenor of contract comfortably exceeds the maturity of the debt	Good creditworthiness of off-taker; strong termination clauses; tenor of contract exceeds the maturity of the debt	Acceptable financial standing of off-taker; normal termination clauses; tenor of contract generally matches the maturity of the debt	Weak off-taker; weak termination clauses; tenor of contract does not exceed the maturity of the debt
(b) If there is no take-or-pay or fixed-price off-take contract:	Project produces essential services or a commodity sold widely on a world market; output can readily be absorbed at projected prices even at lower than historic market growth rates	Project produces essential services or a commodity sold widely on a regional market that will absorb it at projected prices at historical growth rates	Commodity is sold on a limited market that may absorb it only at lower than projected prices	Project output is demanded by only one or a few buyers or is not generally sold on an organised market

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
<i>Supply risk</i>				
Price, volume and transportation risk of feed-stocks; supplier's track record and financial strength	Long-term supply contract with supplier of excellent financial standing	Long-term supply contract with supplier of good financial standing	Long-term supply contract with supplier of good financial standing — a degree of price risk may remain	Short-term supply contract or long-term supply contract with financially weak supplier — a degree of price risk definitely remains
Reserve risks (e.g. natural resource development)	Independently audited, proven and developed reserves well in excess of requirements over lifetime of the project	Independently audited, proven and developed reserves in excess of requirements over lifetime of the project	Proven reserves can supply the project adequately through the maturity of the debt	Project relies to some extent on potential and undeveloped reserves
Strength of Sponsor				
Sponsor's track record, financial strength, and country/sector experience	Strong sponsor with excellent track record and high financial standing	Good sponsor with satisfactory track record and good financial standing	Adequate sponsor with adequate track record and good financial standing	Weak sponsor with no or questionable track record and/or financial weaknesses
Sponsor support, as evidenced by equity, ownership clause and incentive to inject additional cash if necessary	Strong. Project is highly strategic for the sponsor (core business — long-term strategy)	Good. Project is strategic for the sponsor (core business — long-term strategy)	Acceptable. Project is considered important for the sponsor (core business)	Limited. Project is not key to sponsor's long-term strategy or core business
Security Package				
Assignment of contracts and accounts	Fully comprehensive	Comprehensive	Acceptable	Weak

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Pledge of assets, taking into account quality, value and liquidity of assets	First perfected security interest in all project assets, contracts, permits and accounts necessary to run the project	Perfected security interest in all project assets, contracts, permits and accounts necessary to run the project	Acceptable security interest in all project assets, contracts, permits and accounts necessary to run the project	Little security or collateral for lenders; weak negative pledge clause
Lender's control over cash flow (e.g. cash sweeps, independent escrow accounts)	Strong	Satisfactory	Fair	Weak
Strength of the covenant package (mandatory prepayments, payment deferrals, payment cascade, dividend restrictions...)	Covenant package is strong for this type of project Project may issue no additional debt	Covenant package is satisfactory for this type of project Project may issue extremely limited additional debt	Covenant package is fair for this type of project Project may issue limited additional debt	Covenant package is insufficient for this type of project Project may issue unlimited additional debt
Reserve funds (debt service, O&M, renewal and replacement, unforeseen events, etc)	Longer than average coverage period, all reserve funds fully funded in cash or letters of credit from highly rated bank	Average coverage period, all reserve funds fully funded	Average coverage period, all reserve funds fully funded	Shorter than average coverage period, reserve funds funded from operating cash flows

Table 2 – Supervisory Rating Grades for Income-Producing Real Estate Exposures and High-Volatility Commercial Real Estate Exposures

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Financial strength				
Market conditions	The supply and demand for the project's type and location are currently in equilibrium. The number of competitive properties coming to market is equal or lower than forecasted demand	The supply and demand for the project's type and location are currently in equilibrium. The number of competitive properties coming to market is roughly equal to forecasted demand	Market conditions are roughly in equilibrium. Competitive properties are coming on the market and others are in the planning stages. The project's design and capabilities may not be state of the art compared to new projects	Market conditions are weak. It is uncertain when conditions will improve and return to equilibrium. The project is losing tenants at lease expiration. New lease terms are less favourable compared to those expiring
Financial ratios and advance rate	The property's debt service coverage ratio (DSCR) is considered strong (DSCR is not relevant for the construction phase) and its loan to value ratio (LTV) is considered low given its property type. Where a secondary market exists, the transaction is underwritten to market standards	The DSCR (not relevant for development real estate) and LTV are satisfactory. Where a secondary market exists, the transaction is underwritten to market standards	The property's DSCR has deteriorated and its value has fallen, increasing its LTV	The property's DSCR has deteriorated significantly and its LTV is well above underwriting standards for new loans

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Stress analysis	The property's resources, contingencies and liability structure allow it to meet its financial obligations during a period of severe financial stress (e.g. interest rates, economic growth)	The property can meet its financial obligations under a sustained period of financial stress (e.g. interest rates, economic growth). The property is likely to default only under severe economic conditions	During an economic downturn, the property would suffer a decline in revenue that would limit its ability to fund capital expenditures and significantly increase the risk of default	The property's financial condition is strained and is likely to default unless conditions improve in the near term
Cash-flow predictability				
(a) For complete and stabilised property.	The property's leases are long-term with creditworthy tenants and their maturity dates are scattered. The property has a track record of tenant retention upon lease expiration. Its vacancy rate is low. Expenses (maintenance, insurance, security, and property taxes) are predictable	Most of the property's leases are long-term, with tenants that range in creditworthiness. The property experiences a normal level of tenant turnover upon lease expiration. Its vacancy rate is low. Expenses are predictable	Most of the property's leases are medium rather than long-term with tenants that range in creditworthiness. The property experiences a moderate level of tenant turnover upon lease expiration. Its vacancy rate is moderate. Expenses are relatively predictable but vary in relation to revenue	The property's leases are of various terms with tenants that range in creditworthiness. The property experiences a very high level of tenant turnover upon lease expiration. Its vacancy rate is high. Significant expenses are incurred preparing space for new tenants
(b) For complete but not stabilised property	Leasing activity meets or exceeds projections. The project should achieve stabilisation in the near future	Leasing activity meets or exceeds projections. The project should achieve stabilisation in the near future	Most leasing activity is within projections; however, stabilisation will not occur for some time	Market rents do not meet expectations. Despite achieving target occupancy rate, cash flow coverage is tight due to disappointing revenue

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
(c) For construction phase	The property is entirely pre-leased through the tenor of the loan or pre-sold to an investment grade tenant or buyer, or the bank has a binding commitment for take-out financing from an investment grade lender	The property is entirely pre-leased or pre-sold to a creditworthy tenant or buyer, or the bank has a binding commitment for permanent financing from a creditworthy lender	Leasing activity is within projections but the building may not be pre-leased and there may not exist a take-out financing. The bank may be the permanent lender	The property is deteriorating due to cost overruns, market deterioration, tenant cancellations or other factors. There may be a dispute with the party providing the permanent financing
Asset characteristics				
Location	Property is located in highly desirable location that is convenient to services that tenants desire	Property is located in desirable location that is convenient to services that tenants desire	The property location lacks a competitive advantage	The property's location, configuration, design and maintenance have contributed to the property's difficulties
Design and condition	Property is favoured due to its design, configuration, and maintenance, and is highly competitive with new properties	Property is appropriate in terms of its design, configuration and maintenance. The property's design and capabilities are competitive with new properties	Property is adequate in terms of its configuration, design and maintenance	Weaknesses exist in the property's configuration, design or maintenance
Property is under construction	Construction budget is conservative and technical hazards are limited. Contractors are highly qualified	Construction budget is conservative and technical hazards are limited. Contractors are highly qualified	Construction budget is adequate and contractors are ordinarily qualified	Project is over budget or unrealistic given its technical hazards. Contractors may be under qualified

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Strength of Sponsor/Developer				
Financial capacity and willingness to support the property.	The sponsor/developer made a substantial cash contribution to the construction or purchase of the property. The sponsor/developer has substantial resources and limited direct and contingent liabilities. The sponsor/developer's properties are diversified geographically and by property type	The sponsor/developer made a material cash contribution to the construction or purchase of the property. The sponsor/developer's financial condition allows it to support the property in the event of a cash flow shortfall. The sponsor/developer's properties are located in several geographic regions	The sponsor/developer's contribution may be immaterial or non-cash. The sponsor/developer is average to below average in financial resources	The sponsor/developer lacks capacity or willingness to support the property
Reputation and track record with similar properties.	Experienced management and high sponsors' quality. Strong reputation and lengthy and successful record with similar properties	Appropriate management and sponsors' quality. The sponsor or management has a successful record with similar properties	Moderate management and sponsors' quality. Management or sponsor track record does not raise serious concerns	Ineffective management and substandard sponsors' quality. Management and sponsor difficulties have contributed to difficulties in managing properties in the past
Relationships with relevant real estate actors	Strong relationships with leading actors such as leasing agents	Proven relationships with leading actors such as leasing agents	Adequate relationships with leasing agents and other parties providing important real estate services	Poor relationships with leasing agents and/or other parties providing important real estate services

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Security Package				
Nature of lien	Perfected first lien ²⁵³	Perfected first lien ²⁵³	Perfected first lien ²⁵³	Ability of lender to foreclose is constrained
Assignment of rents (for projects leased to long-term tenants)	The lender has obtained an assignment. They maintain current tenant information that would facilitate providing notice to remit rents directly to the lender, such as a current rent roll and copies of the project's leases	The lender has obtained an assignment. They maintain current tenant information that would facilitate providing notice to the tenants to remit rents directly to the lender, such as current rent roll and copies of the project's leases	The lender has obtained an assignment. They maintain current tenant information that would facilitate providing notice to the tenants to remit rents directly to the lender, such as current rent roll and copies of the project's leases	The lender has not obtained an assignment of the leases or has not maintained the information necessary to readily provide notice to the building's tenants
Quality of the insurance coverage	Appropriate	Appropriate	Appropriate	Substandard

²⁵³ Lenders in some markets extensively use loan structures that include junior liens. Junior liens may be indicative of this level of risk if the total LTV inclusive of all senior positions does not exceed a typical first loan LTV.

Table 3 – Supervisory Rating Grades for Object Finance Exposures

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Financial strength				
Market conditions	Demand is strong and growing, strong entry barriers, low sensitivity to changes in technology and economic outlook	Demand is strong and stable. Some entry barriers, some sensitivity to changes in technology and economic outlook	Demand is adequate and stable, limited entry barriers, significant sensitivity to changes in technology and economic outlook	Demand is weak and declining, vulnerable to changes in technology and economic outlook, highly uncertain environment
Financial ratios (debt service coverage ratio and loan-to-value ratio)	Strong financial ratios considering the type of asset. Very robust economic assumptions	Strong / acceptable financial ratios considering the type of asset. Robust project economic assumptions	Standard financial ratios for the asset type	Aggressive financial ratios considering the type of asset
Stress analysis	Stable long-term revenues, capable of withstanding severely stressed conditions through an economic cycle	Satisfactory short-term revenues. Loan can withstand some financial adversity. Default is only likely under severe economic conditions	Uncertain short-term revenues. Cash flows are vulnerable to stresses that are not uncommon through an economic cycle. The loan may default in a normal downturn	Revenues subject to strong uncertainties; even in normal economic conditions the asset may default, unless conditions improve
Market liquidity	Market is structured on a worldwide basis; assets are highly liquid	Market is worldwide or regional; assets are relatively liquid	Market is regional with limited prospects in the short term, implying lower liquidity	Local market and/or poor visibility. Low or no liquidity, particularly on niche markets
Political and legal environment				
Political risk, including transfer risk	Very low; strong mitigation instruments, if needed	Low; satisfactory mitigation instruments, if needed	Moderate; fair mitigation instruments	High; no or weak mitigation instruments

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Legal and regulatory risks	Jurisdiction is favourable to repossession and enforcement of contracts	Jurisdiction is favourable to repossession and enforcement of contracts	Jurisdiction is generally favourable to repossession and enforcement of contracts, even if repossession might be long and/or difficult	Poor or unstable legal and regulatory environment. Jurisdiction may make repossession and enforcement of contracts lengthy or impossible
Transaction characteristics				
Financing term compared to the economic life of the asset	Full payout profile/minimum balloon. No grace period	Balloon more significant, but still at satisfactory levels	Important balloon with potentially grace periods	Repayment in fine or high balloon
Operating risk				
Permits / licensing	All permits have been obtained; asset meets current and foreseeable safety regulations	All permits obtained or in the process of being obtained; asset meets current and foreseeable safety regulations	Most permits obtained or in process of being obtained, outstanding ones considered routine, asset meets current safety regulations	Problems in obtaining all required permits, part of the planned configuration and/or planned operations might need to be revised
Scope and nature of O & M contracts	Strong long-term O&M contract, preferably with contractual performance incentives, and/or O&M reserve accounts (if needed)	Long-term O&M contract, and/or O&M reserve accounts (if needed)	Limited O&M contract or O&M reserve account (if needed)	No O&M contract: risk of high operational cost overruns beyond mitigants
Operator's financial strength, track record in managing the asset type and capability to re-market asset when it comes off-lease	Excellent track record and strong re-marketing capability	Satisfactory track record and re-marketing capability	Weak or short track record and uncertain re-marketing capability	No or unknown track record and inability to re-market the asset

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Asset characteristics				
Configuration, size, design and maintenance (i.e. age, size for a plane) compared to other assets on the same market	Strong advantage in design and maintenance. Configuration is standard such that the object meets a liquid market	Above average design and maintenance. Standard configuration, maybe with very limited exceptions — such that the object meets a liquid market	Average design and maintenance. Configuration is somewhat specific, and thus might cause a narrower market for the object	Below average design and maintenance. Asset is near the end of its economic life. Configuration is very specific; the market for the object is very narrow
Resale value	Current resale value is well above debt value	Resale value is moderately above debt value	Resale value is slightly above debt value	Resale value is below debt value
Sensitivity of the asset value and liquidity to economic cycles	Asset value and liquidity are relatively insensitive to economic cycles	Asset value and liquidity are sensitive to economic cycles	Asset value and liquidity are quite sensitive to economic cycles	Asset value and liquidity are highly sensitive to economic cycles
Strength of sponsor				
Operator's financial strength, track record in managing the asset type and capability to re-market asset when it comes off-lease	Excellent track record and strong re-marketing capability	Satisfactory track record and re-marketing capability	Weak or short track record and uncertain re-marketing capability	No or unknown track record and inability to re-market the asset
Sponsors' track record and financial strength	Sponsors with excellent track record and high financial standing	Sponsors with good track record and good financial standing	Sponsors with adequate track record and good financial standing	Sponsors with no or questionable track record and/or financial weaknesses

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Security Package				
Asset control	Legal documentation provides the lender effective control (e.g. a first perfected security interest, or a leasing structure including such security) on the asset, or on the company owning it	Legal documentation provides the lender effective control (e.g. a perfected security interest, or a leasing structure including such security) on the asset, or on the company owning it	Legal documentation provides the lender effective control (e.g. a perfected security interest, or a leasing structure including such security) on the asset, or on the company owning it	The contract provides little security to the lender and leaves room to some risk of losing control on the asset
Rights and means at the lender's disposal to monitor the location and condition of the asset	The lender is able to monitor the location and condition of the asset, at any time and place (regular reports, possibility to lead inspections)	The lender is able to monitor the location and condition of the asset, almost at any time and place	The lender is able to monitor the location and condition of the asset, almost at any time and place	The lender is able to monitor the location and condition of the asset are limited
Insurance against damages	Strong insurance coverage including collateral damages with top quality insurance companies	Satisfactory insurance coverage (not including collateral damages) with good quality insurance companies	Fair insurance coverage (not including collateral damages) with acceptable quality insurance companies	Weak insurance coverage (not including collateral damages) or with weak quality insurance companies

Table 4 – Supervisory Rating Grades for Commodities Finance Exposures

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Financial strength				
Degree of over-collateralisation of trade	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Political and legal environment				
Country risk	No country risk	Limited exposure to country risk (in particular, offshore location of reserves in an emerging country)	Exposure to country risk (in particular, offshore location of reserves in an emerging country)	Strong exposure to country risk (in particular, inland reserves in an emerging country)
Mitigation of country risks	Very strong mitigation: Strong offshore mechanisms Strategic commodity 1 st class buyer	Strong mitigation: Offshore mechanisms Strategic commodity Strong buyer	Acceptable mitigation: Offshore mechanisms Less strategic commodity Acceptable buyer	Only partial mitigation: No offshore mechanisms Non-strategic commodity Weak buyer
Asset characteristics				
Liquidity and susceptibility to damage	Commodity is quoted and can be hedged through futures or OTC instruments. Commodity is not susceptible to damage	Commodity is quoted and can be hedged through OTC instruments. Commodity is not susceptible to damage	Commodity is not quoted but is liquid. There is uncertainty about the possibility of hedging. Commodity is not susceptible to damage	Commodity is not quoted. Liquidity is limited given the size and depth of the market. No appropriate hedging instruments. Commodity is susceptible to damage

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Strength of sponsor				
Financial strength of trader	Very strong, relative to trading philosophy and risks	Strong	Adequate	Weak
Track record, including ability to manage the logistic process	Extensive experience with the type of transaction in question. Strong record of operating success and cost efficiency	Sufficient experience with the type of transaction in question. Above average record of operating success and cost efficiency	Limited experience with the type of transaction in question. Average record of operating success and cost efficiency	Limited or uncertain track record in general. Volatile costs and profits
Trading controls and hedging policies	Strong standards for counterparty selection, hedging, and monitoring	Adequate standards for counterparty selection, hedging, and monitoring	Past deals have experienced no or minor problems	Trader has experienced significant losses on past deals
Quality of financial disclosure	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Financial disclosure contains some uncertainties or is insufficient
Security package				
Asset control	First perfected security interest provides the lender legal control of the assets at any time if needed	First perfected security interest provides the lender legal control of the assets at any time if needed	At some point in the process, there is a rupture in the control of the assets by the lender. The rupture is mitigated by knowledge of the trade process or a third party undertaking as the case may be	Contract leaves room for some risk of losing control over the assets. Recovery could be jeopardised

	Strong	Good	Satisfactory	Weak
Insurance against damages	Strong insurance coverage including collateral damages with top quality insurance companies	Satisfactory insurance coverage (not including collateral damages) with good quality insurance companies	Fair insurance coverage (not including collateral damages) with acceptable quality insurance companies	Weak insurance coverage (not including collateral damages) or with weak quality insurance companies

Annex 7

Illustrative Examples: Calculating the Effect of Credit Risk Mitigation under Supervisory Formula

Some examples are provided below for determining how collateral and guarantees are to be recognised under the SF.

Illustrative Example Involving Collateral – proportional cover

Assume an originating bank purchases a €100 securitisation exposure with a credit enhancement level in excess of K_{IRB} for which an external or inferred rating is not available. Additionally, assume that the SF capital charge on the securitisation exposure is €1.6 (when multiplied by 12.5 results in risk weighted assets of €20). Further assume that the originating bank has received €80 of collateral in the form of cash that is denominated in the same currency as the securitisation exposure. The capital requirement for the position is determined by multiplying the SF capital requirement by the ratio of adjusted exposure amount and the original exposure amount, as illustrated below.

Step 1: Adjusted Exposure Amount (E^*) = $\max \{0, [E \times (1 + H_e) - C \times (1 - H_c - H_{fx})]\}$

$$E^* = \max \{0, [100 \times (1 + 0) - 80 \times (1 - 0 - 0)]\} = €20$$

where (based on the information provided above):

E^* = the exposure value after risk mitigation (€20)

E = current value of the exposure (€100)

H_e = haircut appropriate to the exposure (This haircut is not relevant because the originating bank is not lending the securitisation exposure in exchange for collateral).

C = the current value of the collateral received (€80)

H_c = haircut appropriate to the collateral (0)

H_{fx} = haircut appropriate for mismatch between the collateral and exposure (0)

Step 2: Capital requirement = $(E^* / E) \times$ SF capital requirement

where (based on the information provide above):

$$\text{Capital requirement} = €20 / €100 \times €1.6 = €0.32.$$

Illustrative Example Involving a Guarantee – proportional cover

All of the assumptions provided in the illustrative example involving collateral apply except for the form of credit risk mitigant. Assume that the bank has received an eligible, unsecured guarantee in the amount of €80 from a bank. Therefore, a haircut for currency mismatch will not apply. The capital requirement is determined as follows.

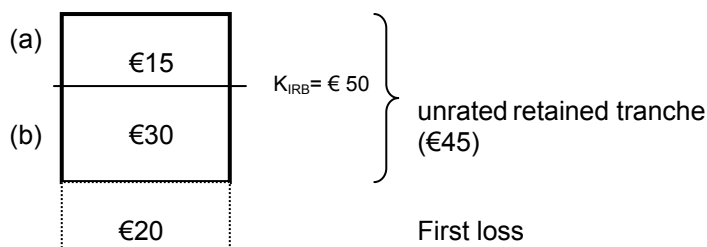
- The protected portion of the securitisation exposure (€80) is to receive the risk weight of the protection provider. The risk weight for the protection provider is equivalent to that for an unsecured loan to the guarantor bank, as determined under the IRB approach. Assume that this risk weight is 10%. Then, the capital charge on the protected portion would be: $€80 \times 10\% \times 0.08 = €0.64$.
- The capital charge for the unprotected portion (€20) is derived by multiplying the capital charge on the securitisation exposure by the share of the unprotected portion to the exposure amount. The share of the unprotected portion is: $€20 / €100 = 20\%$. Thus, the capital requirement will be: $€1.6 \times 20\% = €0.32$.

The total capital requirement for the protected and unprotected portions is:

$$€0.64 \text{ (protected portion)} + €0.32 \text{ (unprotected portion)} = €0.96 .$$

Illustrative example – the case of credit risk mitigants covering the most senior parts

Assume an originating bank that securitises a pool of loans of €1000. The K_{IRB} of this underlying pool is 5% (capital charge of €50). There is a first loss position of €20. The originator retains only the second most junior tranche: an unrated tranche of €45. We can summarise the situation as follows:



1. Capital charge without collateral or guarantees

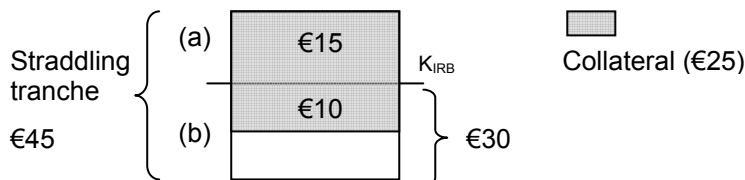
According to this example, the capital charge for the unrated retained tranche that is straddling the K_{IRB} line is the sum of the capital requirements for tranches (a) and (b) in the graph above:

- Assume the SF risk weight for this subtranche is 820%. Thus, risk-weighted assets are $€15 \times 820\% = €123$. Capital charge is $€123 \times 8\% = €9.84$
- The subtranche below K_{IRB} must be deducted. Risk-weighted assets: $€30 \times 1250\% = €375$. Capital charge of $€375 \times 8\% = €30$

$$\text{Total capital charge for the unrated straddling tranche} = €9.84 + €30 = €39.84$$

2. Capital charge with collateral

Assume now that the originating bank has received €25 of collateral in the form of cash that is denominated in the same currency as the securitisation exposure. Because the tranche is straddling the K_{IRB} level, we must assume that the collateral is covering the most senior subtranche above K_{IRB} ((a) subtranche covered by €15 of collateral) and, only if there is some collateral left, the coverage must be applied to the subtranche below K_{IRB} beginning with the most senior portion (e.g. tranche (b) covered by €10 of collateral). Thus, we have:



The capital requirement for the position is determined by multiplying the SF capital requirement by the ratio of adjusted exposure amount and the original exposure amount, as illustrated below. We must apply this for the two subtranches.

- (a) The first subtranche has an initial exposure of €15 and collateral of €15, so in this case it is completely covered. In other words:

Step 1: Adjusted Exposure Amount

$$E^* = \max \{0, [E \times (1 + H_e) - C \times (1 - H_c - H_{fx})]\} = \max \{0, [15 - 15]\} = €0$$

where:

E^* = the exposure value after risk mitigation (€0)

E = current value of the exposure (€15)

C = the current value of the collateral received (€15)

H_e = haircut appropriate to the exposure (not relevant here, thus 0)

H_c and H_{fx} = haircut appropriate to the collateral and that for the mismatch between the collateral and exposure (to simplify, 0)

Step 2: Capital requirement = $(E^* / E) \times$ SF capital requirement

$$\text{Capital requirement} = 0 \times €9.84 = €0$$

- (b) The second subtranche has an initial exposure of €30 and collateral of €10, which is the amount left after covering the subtranche above K_{IRB} . Thus, these €10 must be allocated to the most senior portion of the €30 subtranche.

Step1: Adjusted Exposure Amount

$$E^* = \max \{0, [30 \times (1 + 0) - 10 \times (1 - 0 - 0)]\} = €20$$

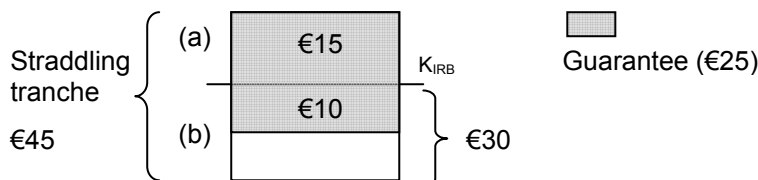
Step 2: Capital requirement = $(E^* / E) \times$ SF capital requirement

$$\text{Capital requirement} = €20 / €30 \times €30 = €20$$

Finally, the total capital charge for the unrated straddling tranche = €0 + €20 = €20

3. Guarantee

Assume now that instead of collateral, the bank has received an eligible, unsecured guarantee in the amount of €25 from a bank. Therefore the haircut for currency mismatch will not apply. The situation can be summarised as:



The capital requirement for the two subtranches is determined as follows:

- (a) The first subtranche has an initial exposure of €15 and a guarantee of €15, so in this case it is completely covered. The €15 will receive the risk weight of the protection provider. The risk weight for the protection provider is equivalent to that for an unsecured loan to the guarantor bank, as determined under the IRB approach. Assume that this risk weight is 20%.

capital charge on the protected portion is $€15 \times 20\% \times 8\% = €0.24$

- (b) The second subtranche has an initial exposure of €30 and guarantee of €10 which must be applied to the most senior portion of this subtranche. Accordingly, the protected part is €10 and the unprotected part is €20.

- Again, the protected portion of the securitisation exposure is to receive the risk weight of the guarantor bank.

capital charge on the protected portion is $€10 \times 20\% \times 8\% = €0.16$

The capital charge for the unprotected portion (for an unrated position below K_{IRB}) is $€20 \times 1250\% \times 8\% = €20$

Total capital charge for the unrated straddling tranche = €0.24 (protected portion, above K_{IRB}) + €0.16 (protected portion, below K_{IRB}) + €20 (unprotected portion, below K_{IRB}) = €20.4

Annex 8

Mapping of Business Lines

Mapping of Business Lines

Level 1	Level 2	Activity Groups
Corporate Finance	Corporate Finance	Mergers and acquisitions, underwriting, privatisations, securitisation, research, debt (government, high yield), equity, syndications, IPO, secondary private placements
	Municipal/Government Finance	
	Merchant Banking	
	Advisory Services	
Trading & Sales	Sales	Fixed income, equity, foreign exchanges, commodities, credit, funding, own position securities, lending and repos, brokerage, debt, prime brokerage
	Market Making	
	Proprietary Positions	
	Treasury	
Retail Banking	Retail Banking	Retail lending and deposits, banking services, trust and estates
	Private Banking	Private lending and deposits, banking services, trust and estates, investment advice
	Card Services	Merchant/commercial/corporate cards, private labels and retail
Commercial Banking	Commercial Banking	Project finance, real estate, export finance, trade finance, factoring, leasing, lending, guarantees, bills of exchange
Payment and Settlement ²⁵⁴	External Clients	Payments and collections, funds transfer, clearing and settlement
Agency Services	Custody	Escrow, depository receipts, securities lending (customers) corporate actions
	Corporate Agency	Issuer and paying agents
	Corporate Trust	
Asset Management	Discretionary Fund Management	Pooled, segregated, retail, institutional, closed, open, private equity
	Non-Discretionary Fund Management	Pooled, segregated, retail, institutional, closed, open
Retail Brokerage	Retail Brokerage	Execution and full service

²⁵⁴ Payment and settlement losses related to a bank's own activities would be incorporated in the loss experience of the affected business line.

Principles for business line mapping²⁵⁵

- (a) All activities must be mapped into the eight level 1 business lines in a mutually exclusive and jointly exhaustive manner.
- (b) Any banking or non-banking activity which cannot be readily mapped into the business line framework, but which represents an ancillary function to an activity included in the framework, must be allocated to the business line it supports. If more than one business line is supported through the ancillary activity, an objective mapping criteria must be used.
- (c) When mapping gross income, if an activity cannot be mapped into a particular business line then the business line yielding the highest charge must be used. The same business line equally applies to any associated ancillary activity.
- (d) Banks may use internal pricing methods to allocate gross income between business lines provided that total gross income for the bank (as would be recorded under the Basic Indicator Approach) still equals the sum of gross income for the eight business lines.
- (e) The mapping of activities into business lines for operational risk capital purposes must be consistent with the definitions of business lines used for regulatory capital calculations in other risk categories, i.e. credit and market risk. Any deviations from this principle must be clearly motivated and documented.
- (f) The mapping process used must be clearly documented. In particular, written business line definitions must be clear and detailed enough to allow third parties to replicate the business line mapping. Documentation must, among other things, clearly motivate any exceptions or overrides and be kept on record.
- (g) Processes must be in place to define the mapping of any new activities or products.

²⁵⁵ Supplementary business line mapping guidance

There are a variety of valid approaches that banks can use to map their activities to the eight business lines, provided the approach used meets the business line mapping principles. Nevertheless, the Committee is aware that some banks would welcome further guidance. The following is therefore an example of one possible approach that could be used by a bank to map its gross income:

Gross income for retail banking consists of net interest income on loans and advances to retail customers and SMEs treated as retail, plus fees related to traditional retail activities, net income from swaps and derivatives held to hedge the retail banking book, and income on purchased retail receivables. To calculate net interest income for retail banking, a bank takes the interest earned on its loans and advances to retail customers less the weighted average cost of funding of the loans (from whatever source – retail or other deposits).

Similarly, gross income for commercial banking consists of the net interest income on loans and advances to corporate (plus SMEs treated as corporate), interbank and sovereign customers and income on purchased corporate receivables, plus fees related to traditional commercial banking activities including commitments, guarantees, bills of exchange, net income (e.g. from coupons and dividends) on securities held in the banking book, and profits/losses on swaps and derivatives held to hedge the commercial banking book. Again, the calculation of net interest income is based on interest earned on loans and advances to corporate, interbank and sovereign customers less the weighted average cost of funding for these loans (from whatever source).

For trading and sales, gross income consists of profits/losses on instruments held for trading purposes (i.e. in the mark-to-market book), net of funding cost, plus fees from wholesale broking.

For the other five business lines, gross income consists primarily of the net fees/commissions earned in each of these businesses. Payment and settlement consists of fees to cover provision of payment/settlement facilities for wholesale counterparties. Asset management is management of assets on behalf of others.

- (h) Senior management is responsible for the mapping policy (which is subject to the approval by the board of directors).
- (i) The mapping process to business lines must be subject to independent review.

Annex 9

Detailed Loss Event Type Classification

Event-Type Category (Level 1)	Definition	Categories (Level 2)	Activity Examples (Level 3)
Internal fraud	Losses due to acts of a type intended to defraud, misappropriate property or circumvent regulations, the law or company policy, excluding diversity/discrimination events, which involves at least one internal party	Unauthorised Activity	Transactions not reported (intentional) Transaction type unauthorised (w/monetary loss) Mismarking of position (intentional)
		Theft and Fraud	Fraud / credit fraud / worthless deposits Theft / extortion / embezzlement / robbery Misappropriation of assets Malicious destruction of assets Forgery Check kiting Smuggling Account take-over / impersonation / etc. Tax non-compliance / evasion (wilful) Bribes / kickbacks Insider trading (not on firm's account)
External fraud	Losses due to acts of a type intended to defraud, misappropriate property or circumvent the law, by a third party	Theft and Fraud	Theft/Robbery Forgery Check kiting
		Systems Security	Hacking damage Theft of information (w/monetary loss)
Employment Practices and Workplace Safety	Losses arising from acts inconsistent with employment, health or safety laws or agreements, from payment of personal injury claims, or from diversity / discrimination events	Employee Relations	Compensation, benefit, termination issues Organised labour activity
		Safe Environment	General liability (slip and fall, etc.) Employee health & safety rules events Workers compensation
		Diversity & Discrimination	All discrimination types

Event-Type Category (Level 1)	Definition	Categories (Level 2)	Activity Examples (Level 3)
Clients, Products & Business Practices	Losses arising from an unintentional or negligent failure to meet a professional obligation to specific clients (including fiduciary and suitability requirements), or from the nature or design of a product.	Suitability, Disclosure & Fiduciary	Fiduciary breaches / guideline violations Suitability / disclosure issues (KYC, etc.) Retail customer disclosure violations Breach of privacy Aggressive sales Account churning Misuse of confidential information Lender liability
		Improper Business or Market Practices	Antitrust Improper trade / market practices Market manipulation Insider trading (on firm's account) Unlicensed activity Money laundering
		Product Flaws	Product defects (unauthorised, etc.) Model errors
		Selection, Sponsorship & Exposure	Failure to investigate client per guidelines Exceeding client exposure limits
		Advisory Activities	Disputes over performance of advisory activities
Damage to Physical Assets	Losses arising from loss or damage to physical assets from natural disaster or other events.	Disasters and other events	Natural disaster losses Human losses from external sources (terrorism, vandalism)
Business disruption and system failures	Losses arising from disruption of business or system failures	Systems	Hardware Software Telecommunications Utility outage / disruptions

Event-Type Category (Level 1)	Definition	Categories (Level 2)	Activity Examples (Level 3)
Execution, Delivery & Process Management	Losses from failed transaction processing or process management, from relations with trade counterparties and vendors	Transaction Capture, Execution & Maintenance	Miscommunication Data entry, maintenance or loading error Missed deadline or responsibility Model / system misoperation Accounting error / entity attribution error Other task misperformance Delivery failure Collateral management failure Reference Data Maintenance
		Monitoring and Reporting	Failed mandatory reporting obligation Inaccurate external report (loss incurred)
		Customer Intake and Documentation	Client permissions / disclaimers missing Legal documents missing / incomplete
		Customer / Client Account Management	Unapproved access given to accounts Incorrect client records (loss incurred) Negligent loss or damage of client assets
		Trade Counterparties	Non-client counterparty misperformance Misc. non-client counterparty disputes
		Vendors & Suppliers	Outsourcing Vendor disputes

Annex 10

Overview of Methodologies for the Capital Treatment of Transactions Secured by Financial Collateral under the Standardised and IRB Approaches

1. The rules set forth in the standardised approach — Credit Risk Mitigation (CRM), for collateralised transactions generally determine the treatment under both the standardised and the foundation internal ratings-based (IRB) approaches for claims in the banking book that are secured by financial collateral of sufficient quality. Banks using the advanced IRB approach will typically take financial collateral on banking book exposures into account by using their own internal estimates to adjust the exposure's loss given default (LGD). One exception for a bank using the advanced IRB approach pertains to the recognition of repo-style transactions subject to a master netting agreement, as discussed below.

2. Collateralised exposures that take the form of repo-style transactions (i.e. repo/reverse repos and securities lending/borrowing) are subject to special considerations. Such transactions that are held in the trading book are subject to a counterparty risk capital charge as described below. Further, all banks, including those using the advanced IRB approach, must follow the methodology in the CRM section, which is outlined below, for repo-style transactions booked in either the banking book or trading book that are subject to master netting agreements if they wish to recognise the effects of netting for capital purposes.

Standardised and Foundation IRB Approaches

3. Banks under the standardised approach may use either the simple approach or the comprehensive approach for determining the appropriate risk weight for a transaction secured by eligible financial collateral. Under the simple approach, the risk weight of the collateral substitutes for that of the counterparty. Apart from a few types of very low risk transactions, the risk weight floor is 20%. Under the foundation IRB approach, banks may only use the comprehensive approach.

4. Under the comprehensive approach, eligible financial collateral reduces the amount of the exposure to the counterparty. The amount of the collateral is decreased and, where appropriate, the amount of the exposure is increased through the use of haircuts, to account for potential changes in the market prices of securities and foreign exchange rates over the holding period. This results in an adjusted exposure amount, E^* . Banks may either use supervisory haircuts set by the Committee or, subject to qualifying criteria, rely on their "own" estimates of haircuts. Where the supervisory holding period for calculating the haircut amounts differs from the holding period set down in the rules for that type of collateralised transaction, the haircuts are to be scaled up or down as appropriate. Once E^* is calculated, the standardised bank will assign that amount a risk weight appropriate to the counterparty. For transactions secured by financial collateral other than repos subject to a master netting agreement, foundation IRB banks are to use E^* to adjust the LGD on the exposure.

Special Considerations for Repo-Style Transactions

5. Repo-style transactions booked in the trading book, will, like OTC derivatives held in the trading book, be subject to a counterparty credit risk charge. In calculating this charge, a bank under the standardised approach must use the comprehensive approach to collateral; the simple approach will not be available.

6. The capital treatment for repo-style transactions that are not subject to master netting agreements is the same as that for other collateralised transactions. However, for banks using the comprehensive approach, national supervisors have the discretion to determine that a haircut of zero may be used where the transaction is with a core market participant and meets certain other criteria (so-called carve-out treatment). Where repo-style transactions are subject to a master netting agreement whether they are held in the banking book or trading book, a bank may choose not to recognise the netting effects in calculating capital. In that case, each transaction will be subject to a capital charge as if there were no master netting agreement.

7. If a bank wishes to recognise the effects of master netting agreements on repo-style transactions for capital purposes, it must apply the treatment the CRM section sets forth in that regard on a counterparty-by-counterparty basis. This treatment would apply to all repo-style transactions subject to master netting agreements, regardless of whether the bank is under the standardised, foundation IRB, or advanced IRB approach and regardless of whether the transactions are held in the banking or trading book. Under this treatment, the bank would calculate E^* as the sum of the net current exposure on the contract plus an add-on for potential changes in security prices and foreign exchange rates. The add-on may be determined through the supervisory haircuts or, for those banks that meet the qualifying criteria, own estimate haircuts or an internal VaR model. The carve-out treatment for haircuts on repo-style transactions may not be used where an internal VaR model is applied.

8. The calculated E^* is in effect an unsecured loan equivalent amount that would be used for the exposure amount under the standardised approach and the exposure at default (EAD) value under both the foundation and advanced IRB approaches. E^* is used for EAD under the IRB approaches, thus would be treated in the same manner as the credit equivalent amount (calculated as the sum of replacement cost plus an add-on for potential future exposure) for OTC derivatives subject to master netting agreements.

Annex 10a

Supervisory Framework for the Use of “Backtesting” in Conjunction with the Internal Models Approach to Market Risk Capital Requirements

I. Introduction

1. This Annex presents the framework developed by the Committee for incorporating backtesting into the internal models approach to market risk capital requirements. It represents an elaboration of paragraph 718(Lxxvi) (j) of this Framework.

2. Many banks that have adopted an internal model-based approach to market risk measurement routinely compare daily profits and losses with model-generated risk measures to gauge the quality and accuracy of their risk measurement systems. This process, known as “backtesting”, has been found useful by many institutions as they have developed and introduced their risk measurement models.

3. As a technique for evaluating the quality of a firm’s risk measurement model, backtesting continues to evolve. New approaches to backtesting are still being developed and discussed within the broader risk management community. At present, different banks perform different types of backtesting comparisons, and the standards of interpretation also differ somewhat across banks. Active efforts to improve and refine the methods currently in use are underway, with the goal of distinguishing more sharply between accurate and inaccurate risk models.

4. The essence of all backtesting efforts is the comparison of actual trading results with model-generated risk measures. If this comparison is close enough, the backtest raises no issues regarding the quality of the risk measurement model. In some cases, however, the comparison uncovers sufficient differences that problems almost certainly must exist, either with the model or with the assumptions of the backtest. In between these two cases is a grey area where the test results are, on their own, inconclusive.

5. The Committee believes that backtesting offers the best opportunity for incorporating suitable incentives into the internal models approach in a manner that is consistent and that will cover a variety of circumstances. Indeed, many of the public comments on the April 1995 internal models proposal stressed the need to maintain strong incentives for the continual improvement of banks’ internal risk measurement models. In considering how to incorporate backtesting more closely into the internal models approach to market risk capital requirements, the Committee has sought to reflect both the fact that the industry has not yet settled on a single backtesting methodology and concerns over the imperfect nature of the signal generated by backtesting.

6. The Committee believes that the framework outlined in this document strikes an appropriate balance between recognition of the potential limitations of backtesting and the need to put in place appropriate incentives. At the same time, the Committee recognises that the techniques for risk measurement and backtesting are still evolving, and the Committee is committed to incorporating important new developments in these areas into its framework.

7. The remainder of this document describes the backtesting framework that is to accompany the internal models capital requirement. The aim of this framework is the

promotion of more rigorous approaches to backtesting and the supervisory interpretation of backtesting results. The next section deals with the nature of the backtests themselves, while the section that follows concerns the supervisory interpretation of the results and sets out the agreed standards of the Committee in this regard.

II. Description of the backtesting framework

8. The backtesting framework developed by the Committee is based on that adopted by many of the banks that use internal market risk measurement models. These backtesting programs typically consist of a periodic comparison of the bank's daily value-at-risk measures with the subsequent daily profit or loss ("trading outcome"). The value-at-risk measures are intended to be larger than all but a certain fraction of the trading outcomes, where that fraction is determined by the confidence level of the value-at-risk measure. Comparing the risk measures with the trading outcomes simply means that the bank counts the number of times that the risk measures were larger than the trading outcome. The fraction actually covered can then be compared with the intended level of coverage to gauge the performance of the bank's risk model. In some cases, this last step is relatively informal, although there are a number of statistical tests that may also be applied.

9. The supervisory framework for backtesting in this document involves all of the steps identified in the previous paragraph, and attempts to set out as consistent an interpretation of each step as is feasible without imposing unnecessary burdens. Under the value-at-risk framework, the risk measure is an estimate of the amount that could be lost on a set of positions due to general market movements over a given holding period, measured using a specified confidence level.

10. The backtests to be applied compare whether the observed percentage of outcomes covered by the risk measure is consistent with a *99% level of confidence*. That is, they attempt to determine if a bank's 99th percentile risk measures truly cover 99% of the firm's trading outcomes. While it can be argued that the extreme-value nature of the 99th percentile makes it more difficult to estimate reliably than other, lower percentiles, the Committee has concluded that it is important to align the test with the confidence level specified in the Amendment to the Capital Accord.

11. An additional consideration in specifying the appropriate risk measures and trading outcomes for backtesting arises because the value-at-risk approach to risk measurement is generally based on the sensitivity of a static portfolio to instantaneous price shocks. That is, end-of-day trading positions are input into the risk measurement model, which assesses the possible change in the value of this static portfolio due to price and rate movements over the assumed holding period.

12. While this is straightforward in theory, in practice it complicates the issue of backtesting. For instance, it is often argued that value-at-risk measures cannot be compared against actual trading outcomes, since the actual outcomes will inevitably be "contaminated" by changes in portfolio composition during the holding period. According to this view, the inclusion of fee income together with trading gains and losses resulting from changes in the composition of the portfolio should not be included in the definition of the trading outcome because they do not relate to the risk inherent in the static portfolio that was assumed in constructing the value-at-risk measure.

13. This argument is persuasive with regard to the use of value-at-risk measures based on price shocks calibrated to longer holding periods. That is, comparing the ten-day, 99th percentile risk measures from the internal models capital requirement with actual ten-day

trading outcomes would probably not be a meaningful exercise. In particular, in any given ten day period, significant changes in portfolio composition relative to the initial positions are common at major trading institutions. For this reason, *the backtesting framework described here involves the use of risk measures calibrated to a one-day holding period*. Other than the restrictions mentioned in this paper, the test would be based on how banks model risk internally.

14. Given the use of one-day risk measures, it is appropriate to employ one-day trading outcomes as the benchmark to use in the backtesting program. The same concerns about “contamination” of the trading outcomes discussed above continue to be relevant, however, even for one-day trading outcomes. That is, there is a concern that the overall one-day trading outcome is not a suitable point of comparison, because it reflects the effects of intra-day trading, possibly including fee income that is booked in connection with the sale of new products.

15. On the one hand, intra-day trading will tend to increase the volatility of trading outcomes, and may result in cases where the overall trading outcome exceeds the risk measure. This event clearly does not imply a problem with the methods used to calculate the risk measure; rather, it is simply outside the scope of what the value-at-risk method is intended to capture. On the other hand, including fee income may similarly distort the backtest, but in the other direction, since fee income often has annuity-like characteristics.

16. Since this fee income is not typically included in the calculation of the risk measure, problems with the risk measurement model could be masked by including fee income in the definition of the trading outcome used for backtesting purposes.

17. Some have argued that the actual trading outcomes experienced by the bank are the most important and relevant figures for risk management purposes, and that the risk measures should be benchmarked against this reality, even if the assumptions behind their calculations are limited in this regard. Others have also argued that the issue of fee income can be addressed sufficiently, albeit crudely, by simply removing the mean of the trading outcomes from their time series before performing the backtests. A more sophisticated approach would involve a detailed attribution of income by source, including fees, spreads, market movements, and intra-day trading results.

18. To the extent that the backtesting program is viewed purely as a statistical test of the integrity of the calculation of the value-at-risk measure, it is clearly most appropriate to employ a definition of daily trading outcome that allows for an “uncontaminated” test. To meet this standard, banks should develop the capability to perform backtests based on the hypothetical changes in portfolio value that would occur were end-of-day positions to remain unchanged.

19. Backtesting using actual daily profits and losses is also a useful exercise since it can uncover cases where the risk measures are not accurately capturing trading volatility in spite of being calculated with integrity.

20. For these reasons, *the Committee urges banks to develop the capability to perform backtests using both hypothetical and actual trading outcomes*. Although national supervisors may differ in the emphasis that they wish to place on these different approaches to backtesting, it is clear that each approach has value. In combination, the two approaches are likely to provide a strong understanding of the relation between calculated risk measures and trading outcomes.

21. The next step in specifying the backtesting program concerns the nature of the backtest itself, and the frequency with which it is to be performed. The framework adopted by

the Committee, which is also the most straightforward procedure for comparing the risk measures with the trading outcomes, is simply to calculate the number of times that the trading outcomes are not covered by the risk measures (“exceptions”). For example, over 200 trading days, a 99% daily risk measure should cover, on average, 198 of the 200 trading outcomes, leaving two exceptions.

22. With regard to the frequency of the backtest, the desire to base the backtest on as many observations as possible must be balanced against the desire to perform the test on a regular basis. The backtesting framework to be applied entails a *formal testing and accounting of exceptions on a quarterly basis using the most recent twelve months of data*.

23. The implementation of the backtesting program should formally begin on the date that the internal models capital requirement becomes effective, that is, by year-end 1997 at the latest. This implies that *the first formal accounting of exceptions under the backtesting program would occur by year-end 1998*. This of course does not preclude national supervisors from requesting backtesting results prior to that date, and in particular does not preclude their usage, at national discretion, as part of the internal model approval process.

24. Using the most recent twelve months of data yields approximately 250 daily observations for the purposes of backtesting. *The national supervisor will use the number of exceptions (out of 250) generated by the bank’s model as the basis for a supervisory response*. In many cases, there will be no response. In other cases, the supervisor may initiate a dialogue with the bank to determine if there is a problem with a bank’s model. In the most serious cases, the supervisor may impose an increase in a bank’s capital requirement or disallow use of the model.

25. The appeal of using the number of exceptions as the primary reference point in the backtesting process is the simplicity and straightforwardness of this approach. From a statistical point of view, using the number of exceptions as the basis for appraising a bank’s model requires relatively few strong assumptions. In particular, the primary assumption is that each day’s test (exception/no exception) is independent of the outcome of any of the others.

26. The Committee of course recognises that tests of this type are limited in their power to distinguish an accurate model from an inaccurate model. To a statistician, this means that it is not possible to calibrate the test so that it correctly signals all the problematic models without giving false signals of trouble at many others. This limitation has been a prominent consideration in the design of the framework presented here, and should also be prominent among the considerations of national supervisors in interpreting the results of a bank’s backtesting program. However, the Committee does not view this limitation as a decisive objection to the use of backtesting. Rather, conditioning supervisory standards on a clear framework, though limited and imperfect, is seen as preferable to a purely judgmental standard or one with no incentive features whatsoever.

III. Supervisory framework for the interpretation of backtesting results

A. Description of three-zone approach

27. It is with the statistical limitations of backtesting in mind that the Committee is introducing a framework for the supervisory interpretation of backtesting results that encompasses a range of possible responses, depending on the strength of the signal generated from the backtest. These responses are classified into three zones, distinguished

by colours into a hierarchy of responses. The green zone corresponds to backtesting results that do not themselves suggest a problem with the quality or accuracy of a bank's model. The yellow zone encompasses results that do raise questions in this regard, but where such a conclusion is not definitive. The red zone indicates a backtesting result that almost certainly indicates a problem with a bank's risk model.

28. The Committee has agreed to standards regarding the definitions of these zones in respect of the number of exceptions generated in the backtesting program, and these are set forth below. To place these definitions in proper perspective, however, it is useful to examine the probabilities of obtaining various numbers of exceptions under different assumptions about the accuracy of a bank's risk measurement model.

B. Statistical considerations in defining the zones

29. Three zones have been delineated and their boundaries chosen in order to balance two types of statistical error: (1) the possibility that an accurate risk model would be classified as inaccurate on the basis of its backtesting result, and (2) the possibility that an inaccurate model would not be classified that way based on its backtesting result.

30. Table 1 reports the probabilities of obtaining a particular number of exceptions from a sample of 250 independent observations under several assumptions about the actual percentage of outcomes that the model captures (that is, these are binomial probabilities). For example, the left-hand portion of Table 1 reports probabilities associated with an accurate model (that is, a true coverage level of 99%). Under these assumptions, the column labelled "exact" reports that exactly five exceptions can be expected in 6.7% of the samples.

31. The right-hand portion of Table 1 reports probabilities associated with several possible inaccurate models, namely models whose true levels of coverage are 98%, 97%, 96%, and 95%, respectively. Thus, the column labelled "exact" under an assumed coverage level of 97% shows that five exceptions would then be expected in 10.9% of the samples.

32. Table 1 also reports several important error probabilities. For the assumption that the model covers 99% of outcomes (the desired level of coverage), the table reports the probability that selecting a given number of exceptions as a threshold for rejecting the accuracy of the model will result in an erroneous rejection of an accurate model ("type 1" error). For example, if the threshold is set as low as one exception, then accurate models will be rejected fully 91.9% of the time, because they will escape rejection only in the 8.1% of cases where they generate zero exceptions. As the threshold number of exceptions is increased, the probability of making this type of error declines.

33. Under the assumptions that the model's true level of coverage is not 99%, Table 1 reports the probability that selecting a given number of exceptions as a threshold for rejecting the accuracy of the model will result in an erroneous acceptance of a model with the assumed (inaccurate) level of coverage ("type 2" error). For example, if the model's actual level of coverage is 97%, and the threshold for rejection is set at seven or more exceptions, the table indicates that this model would be erroneously accepted 37.5% of the time.

34. In interpreting the information in Table 1, it is also important to understand that although the alternative models appear close to the desired standard in probability terms (97% is close to 99%), the difference between these models in terms of the size of the risk measures generated can be substantial. That is, a bank's risk measure could be substantially less than that of an accurate model and still cover 97% of the trading outcomes. For example, in the case of normally distributed trading outcomes, the 97th percentile corresponds to 1.88 standard deviations, while the 99th percentile corresponds to 2.33

standard deviations, an increase of nearly 25%. Thus, the supervisory desire to distinguish between models providing 99% coverage, and those providing say, 97% coverage, is a very real one.

C. Definition of the green, yellow, and red zones

35. The results in Table 1 also demonstrate some of the statistical limitations of backtesting. In particular, there is no threshold number of exceptions that yields both a low probability of erroneously rejecting an accurate model and a low probability of erroneously accepting all of the relevant inaccurate models. It is for this reason that the Committee has rejected an approach that contains only a single threshold.

36. Given these limitations, the Committee has classified outcomes into three categories. In the first category, the test results are consistent with an accurate model, and the possibility of erroneously accepting an inaccurate model is low (green zone). At the other extreme, the test results are extremely unlikely to have resulted from an accurate model, and the probability of erroneously rejecting an accurate model on this basis is remote (red zone). In between these two cases, however, is a zone where the backtesting results could be consistent with either accurate or inaccurate models, and the supervisor should encourage a bank to present additional information about its model before taking action (yellow zone).

37. Table 2 sets out the Committee's agreed boundaries for these zones and the presumptive supervisory response for each backtesting outcome, based on a sample of 250 observations. For other sample sizes, the boundaries should be deduced by calculating the binomial probabilities associated with true coverage of 99%, as in Table 1. The yellow zone begins at the point such that the probability of obtaining that number or fewer exceptions equals or exceeds 95%. Table 2 reports these cumulative probabilities for each number of exceptions. For 250 observations, it can be seen that five or fewer exceptions will be obtained 95.88% of the time when the true level of coverage is 99%. Thus, the yellow zone begins at five exceptions.

38. Similarly, the beginning of the red zone is defined as the point such that the probability of obtaining that number or fewer exceptions equals or exceeds 99.99%. Table 2 shows that for a sample of 250 observations and a true coverage level of 99%, this occurs with ten exceptions.

D. The green zone

39. The green zone needs little explanation. Since a model that truly provides 99% coverage would be quite likely to produce as many as four exceptions in a sample of 250 outcomes, there is little reason for concern raised by backtesting results that fall in this range. This is reinforced by the results in Table 1, which indicate that accepting outcomes in this range leads to only a small chance of erroneously accepting an inaccurate model.

E. The yellow zone

40. The range from five to nine exceptions constitutes the yellow zone. Outcomes in this range are plausible for both accurate and inaccurate models, although Table 1 suggests that they are generally more likely for inaccurate models than for accurate models. Moreover, the results in Table 1 indicate that the presumption that the model is inaccurate should grow as the number of exceptions increases in the range from five to nine.

41. The Committee has agreed that, within the yellow zone, the number of exceptions should generally guide the size of potential supervisory increases in a firm's capital requirement. Table 2 sets out the Committee's agreed guidelines for increases in the multiplication factor applicable to the internal models capital requirement, resulting from backtesting results in the yellow zone.

42. These guidelines help in maintaining the appropriate structure of incentives applicable to the internal models approach. In particular, the potential supervisory penalty increases with the number of exceptions. The results in Table 1 generally support the notion that nine exceptions is a more troubling result than five exceptions, and these steps are meant to reflect that.

43. These particular values reflect the general idea that the increase in the multiplication factor should be sufficient to return the model to a 99th percentile standard. For example, five exceptions in a sample of 250 implies only 98% coverage. Thus, the increase in the multiplication factor should be sufficient to transform a model with 98% coverage into one with 99% coverage. Needless to say, precise calculations of this sort require additional statistical assumptions that are not likely to hold in all cases. For example, if the distribution of trading outcomes is assumed to be normal, then the ratio of the 99th percentile to the 98th percentile is approximately 1.14, and the increase needed in the multiplication factor is therefore approximately 0.40 for a scaling factor of 3. If the actual distribution is not normal, but instead has "fat tails", then larger increases may be required to reach the 99th percentile standard. The concern about fat tails was also an important factor in the choice of the specific increments set out in Table 2.

44. It is important to stress, however, that these increases are not meant to be purely automatic. The results in Table 1 indicate that results in the yellow zone do not always imply an inaccurate model, and the Committee has no interest in penalising banks solely for bad luck. *Nevertheless, to keep the incentives aligned properly, backtesting results in the yellow zone should generally be presumed to imply an increase in the multiplication factor unless the bank can demonstrate that such an increase is not warranted.*

45. In other words, the burden of proof in these situations should not be on the supervisor to prove that a problem exists, but rather should be on the bank to prove that their model is fundamentally sound. In such a situation, there are many different types of additional information that might be relevant to an assessment of the bank's model.

46. For example, it would then be particularly valuable to see the results of backtests covering disaggregated subsets of the bank's overall trading activities. Many banks that engage in regular backtesting programs break up their overall trading portfolio into trading units organised around risk factors or product categories. Disaggregating in this fashion could allow the tracking of a problem that surfaced at the aggregate level back to its source at the level of a specific trading unit or risk model.

47. Banks should also document all of the exceptions generated from their ongoing backtesting program, including an explanation for the exception. This documentation is important to determining an appropriate supervisory response to a backtesting result in the yellow zone. Banks may also implement backtesting for confidence intervals other than the 99th percentile, or may perform other statistical tests not considered here. Naturally, this information could also prove very helpful in assessing their model.

48. In practice, there are several possible explanations for a backtesting exception, some of which go to the basic integrity of the model, some of which suggest an under-specified or low-quality model, and some of which suggest either bad luck or poor intra-day

trading results. Classifying the exceptions generated by a bank's model into these categories can be a very useful exercise.

Basic integrity of the model

- (1) The bank's systems simply are not capturing the risk of the positions themselves (e.g. the positions of an overseas office are being reported incorrectly).
- (2) Model volatilities and/or correlations were calculated incorrectly (e.g. the computer is dividing by 250 when it should be dividing by 225).

Model's accuracy could be improved

- (3) The risk measurement model is not assessing the risk of some instruments with sufficient precision (e.g. too few maturity buckets or an omitted spread).

Bad luck or markets moved in fashion unanticipated by the model

- (4) Random chance (a very low probability event).
- (5) Markets moved by more than the model predicted was likely (i.e. volatility was significantly higher than expected).
- (6) Markets did not move together as expected (i.e. correlations were significantly different than what was assumed by the model).

Intra-day trading

- (7) There was a large (and money-losing) change in the bank's positions or some other income event between the end of the first day (when the risk estimate was calculated) and the end of the second day (when trading results were tabulated).

49. In general, problems relating to the basic integrity of the risk measurement model are potentially the most serious. If there are exceptions attributed to this category for a particular trading unit, the plus should apply. In addition, the model may be in need of substantial review and/or adjustment, and the supervisor would be expected to take appropriate action to ensure that this occurs.

50. The second category of problem (lack of model precision) is one that can be expected to occur at least part of the time with most risk measurement models. No model can hope to achieve infinite precision, and thus all models involve some amount of approximation. If, however, a particular bank's model appears more prone to this type of problem than others, the supervisor should impose the plus factor and also consider what other incentives are needed to spur improvements.

51. The third category of problems (markets moved in a fashion unanticipated by the model) should also be expected to occur at least some of the time with value-at-risk models. In particular, even an accurate model is not expected to cover 100% of trading outcomes. Some exceptions are surely the random 1% that the model can be expected not to cover. In other cases, the behaviour of the markets may shift so that previous estimates of volatility and correlation are less appropriate. No value-at-risk model will be immune from this type of problem; it is inherent in the reliance on past market behaviour as a means of gauging the risk of future market movements.

52. Finally, depending on the definition of trading outcomes employed for the purpose of backtesting, exceptions could also be generated by intra-day trading results or an unusual event in trading income other than from positioning. Although exceptions for these reasons would not necessarily suggest a problem with the bank's value-at-risk model, they could still be cause for supervisory concern and the imposition of the plus should be considered.

53. The extent to which a trading outcome exceeds the risk measure is another relevant piece of information. All else equal, exceptions generated by trading outcomes far in excess of the risk measure are a matter of greater concern than are outcomes only slightly larger than the risk measure.

54. In deciding whether or not to apply increases in a bank's capital requirement, it is envisioned that the supervisor could weigh these factors as well as others, including an appraisal of the bank's compliance with applicable qualitative standards of risk management. Based on the additional information provided by the bank, the supervisor will decide on the appropriate course of action.

55. In general, the imposition of a higher capital requirement for outcomes in the yellow zone is an appropriate response when the supervisor believes the reason for being in the yellow zone is a correctable problem in a bank's model. This can be contrasted with the case of an unexpected bout of high market volatility, which nearly all models may fail to predict. While these episodes may be stressful, they do not necessarily indicate that a bank's risk model is in need of redesign. Finally, in the case of severe problems with the basic integrity of the model, the supervisor should consider whether to disallow the use of the model for capital purposes altogether.

F. The red zone

56. Finally, in contrast to the yellow zone where the supervisor may exercise judgement in interpreting the backtesting results, outcomes in the red zone (ten or more exceptions) should generally lead to an automatic presumption that a problem exists with a bank's model. This is because it is extremely unlikely that an accurate model would independently generate ten or more exceptions from a sample of 250 trading outcomes.

57. In general, therefore, if a bank's model falls into the red zone, the supervisor should automatically increase the multiplication factor applicable to a firm's model by one (from three to four). Needless to say, the supervisor should also begin investigating the reasons why the bank's model produced such a large number of misses, and should require the bank to begin work on improving its model immediately.

58. Although ten exceptions is a very high number for 250 observations, there will on very rare occasions be a valid reason why an accurate model will produce so many exceptions. In particular, when financial markets are subjected to a major regime shift, many volatilities and correlations can be expected to shift as well, perhaps substantially. Unless a bank is prepared to update its volatility and correlation estimates instantaneously, such a regime shift could generate a number of exceptions in a short period of time. In essence, however, these exceptions would all be occurring for the same reason, and therefore the appropriate supervisory reaction might not be the same as if there were ten exceptions, but each from a separate incident. For example, one possible supervisory response in this instance would be to simply require the bank's model to take account of the regime shift as quickly as it can while maintaining the integrity of its procedures for updating the model.

59. It should be stressed, however, that the Committee believes that this exception should be allowed only under the most extraordinary circumstances, and that it is committed

to an automatic and non-discretionary increase in a bank's capital requirement for backtesting results that fall into the red zone.

IV. Conclusion

60. The above framework is intended to set out a consistent approach for incorporating backtesting into the internal models approach to market risk capital requirements. The goals of this effort have been to build appropriate and necessary incentives into a framework that relies heavily on the efforts of banks themselves to calculate the risks they face, to do so in a way that respects the inherent limitations of the available tools, and to keep the burdens and costs of the imposed procedures to a minimum.

61. The Basel Committee believes that the framework described above strikes the right balance in this regard. Perhaps more importantly, however, the Committee believes that this approach represents the first, and therefore critical, step toward a tighter integration of supervisory guidelines with verifiable measures of bank performance.

Table 1

Model is accurate			Model is inaccurate: Possible alternative levels of coverage								
Exceptions (our of 250)	Coverage = 99%		Exceptions (our of 250)	Coverage = 98%		Coverage = 97%		Coverage = 96%		Coverage = 95%	
	exact	type 1		exact	type 2	exact	type 2	exact	type 2	exact	type 2
0	8.1 %	100.0 %	0	0.6 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %
1	20.5 %	91.9 %	1	3.3 %	0.6 %	0.4 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %
2	25.7 %	71.4 %	2	8.3 %	3.9 %	1.5 %	0.4 %	0.2 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %
3	21.5 %	45.7 %	3	14.0 %	12.2 %	3.8 %	1.9 %	0.7 %	0.2 %	0.1 %	0.0 %
4	13.4 %	24.2 %	4	17.7 %	26.2 %	7.2 %	5.7 %	1.8 %	0.9 %	0.3 %	0.1 %
5	6.7 %	10.8 %	5	17.7 %	43.9 %	10.9 %	12.8 %	3.6 %	2.7 %	0.9 %	0.5 %
6	2.7 %	4.1 %	6	14.8 %	61.6 %	13.8 %	23.7 %	6.2 %	6.3 %	1.8 %	1.3 %
7	1.0 %	1.4 %	7	10.5 %	76.4 %	14.9 %	37.5 %	9.0 %	12.5 %	3.4 %	3.1 %
8	0.3 %	0.4 %	8	6.5 %	86.9 %	14.0 %	52.4 %	11.3 %	21.5 %	5.4 %	6.5 %
9	0.1 %	0.1 %	9	3.6 %	93.4 %	11.6 %	66.3 %	12.7 %	32.8 %	7.6 %	11.9 %
10	0.0 %	0.0 %	10	1.8 %	97.0 %	8.6 %	77.9 %	12.8 %	45.5 %	9.6 %	19.5 %
11	0.0 %	0.0 %	11	0.8 %	98.7 %	5.8 %	86.6 %	11.6 %	58.3 %	11.1 %	29.1 %
12	0.0 %	0.0 %	12	0.3 %	99.5 %	3.6 %	92.4 %	9.6 %	69.9 %	11.6 %	40.2 %
13	0.0 %	0.0 %	13	0.1 %	99.8 %	2.0 %	96.0 %	7.3 %	79.5 %	11.2 %	51.8 %
14	0.0 %	0.0 %	14	0.0 %	99.9 %	1.1 %	98.0 %	5.2 %	86.9 %	10.0 %	62.9 %
15	0.0 %	0.0 %	15	0.0 %	100.0 %	0.5 %	99.1 %	3.4 %	92.1 %	8.2 %	72.9 %

Notes: The table reports both exact probabilities of obtaining a certain number of exceptions from a sample of 250 independent observations under several assumptions about the true level of coverage, as well as type 1 or type 2 error probabilities derived from these exact probabilities.

The left-hand portion of the table pertains to the case where the model is accurate and its true level of coverage is 99%. Thus, the probability of any given observation being an exception is 1% (100% - 99% = 1%). The column labelled "exact" reports the probability of obtaining exactly the number of exceptions shown under this assumption in a sample of 250 independent observations. The column labelled "type 1" reports the probability that using a given number of exceptions as the cut-off for rejecting a model will imply erroneous rejection of an accurate model using a sample of 250 independent observations. For example, if the cut-off level is set at five or more exceptions, the type 1 column reports the probability of falsely rejecting an accurate model with 250 independent observations is 10.8%.

The right-hand portion of the table pertains to models that are inaccurate. In particular, the table concentrates of four specific inaccurate models, namely models whose true levels of coverage are 98%, 97%, 96% and 95% respectively. For each inaccurate model, the "exact" column reports the probability of obtaining exactly the number of exceptions shown under this assumption in a sample of 250 independent observations. The columns labelled "type 2" report the probability that using a given number of exceptions as the cut-off for rejecting a model will imply erroneous acceptance of an inaccurate model with the assumed level of coverage using a sample of 250 independent observations. For example, if the cut-off level is set at five or more exceptions, the type 2 column for an assumed coverage level of 97% reports the probability of falsely accepting a model with only 97% coverage with 250 independent observations is 12.8%.

Table 2

Zone	Number of exceptions	Increase in scaling factor	Cumulative probability
Green Zone	0	0.00	8.11%
	1	0.00	28.58%
	2	0.00	54.32%
	3	0.00	75.81%
	4	0.00	89.22%
Yellow Zone	5	0.40	95.88%
	6	0.50	98.63%
	7	0.65	99.60%
	8	0.75	99.89%
	9	0.85	99.97%
Red Zone	10 or more	1.00	99.99%

Notes: The table defines the green, yellow and red zones that supervisors will use to assess backtesting results in conjunction with the internal models approach to market risk capital requirements. The boundaries shown in the table are based on a sample of 250 observations. For other sample sizes, the yellow zone begins at the point where the cumulative probability equals or exceeds 95%, and the red zone begins at the point where the cumulative probability equals or exceeds 99.99%.

The cumulative probability is simply the probability of obtaining a given number or fewer exceptions in a sample of 250 observations when the true coverage level is 99%. For example, the cumulative probability shown for four exceptions is the probability of obtaining between zero and four exceptions.

Note that these cumulative probabilities and the type 1 error probabilities reported in Table 1 do not sum to one because the cumulative probability for a given number of exceptions includes the possibility of obtaining exactly that number of exceptions, as does the type 1 error probability. Thus, the sum of these two probabilities exceeds one by the amount of the probability of obtaining exactly that number of exceptions.

Annex 11

The Simplified Standardised Approach²⁵⁶

I. Credit risk – general rules for risk weights

1. Exposures should be risk weighted net of specific provisions.

A. Claims on sovereigns and central banks

2. Claims on sovereigns and their central banks will be risk-weighted on the basis of the consensus country risk scores of export credit agencies (ECA) participating in the “Arrangement on Officially Supported Export Credits”. These scores are available on the OECD’s website.²⁵⁷ The methodology establishes eight risk score categories associated with minimum export insurance premiums. As detailed below, each ECA risk score will correspond to a specific risk weight category.

ECA risk scores	0-1	2	3	4 to 6	7
Risk weights	0%	20%	50%	100%	150%

3. At national discretion, a lower risk weight may be applied to banks’ exposures to their sovereign (or central bank) of incorporation denominated in domestic currency and funded²⁵⁸ in that currency.²⁵⁹ Where this discretion is exercised, other national supervisory authorities may also permit their banks to apply the same risk weight to domestic currency exposures to this sovereign (or central bank) funded in that currency.

B. Claims on other official entities

4. Claims on the Bank for International Settlements, the International Monetary Fund, the European Central Bank and the European Community will receive a 0% risk weight.

5. The following Multilateral Development Banks (MDBs) will be eligible for a 0% risk weight:

- the World Bank Group, comprised of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the International Finance Corporation (IFC),
- the Asian Development Bank (ADB),

²⁵⁶ This approach should not be seen as another approach for determining regulatory capital. Rather, it collects in one place the simplest options for calculating risk-weighted assets.

²⁵⁷ The consensus country risk classification is available on the OECD’s website (<http://www.oecd.org>) in the Export Credit Arrangement web-page of the Trade Directorate.

²⁵⁸ This is to say that the bank should also have liabilities denominated in the domestic currency.

²⁵⁹ This lower risk weight may be extended to the risk weighting of collateral and guarantees.

- the African Development Bank (AfDB),
- the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD),
- the Inter-American Development Bank (IADB),
- the European Investment Bank (EIB),
- the European Investment Fund (EIF),
- the Nordic Investment Bank (NIB),
- the Caribbean Development Bank (CDB),
- the Islamic Development Bank (IDB), and
- the Council of Europe Development Bank (CEDB).

6. The standard risk weight for claims on other MDBs will be 100%.

7. Claims on domestic public sector entities (PSEs) will be risk-weighted according to the risk weight framework for claims on banks of that country. Subject to national discretion, claims on a domestic PSE may also be treated as claims on the sovereign in whose jurisdiction the PSEs are established.²⁶⁰ Where this discretion is exercised, other national supervisors may allow their banks to risk weight claims on such PSEs in the same manner.

C. Claims on banks and securities firms

8. Banks will be assigned a risk weight based on the weighting of claims on the country in which they are incorporated (see paragraph 2). The treatment is summarised in the table below:

ECA risk scores for sovereigns	0-1	2	3	4 to 6	7
Risk weights	20%	50%	100%	100%	150%

²⁶⁰ The following examples outline how PSEs might be categorised when focusing upon the existence of revenue raising powers. However, there may be other ways of determining the different treatments applicable to different types of PSEs, for instance by focusing on the extent of guarantees provided by the central government:

- **Regional governments and local authorities** could qualify for the same treatment as claims on their sovereign or central government if these governments and local authorities have specific revenue-raising powers and have specific institutional arrangements the effect of which is to reduce their risks of default.
- **Administrative bodies responsible to central governments, regional governments or to local authorities and other non-commercial undertakings** owned by the governments or local authorities may not warrant the same treatment as claims on their sovereign if the entities do not have revenue raising powers or other arrangements as described above. If strict lending rules apply to these entities and a declaration of bankruptcy is not possible because of their special public status, it may be appropriate to treat these claims in the same manner as claims on banks.
- **Commercial undertakings** owned by central governments, regional governments or by local authorities might be treated as normal commercial enterprises. However, if these entities function as a corporate in competitive markets even though the state, a regional authority or a local authority is the major shareholder of these entities, supervisors should decide to consider them as corporates and therefore attach to them the applicable risk weights.

9. When the national supervisor has chosen to apply the preferential treatment for claims on the sovereign as described in paragraph 3, it can also assign a risk weight that is one category less favourable than that assigned to claims on the sovereign, subject to a floor of 20%, to claims on banks of an original maturity of 3 months or less denominated and funded in the domestic currency.

10. Claims on securities firms may be treated as claims on banks provided such firms are subject to supervisory and regulatory arrangements comparable to those under this Framework (including, in particular, risk-based capital requirements).²⁶¹ Otherwise such claims would follow the rules for claims on corporates.

D. Claims on corporates

11. The standard risk weight for claims on corporates, including claims on insurance companies, will be 100%.

E. Claims included in the regulatory retail portfolios

12. Claims that qualify under the criteria listed in paragraph 13 may be considered as retail claims for regulatory capital purposes and included in a regulatory retail portfolio. Exposures included in such a portfolio may be risk-weighted at 75%, except as provided in paragraph 18 for past due loans.

13. To be included in the regulatory retail portfolio, claims must meet the following four criteria:

- Orientation criterion – The exposure is to an individual person or persons or to a small business;
- Product criterion – The exposure takes the form of any of the following: revolving credits and lines of credit (including credit cards and overdrafts), personal term loans and leases (e.g. instalment loans, auto loans and leases, student and educational loans, personal finance) and small business facilities and commitments. Securities (such as bonds and equities), whether listed or not, are specifically excluded from this category. Mortgage loans are excluded to the extent that they qualify for treatment as claims secured by residential property (see paragraph 15).
- Granularity criterion – The supervisor must be satisfied that the regulatory retail portfolio is sufficiently diversified to a degree that reduces the risks in the portfolio, warranting the 75% risk weight. One way of achieving this may be to set a numerical limit that no aggregate exposure to one counterpart²⁶² can exceed 0.2% of the overall regulatory retail portfolio.

²⁶¹ That is, capital requirements that are comparable to those applied to banks in this Framework. Implicit in the meaning of the word “comparable” is that the securities firm (but not necessarily its parent) is subject to consolidated regulation and supervision with respect to any downstream affiliates.

²⁶² Aggregated exposure means gross amount (i.e. not taking any credit risk mitigation into account) of all forms of debt exposures (e.g. loans or commitments) that individually satisfy the three other criteria. In addition, “on one counterpart” means one or several entities that may be considered as a single beneficiary (e.g. in the case of a small business that is affiliated to another small business, the limit would apply to the bank’s aggregated exposure on both businesses).

- Low value of individual exposures. The maximum aggregated retail exposure to one counterpart cannot exceed an absolute threshold of €1 million.

14. National supervisory authorities should evaluate whether the risk weights in paragraph 12 are considered to be too low based on the default experience for these types of exposures in their jurisdictions. Supervisors, therefore, may require banks to increase these risk weights as appropriate.

F. Claims secured by residential property

15. Lending fully secured by mortgages on residential property that is or will be occupied by the borrower, or that is rented, will be risk-weighted at 35%. In applying the 35% weight, the supervisory authorities should satisfy themselves, according to their national arrangements for the provision of housing finance, that this concessionary weight is applied restrictively for residential purposes and in accordance with strict prudential criteria, such as the existence of substantial margin of additional security over the amount of the loan based on strict valuation rules. Supervisors should increase the standard risk weight where they judge the criteria are not met.

16. National supervisory authorities should evaluate whether the risk weights in paragraph 15 are considered to be too low based on the default experience for these types of exposures in their jurisdictions. Supervisors, therefore, may require banks to increase these risk weights as appropriate.

G. Claims secured by commercial real estate

17. Mortgages on commercial real estate will be risk-weighted at 100%.

H. Treatment of past due loans

18. The unsecured portion of any loan (other than a qualifying residential mortgage loan) that is past due for more than 90 days, net of specific provisions (including partial write-offs), will be risk-weighted as follows:²⁶³

- 150% risk weight when provisions are less than 20% of the outstanding amount of the loan;
- 100% risk weight when specific provisions are no less than 20% of the outstanding amount of the loan; and
- 100% risk weight when specific provisions are no less than 50% of the outstanding amount of the loan, but with supervisory discretion to reduce the risk weight to 50%.

19. For the purpose of defining the secured portion of the past due loan, eligible collateral and guarantees will be the same as for credit risk mitigation purposes (see Section II).²⁶⁴ Past due retail loans are to be excluded from the overall regulatory retail

²⁶³ Subject to national discretion, supervisors may permit banks to treat non-past due loans extended to counterparties subject to a 150% risk weight in the same way as past due loans described in paragraphs 18 to 20.

²⁶⁴ There will be a transitional period of three years during which a wider range of collateral may be recognised, subject to national discretion.

portfolio when assessing the granularity criterion specified in paragraph 13, for risk-weighting purposes.

20. In addition to the circumstances described in paragraph 18, where a past due loan is fully secured by those forms of collateral that are not recognised in paragraph 50, a 100% risk weight may apply when specific provisions reach 15% of the outstanding amount of the loan. These forms of collateral are not recognised elsewhere in the simplified standardised approach. Supervisors should set strict operational criteria to ensure the quality of collateral.

21. In the case of qualifying residential mortgage loans, when such loans are past due for more than 90 days they will be risk-weighted at 100%, net of specific provisions. If such loans are past due but specific provisions are no less than 20% of their outstanding amount, the risk weight applicable to the remainder of the loan can be reduced to 50% at national discretion.

I. Higher-risk categories

22. National supervisors may decide to apply a 150% or higher risk weight reflecting the higher risks associated with some other assets, such as venture capital and private equity investments.

J. Other assets

23. The treatment of securitisation exposures is presented separately in Section III. The standard risk weight for all other assets will be 100%.²⁶⁵ Investments in equity or regulatory capital instruments issued by banks or securities firms will be risk-weighted at 100%, unless deducted from the capital base according to Part 1 of the present Framework.

K. Off-balance sheet items

24. Off-balance sheet items under the simplified standardised approach will be converted into credit exposure equivalents through the use of credit conversion factors (CCF). Counterparty risk weights for OTC derivative transactions will not be subject to any specific ceiling.

25. Commitments with an original maturity up to one year and commitments with an original maturity over one year will receive a CCF of 20% and 50%, respectively. However, any commitments that are unconditionally cancellable at any time by the bank without prior notice, or that effectively provide for automatic cancellation due to deterioration in a borrower's creditworthiness, will receive a 0% credit conversion factor.²⁶⁶

25(i). Direct credit substitutes, e.g. general guarantees of indebtedness (including standby letters of credit serving as financial guarantees for loans and securities) and acceptances (including endorsements with the character of acceptances) will receive a CCF of 100%.

²⁶⁵ However, at national discretion, gold bullion held in own vaults or on an allocated basis to the extent backed by bullion liabilities can be treated as cash and therefore risk-weighted at 0%. In addition, cash items in the process of collection can be risk-weighted at 20%.

²⁶⁶ In certain countries, retail commitments are considered unconditionally cancellable if the terms permit the bank to cancel them to the full extent allowable under consumer protection and related legislation.

25(ii). Sale and repurchase agreements and asset sales with recourse,²⁶⁷ where the credit risk remains with the bank will receive a CCF of 100%.

26. A CCF of 100% will be applied to the lending of banks' securities or the posting of securities as collateral by banks, including instances where these arise out of repo-style transactions (i.e. repurchase/reverse repurchase and securities lending/securities borrowing transactions). See Section II for the calculation of risk-weighted assets where the credit converted exposure is secured by eligible collateral.

26(i). Forward asset purchases, forward deposits and partly-paid shares and securities²⁶⁸, which represent commitments with certain drawdown will receive a CCF of 100%.

26(ii). Certain transaction-related contingent items (e.g. performance bonds, bid bonds, warranties and standby letters of credit related to particular transactions) will receive a CCF of 50%.

26(iii). Note issuance facilities (NIFs) and revolving underwriting facilities (RUFs) will receive a CCF of 50%.

27. For short-term self-liquidating trade letters of credit arising from the movement of goods (e.g. documentary credits collateralised by the underlying shipment), a 20% credit conversion factor will be applied to both issuing and confirming banks.

28. Where there is an undertaking to provide a commitment on an off-balance sheet items, banks are to apply the lower of the two applicable CCFs.

29. The credit equivalent amount of transactions that expose banks to counterparty credit risk must be calculated under the rules specified in Section VII of Annex 4 of this Framework.

30. Banks must closely monitor securities, commodities, and foreign exchange transactions that have failed, starting the first day they fail. A capital charge to failed transactions must be calculated in accordance with Annex 3 of this Framework.

31. With regard to unsettled securities, commodities, and foreign exchange transactions, the Committee is of the opinion that banks are exposed to counterparty credit risk from trade date, irrespective of the booking or the accounting of the transaction. Therefore, banks are encouraged to develop, implement and improve systems for tracking and monitoring the credit risk exposure arising from unsettled transactions as appropriate for producing management information that facilitates action on a timely basis. Furthermore, when such transactions are not processed through a delivery-versus-payment (DvP) or payment-versus-payment (PvP) mechanism, banks must calculate a capital charge as set forth in Annex 3 of this Framework.

²⁶⁷ These items are to be weighted according to the type of asset and not according to the type of counterparty with whom the transaction has been entered into.

²⁶⁸ These items are to be weighted according to the type of asset and not according to the type of counterparty with whom the transaction has been entered into.

II. Credit risk mitigation

A. Overarching issues

1. Introduction

32. Banks use a number of techniques to mitigate the credit risks to which they are exposed. Exposure may be collateralised in whole or in part with cash or securities, or a loan exposure may be guaranteed by a third party.

33. Where these various techniques meet the operational requirements below credit risk mitigation (CRM) may be recognised.

2. General remarks

34. The framework set out in this section is applicable to the banking book exposures under the simplified standardised approach.

35. No transaction in which CRM techniques are used should receive a higher capital requirement than an otherwise identical transaction where such techniques are not used.

36. The effects of CRM will not be double counted. Therefore, no additional supervisory recognition of CRM for regulatory capital purposes will be granted on claims for which an issue-specific rating is used that already reflects that CRM. Principal-only ratings will also not be allowed within the framework of CRM.

37. Although banks use CRM techniques to reduce their credit risk, these techniques give rise to risks (residual risks) which may render the overall risk reduction less effective. Where these risks are not adequately controlled, supervisors may impose additional capital charges or take other supervisory actions as detailed in Pillar 2.

38. While the use of CRM techniques reduces or transfers credit risk, it simultaneously may increase other risks to the bank, such as legal, operational, liquidity and market risks. Therefore, it is imperative that banks employ robust procedures and processes to control these risks, including strategy; consideration of the underlying credit; valuation; policies and procedures; systems; control of roll-off risks; and management of concentration risk arising from the bank's use of CRM techniques and its interaction with the bank's overall credit risk profile.

39. The Pillar 3 requirements must also be observed for banks to obtain capital relief in respect of any CRM techniques.

3. Legal certainty

40. In order for banks to obtain capital relief, all documentation used in collateralised transactions and for documenting guarantees must be binding on all parties and legally enforceable in all relevant jurisdictions. Banks must have conducted sufficient legal review to verify this and have a well founded legal basis to reach this conclusion, and undertake such further review as necessary to ensure continuing enforceability.

4. Proportional cover

41. Where the amount collateralised or guaranteed (or against which credit protection is held) is less than the amount of the exposure, and the secured and unsecured portions are of equal seniority, i.e. the bank and the guarantor share losses on a pro-rata basis, capital

relief will be afforded on a proportional basis, i.e. the protected portion of the exposure will receive the treatment applicable to the collateral or counterparty, with the remainder treated as unsecured.

B. Collateralised transactions

42. A collateralised transaction is one in which:

- banks have a credit exposure or potential credit exposure; and
- that credit exposure or potential credit exposure is hedged in whole or in part by collateral posted by the counterparty²⁶⁹ or by a third party on behalf of the counterparty.

43. Under the simplified standardised approach, only the simple approach from the standardised approach will apply, which, similar to the 1988 Accord, substitutes the risk weighting of the collateral for the risk weighting of the counterparty for the collateralised portion of the exposure (generally subject to a 20% floor). Partial collateralisation is recognised. Mismatches in the maturity or currency of the underlying exposure and the collateral will not be allowed.

1. Minimum conditions

44. In addition to the general requirements for legal certainty set out in paragraph 40, the following operational requirements must be met.

45. The collateral must be pledged for at least the life of the exposure and it must be marked to market and revalued with a minimum frequency of six months.

46. In order for collateral to provide protection, the credit quality of the counterparty and the value of the collateral must not have a material positive correlation. For example, securities issued by the counterparty – or by any related group entity – would provide little protection and so would be ineligible.

47. The bank must have clear and robust procedures for the timely liquidation of collateral.

48. Where the collateral is held by a custodian, banks must take reasonable steps to ensure that the custodian segregates the collateral from its own assets.

49. Where a bank, acting as agent, arranges a repo-style transaction (i.e. repurchase/reverse repurchase and securities lending/borrowing transactions) between a customer and a third party and provides a guarantee to the customer that the third party will perform on its obligations, then the risk to the bank is the same as if the bank had entered into the transaction as principal. In such circumstances, banks will be required to calculate capital requirements as if they were themselves the principal.

²⁶⁹ In this section “counterparty” is used to denote a party to whom a bank has an on- or off-balance sheet credit exposure or a potential credit exposure. That exposure may, for example, take the form of a loan of cash or securities (where the counterparty would traditionally be called the borrower), of securities posted as collateral, of a commitment or of exposure under an OTC derivative contract.

2. **Eligible collateral**

50. The following collateral instruments are eligible for recognition:

- Cash (as well as certificates of deposit or comparable instruments issued by the lending bank) on deposit with the bank which is incurring the counterparty exposure,^{270, 271}
- Gold,
- Debt securities issued by sovereigns rated category 4 or above,²⁷² and
- Debt securities issued by PSE that are treated as sovereigns by the national supervisor and that are rated category 4 or above.²⁷²

3. **Risk weights**

51. Those portions of claims collateralised by the market value of recognised collateral receive the risk weight applicable to the collateral instrument. The risk weight on the collateralised portion will be subject to a floor of 20%. The remainder of the claim should be assigned to the risk weight appropriate to the counterparty. A capital requirement will be applied to banks on either side of the collateralised transaction: for example, both repos and reverse repos will be subject to capital requirements.

52. The 20% floor for the risk weight on a collateralised transaction will not be applied and a 0% risk weight can be provided where the exposure and the collateral are denominated in the same currency, and either:

- the collateral is cash on deposit; or
- the collateral is in the form of sovereign/PSE securities eligible for a 0% risk weight, and its market value has been discounted by 20%.

C. **Guaranteed transactions**

53. Where guarantees meet and supervisors are satisfied that banks fulfil the minimum operational conditions set out below, they may allow banks to take account of such credit protection in calculating capital requirements.

1. **Minimum conditions**

54. A guarantee (counter-guarantee) must represent a direct claim on the protection provider and must be explicitly referenced to specific exposures or a pool of exposures, so that the extent of the cover is clearly defined and incontrovertible. Other than non-payment by a protection purchaser of money due in respect of the credit protection contract it must be irrevocable; there must be no clause in the contract that would increase the effective cost of

²⁷⁰ Cash funded credit linked notes issued by the bank against exposures in the banking book which fulfil the criteria for credit derivatives will be treated as cash collateralised transactions.

²⁷¹ When cash on deposit, certificates of deposit or comparable instruments issued by the lending bank are held as collateral at a third-party bank in a non-custodial arrangement, if they are openly pledged/assigned to the lending bank and if the pledge/assignment is unconditional and irrevocable, the exposure amount covered by the collateral (after any necessary haircuts for currency risk) will receive the risk weight of the third-party bank.

²⁷² The rating category refers to the ECA country risk score as described in paragraph 2.

cover as a result of deteriorating credit quality in the hedged exposure. It must also be unconditional; there should be no clause in the protection contract outside the control of the bank that could prevent the protection provider from being obliged to pay out in a timely manner in the event that the original counterparty fails to make the payment(s) due.

55. In addition to the legal certainty requirements in paragraph 40 above, the following conditions must be satisfied:

- (a) On the qualifying default or non-payment of the counterparty, the bank may in a timely manner pursue the guarantor for any monies outstanding under the documentation governing the transaction. The guarantor may make one lump sum payment of all monies under such documentation to the bank, or the guarantor may assume the future payment obligations of the counterparty covered by the guarantee. The bank must have the right to receive any such payments from the guarantor without first having to take legal actions in order to pursue the counterparty for payment.
- (b) The guarantee is an explicitly documented obligation assumed by the guarantor.
- (c) Except as noted in the following sentence, the guarantee covers all types of payments the underlying obligor is expected to make under the documentation governing the transaction, for example notional amount, margin payments, etc. Where a guarantee covers payment of principal only, interests and other uncovered payments should be treated as an unsecured amount

2. Eligible guarantors (counter-guarantors)

56. Credit protection given by the following entities will be recognised: sovereign entities,²⁷³ PSEs and other entities with a risk weight of 20% or better and a lower risk weight than the counterparty.

3. Risk weights

57. The protected portion is assigned the risk weight of the protection provider. The uncovered portion of the exposure is assigned the risk weight of the underlying counterparty.

58. As specified in paragraph 3, a lower risk weight may be applied at national discretion to a bank's exposure to the sovereign (or central bank) where the bank is incorporated and where the exposure is denominated in domestic currency and funded in that currency. National authorities may extend this treatment to portions of claims guaranteed by the sovereign (or central bank), where the guarantee is denominated in the domestic currency and the exposure is funded in that currency.

59. Materiality thresholds on payments below which no payment will be made in the event of loss are equivalent to retained first loss positions and must be deducted in full from the capital of the bank purchasing the credit protection.

²⁷³ This includes the Bank for International Settlements, the International Monetary Fund, the European Central Bank and the European Community.

D. Other items related to the treatment of CRM techniques

Treatment of pools of CRM techniques

60. In the case where a bank has multiple CRM covering a single exposure (e.g. a bank has both collateral and guarantee partially covering an exposure), the bank will be required to subdivide the exposure into portions covered by each type of CRM tool (e.g. portion covered by collateral, portion covered by guarantee) and the risk-weighted assets of each portion must be calculated separately. When credit protection provided by a single protection provider has differing maturities, they must be subdivided into separate protection as well.

III. Credit risk — Securitisation framework

A. Scope of transactions covered under the securitisation framework

61. A traditional securitisation is a structure where the cash flow from an underlying pool of exposures is used to service at least two different stratified risk positions or tranches reflecting different degrees of credit risk. Payments to the investors depend upon the performance of the specified underlying exposures, as opposed to being derived from an obligation of the entity originating those exposures. The stratified/tranched structures that characterise securitisations differ from ordinary senior/subordinated debt instruments in that junior securitisation tranches can absorb losses without interrupting contractual payments to more senior tranches, whereas subordination in a senior/subordinated debt structure is a matter of priority of rights to the proceeds of a liquidation.

62. Banks' exposures to securitisation are referred to as "securitisation exposures".

B. Permissible role of banks

63. A bank operating under the simplified standardised approach can only assume the role of an investing bank in a traditional securitisation. An investing bank is an institution, other than the originator or the servicer that assumes the economic risk of a securitisation exposure.

64. A bank is considered to be an originator if it originates directly or indirectly credit exposures included in the securitisation. A servicer bank is one that manages the underlying credit exposures of a securitisation on a day-to-day basis in terms of collection of principal and interest, which is then forwarded to investors in securitisation exposures. A bank under the simplified standardised approach should not offer credit enhancement, liquidity facilities or other financial support to a securitisation.

C. Treatment of Securitisation Exposures

65. Banks using the simplified standardised approach to credit risk for the type of underlying exposure(s) securitised are permitted to use a simplified version of the standardised approach under the securitisation framework.

66. The standard risk weight for securitisation exposures for an investing bank will be 100%. For first loss positions acquired, deduction from capital will be required. The deduction will be taken 50% from Tier 1 and 50% from Tier 2 capital.