Annexe 3 : Avertissements et informations sur les risques liés aux instruments financiers

The information included in this document is provided to you, as a non-professional investor, in accordance with European and Dutch laws and regulations. The information contained in this Schedule 3 intends to provide you with a general description of the main features and risks of (investing in) securities, such as shares and bonds, and derivatives, such as futures, options and contracts for differences (CFDs). This document also covers more general risks associated with investment markets. Please note that you should always check whether the issuer of securities or the provider of derivatives has published specific information about the relevant security or derivatives, such as a prospectus or key information document, and consult this information carefully before making any investment decision. If you do not understand the nature and extent of your exposure to the nature and risks associated with a product, you should not trade in such product. You should ensure that the products you are trading in are suitable for you in light of your personal circumstances and financial position. Certain strategies, such as spreads and hedging positions, can be as risky as simple long or short positions. We wish to point out that this document does not disclose all possible risks associated with different types of investments or financial markets.

We would like to emphasise that where you classify as a retail client, you should pay particular attention to this document considering the fact that your level of experience, knowledge and expertise is lower than that of a professional client or eligible counterparty. You should therefore read this document and make sure you understand the below. There are risks involved in relation to any investment you may make via LYNX with Interactive Brokers.

We have set an outline of some general risk warnings that are relevant to most types of investments and investment strategies and of which you should be aware:

a) You should always remember that you may not get back the amount originally invested as the value of the investments, and the income from them can go down as well as up. There are no guaranteed returns. The price or value of an investment will depend on fluctuations in the financial markets that are outside our control;

b) Past performance is not a guide to future performance;

c) The value of an individual investment may fall as a result of a fall in markets depending, for example, on the level of supply and demand for a particular financial instrument, the investors or market perception, the prices of any underlying or related investments or other political and economic factors;

d) With regard to investments designated to be held for the medium to long-term or with limited liquidity or with a fixed maturity date or with significant up-front costs, you should be aware that early redemption may result in lower than expected returns, including the potential for loss to the amount invested;

e) Trading in off exchange investments, that is investments which are not traded under the rules of a regulated market or exchange or where there is no recognised market, and which are not settled

f) through a regulated clearing house, exposes the investor to the additional risk that there is no certainty that the market makers will be prepared to deal in such investments and as a consequence there might be no secondary market for such investments. There may also be restrictions in relation to access and liquidity, for example, investments may only be made or redeemed on certain dates or with prescribed period of notice. You should be aware that it may be difficult to obtain reliable information about the current value of such investments or the extent of the risks to which they exposed;

g) You will be exposed to concentration risk where there is an insufficient level of diversification in your account and you are excessively exposed to one or a limited number of investments;

h) Correlation risk refers to the probability that the actual correlation between two assets or variables will behave differently than what anticipated. The consequence is that your portfolio could be riskier than originally envisaged. Correlation is a term used to compare how one asset class might behave in comparison to another asset class. Assessing the correlation between different assets in your portfolio is important in managing the riskiness of the account;

i) Volatility is a statistical measure of the tendency of an individual investment to feature significant fluctuations in value. Commonly, the higher the volatility, the riskier the investment;

j) Regulatory/Legal risk is the risk from regulatory or legal actions and changes which may reduce the profit potential of an investment or cause a loss on your investment. Legal changes could even have the effect that a previously acceptable investment becomes illegal or if affects the tax treatment of your investment may impact its profitability. Such risk is unpredictable and may depend on various political, economic and other factors;

k) Operational risk, such as breakdowns or malfunctioning of essential systems and controls, including IT systems, can impact the ability of closing your investments or otherwise transact.

In addition to the above, we have set out risks relating to investments in financial instruments and specific risks related to certain complex products.

A) RISKS RELATING TO INVESTMENTS IN FINANCIAL INSTRUMENTS

I. Introduction:

Below, please find a description of typical risks applicable to all types of investments you may make via Interactive Brokers. The risks described below are cumulative and mutually enhancing.

Volatility:

The prices for financial instruments and securities are subject to some major fluctuations over time. The degree of the price fluctuations within a particular period is referred to as volatility. Volatility is calculated based on historical data using statistical methods. The higher the volatility of a financial instrument, the higher the risk inherent in the investment. However, volatility is based on past changes in prices only and thus is not a reliable indicator for future price trends.

Liquidity and fungibility risks:

Liquidity or fungibility, respectively, describes the investor's option to be able to dispose of the financial instrument at any time. The basic option to make such disposition is referred to as fungibility. Liquidity means the option to be able to dispose of financial instruments without a sales order, which is deemed of average size common on the market, triggering noticeable or lasting fluctuations in the prices and thus can only be completed at significantly lower rates. In particular tight and illiquid markets may be the reason for difficulties to purchase or sell financial instruments. Some financial instruments are quoted over a long period of time, without any underlying genuine turnover. Completing an order in such markets is not possible immediately, is only possible in part, or at extremely unfavorable terms. This could also result in higher transaction costs.

Currency risk:

Investors face a currency risk when holding financial instruments in a currency which is not their home country's currency. The currency risk is realized if the ratio between the investor's home country currency and the foreign currency increases. Hence, even in the event that the prices increase, such transactions may result in losses. Currencies and foreign exchange are subject to the impact of short-, medium-, and long-term factors. In fact, market views, current political events, speculations, economic developments, interest trends, monetary policy decisions, and macroeconomic factors may influence foreign exchange rates.

Inflation risk:

Inflation risk means the risk that the investor suffers pecuniary losses due to progressing currency devaluation (inflation).

Economic risk:

Economic trends which were inaccurately predicted or could not be foreseen may have adverse effects on future trends of the prices for financial instruments. The changes in the economic activities of a nation always affect the development of prices of financial instruments.

Credit risk:

Lending against a portfolio or securities account is an instrument which investors frequently use to remain solvent and thus remain able to take actions. Please note that you must first generate the interest owed on the loan granted to fund your investment before you will generate profits. In addition, you must repay the loan. As a result, the risk-reward ratio shifts. Since the financial instruments are used as collateral when lending against a portfolio, negative price trends may result in a decline of the collateral value of your portfolio due to the decline in prices. In that case, you are typically required to make additional payments and provide the lender with additional collateral in order to ensure sufficient security for the loan--otherwise, the loan may be cancelled. In extreme cases, securities in the account may be subject to a compulsory sale by the lender. This is the case in particular if the requested additional funds are not provided or not provided in a sufficient amount. In addition, there is no certainty that your securities account can be used in the future to fully settle your obligations.

Tax risks:

The investors' taxation always affects the sustainable return on their investments. The treatment of gains and proceeds from securities and similar transactions for tax purposes may change. In addition to the direct impact on the investor, such changes can also impact the earnings position of companies and thus have adverse or favorable effects on the price trends of financial instruments.

Before investing, please research the underlying tax conditions and treatment of the intended capital investments for tax purposes.

Incidental costs:

Any commission and transaction costs incurred as well as recurring costs (such as portfolio management fees) affect the potential profits from the respective transaction.

The higher the costs relating to the transaction, the longer it takes to reach the breakeven point. At the same time, your chances to generate profits decline since these costs must first be earned again before you can generate any profits.

Therefore, please consider the ratio of fees and total net transaction value.

II. Risk inherent in stock trading transactions

1. Nature of a stock

A stock is a share or owner certificate which certifies in a stock certificate the stakeholder rights of the stockholder in a stock corporation. The owner or holder of a stock is not a creditor of the company, but rather holds an equity interest in the company as the co-owner of the assets. Stocks may be subject to different concepts in terms of transferability (fungibility). In fact, in case of bearer shares, a transfer of title of ownership is not subject to any special form requirements. In case of registered stocks, however, the stocks are registered in the investor's name in the company's stock register. Vis-à-vis the company, only the persons registered in said register are deemed stockholders. Only those persons may therefore exercise their rights either themselves or by proxy. If a stockholder waives registration in the stock register, that stockholder typically does not receive any information from the company nor does the stockholder receive an invitation to any general assemblies. Thus, the stockholder de facto loses their voting right. So-called registered shares with restricted transferability are a special type of registered stocks. The transfer of such shares to a new stockholder required the company's prior approval. Without such approval, the stock cannot be transferred.

Common stock:

In Germany, common stock is the most common type of stocks and grant the stockholder the legal and statutory rights related to them.

Preferred stock:

Preferred stock, on the other hand, typically entail preemptive rights regarding the distribution of profits or the proceeds from any liquidation or insolvency proceedings. Preferred stock may be issued with or without voting rights. More often than not, they do not grant the stockholder the right to vote in general assemblies.

2. Risks

Stock trading is, in addition to the general risks inherent in the investment in securities, subject to additional specific risks which are outlined below.

Entrepreneurial risk:

Since the investors participate in the economic development of the company after purchasing the stock, they are basically entrepreneurs and thus has access to the rewards related to that enterprise; however, they also bear the corresponding risks. The entrepreneurial risk also entails the risk that the company's business activities do not result in any success. In extreme cases, this may also lead to the company's insolvency. In that case, your investment may result in a total loss. This applies even more since stockholders in such insolvency scenario do not participate in any existing assets until all other creditors' claims have been settled.

Price change risk:

Stock prices are subject to fluctuation, in some cases, these fluctuations can be rather extreme. They typically depend on the supply and demand situation. They are marked by general economic expectations and the company's special circumstances.

No reliable conclusions for the future can be drawn from past price trends.

In the long run, price fluctuations are dependent on a company's earnings position which in turn is affected by the macroeconomic trends and the underlying political conditions. From a medium-perspective, effects from economic, currency, and monetary policies overlap. On a short-term basis, current events limited in time such as disagreements or legal disputes, international crises, commodity prices, or many other parameters affect price computations and market sentiment. In principle, one can distinguish between the general market risk inherent in a stock and the company-specific risk. The general market risk is the risk of changes in prices resulting from general trends in the stock market which are not directly correlated to the economic position of the individual companies. Hence, based on the market as whole, the price of a stock at the stock exchange decreased despite the fact that the current economic situation of the company has not changed. Such general market risks can overlap positive company-specific developments, relativize, mitigate, or completely eliminate effects. It cannot be predicted how long such effects prevail.

Company-specific risk:

Company-specific risks means risks directly or indirectly related to the company itself. This means in particular the company's position in the market environment, decisions made by the management, and similar circumstances directly related to the company. The underlying general conditions include in particular the inflation rate, the prime rates, underlying tax and legal conditions, and the general market psychology. It can be observed frequently that stocks or entire stock markets experience major value and assessments fluctuations without any changes in the underlying conditions. Indeed, the value of stocks and assessment of stock markets are often exaggerated as well.

Country risk:

If stocks in foreign companies are acquired or if the securities account is maintained abroad, the investor may be subject to capital transfer restrictions which may make it impossible for a short or longer period of time to sell stocks, receive dividends or transfer securities from the respective country. If foreign stocks are acquired, the investor must consider that these stocks are governed by foreign law and may be structured different from German stocks. In addition, foreign experts such as lawyers, tax consultants or courts may have to be involved to exercise rights or meet obligations and requirements. This may entail additional costs and obstacles. When acquiring foreign stocks, it is oftentimes more difficult to obtain the required information regarding the company or the stocks, participate in the general assembly or otherwise exercise rights.

Liquidity risk:
In particular in case of stocks in smaller companies with a low stock price or which are issued only in a small number it cannot be guaranteed that a buyer can be found to acquire the shares from the investor. This may result in not finding a buyer at all or in the investor being forced to accept significant discounts on the purchase price. The group of investors of smaller stocks, second-line stocks, and so-called penny stocks in particular is typically so small that the sale of such stocks is strongly limited or even unfeasible over a long period of time. Such stocks are also prune to price manipulations. In addition, when investing in foreign stocks, the investor must take into account that they may only be able to dispose of the sales price of the stock after longer periods or after the registration of the transfer when selling the stocks

III. U.S. stock exchanges: Specific risks inherent in penny stocks and OTCs:

There is a rule in the United States where all companies whose stocks are publicly offered at the exchange are required to report to the Securities Exchange Commission (SEC). Hence, financial statements and other information must be submitted, and the SEC must be notified about any changes. There are two major exceptions to these registration and reporting requirements.

Regulation-S stocks:

Such stocks must not be offered to non-U.S. citizens. During a period of 12 months, this stock cannot be sold within the United States. In addition, the buyer must agree to resell the stock only in compliance with the legal regulations applicable in the United States. These stocks may not be sold within the United States for a period of one year and may not be introduced to U.S. exchanges or markets without prior registration with the SEC.

OTC stocks:

The OTC market is a free market. These stocks are subject to the same restrictions as the Regulation-S stocks.

Price manipulation risk:
A common characteristic of the free markets is the fact that prices can be strongly affected by the activities of certain securities trading institutions acting as so-called market makers. Those institutions notified the exchange organizers that they will focus on those stocks and meet certain obligations regarding those securities. Oftentimes, OTC stocks have only one so-called market maker and said market maker is also the sole party interested in case the investor wishes to sell the acquired stock. Those market makers often act as their own trading party, i.e., they do not purchase and sell the stock as a broker on behalf of another customer, but rather at their own account.

The prices are determined by those market makers and thus are not subject to supply and demand.

It must be considered in this regard as well that the scope of the market and the market maker's unique position entail the major risk of price manipulation and unfair pricing.

There is no regular supply and demand scenario and no general interest in the development of the

price. Due to the unique position, the market maker has the opportunity to manipulate the prices based on their own or third-party interests. This triggers the major risk of price fraud.

Oftentimes, the price determined by the market maker is not based on a fair market price. Rates are occasionally determined randomly.

Spread:

There is often a large margin between the bid and ask rates, the so-called spread.

The market maker earns this spread. Since the free markets are narrow markets, said spread is extremely high in some cases.

This also means that the investor initially incurs a loss upon acquisition of such stock.

In some cases, major and unrealistic rate fluctuations are required in order for the bid rate when selling the stock to exceed the initially paid ask rate.

When trading via LYNX with Interactive Brokers it often occurs that the number of those stocks reaches the maximum of 500,000 units per order due to the low nominal price. This maximum applies regardless of the exchange and cannot be changed.

IV. Day trading risks

It is possible to purchase and sell financial instruments such as stocks and derivatives in a day trading transaction in order to benefit from minor and short-term price fluctuations. These transactions are speculative trading techniques since medium- and long-term factors do typically not affect the pricing. The investor must take into consideration that a sale or closing of the position effective the next business day (overnight risk) may be necessary in order to avoid any rate losses; thus, losses are generated. The higher the basic volatility of the respective financial instrument, the higher this risk. The risk of total loss is therefore generally higher in this trading approach; in particular, this risk increases in proportion to the number of transactions. The impact of fees is of particular significance in this trading approach since the fees increase when entering into a large number of transactions (cf. also “Incidental costs” under A.I. below). Those fees can be disproportionately high. To the extent that day trading transactions are pursued on loan, the investor must consider that the obligation to repay said loan exists regardless of the outcome of the transaction and that additional costs may be incurred due to interests which first must be earned before the investor can break even. If futures transactions are pursued in the course of day trading activities, additional collateral or equity may have to be provided if losses occur at the same time which exceed the capital invested or the collateral provided. In day trading, the customer is in competition with professional and financially strong market participants. Customers who wish to day trade should, given the facts outlined above, have profound knowledge and experience with regards to markets, trading techniques and strategies, as well as derivative financial instruments.

B) OPTIONS TRADING RISKS

I. Terms

1. General information

Term and functionalities of options:

An option is the right to purchase or sell the underlying asset such as a stock, commodity or foreign currencies. In order to earn this right, the so-called option premium--the price of the option--must be paid. The owner or buyer of an option acquires the right from the option seller, the so-called writer. If the option holder exercises the right, this is referred to as exercising the option. The holder may, but is not required to, exercise the option. If the option is exercised, the writer is required to fulfil the holder's request to exercise the option. If the option is not exercised, the option is forfeited at the end of its term. There are options which may be exercised at any time during their term (American options) and those which cannot be exercised until the term expires (European options). A regional restriction does not apply when acquiring the option despite the denomination of the respective option. In the event that the option is not exercised, or you fail to exercise it in a timely manner, your option is deemed forfeited at the agreed-upon due date. Please note in addition that the date at which the option is forfeited, and the last trading day are typically not the same so that the tradability of the option may elapse before the date at which the option is forfeited.

Special scenario: Options with difference compensation:

Since options do not necessarily involve only physical genuinely deliverable underlying assets, but also intangibles, only a cash compensation is paid in such cases. This is the case in particular with options on an index or in a stock portfolio, i.e., a mere numbers unit which is calculated based on previously determined parameters and whose changes reflect the rate trends of the underlying securities. Moreover, all other notes and comments apply to these types of contracts accordingly.

Calls and puts:

There are two basic types of options: The purchase option, so-called call option, and the sales option, so-called put option. A call comprises the right to be able to purchase something, the put comprises the right to sell something. It must be taken into account that the buyer of an option may, but is not required to, exercise the option; the seller in the reverse case scenario, on the other hand, must at all event meet the agreed-upon obligations when the option is exercised.

Thus, the seller can wait and see if the option is exercised or redeem or close out the option. When closing the transaction, the seller earns an option premium for taking this risk. If an option is not exercised, this option is deemed the seller's profit (the option may also be redeemed before that date to generate the profit).

Basic scenario:

All strategies used in respect to options are based on four basic scenarios:

- Long call: Purchase of a purchase option
- Short call: Sale of a purchase option
- Long put: Purchase of a sales option,
- Short put: Sale of a sales option

In order to be able to purchase a call, someone must first be willing to sell this call; in order to purchase a put, someone must sell this put. The party purchasing an option holds a so-called long position, while the party selling an option short, the party is in a short position. This results in the four above-described basic types of transactions.

Option holder and writer:

An option provides the option holder, i.e., the buyer of an option, with the opportunity, but not the obligation, to sell to (put) or purchase from (call) the goods, foreign currency, or underlying financial title or other underlying assets at the initially agreed-upon price (strike price). The option holder does not pay any kind of deposit or margin on the value of the items, but a premium. The holder’s contractual partner, the so-called writer or seller of the option, receives this premium. The option holder’s potential losses are limited to the option premium invested; the writer’s risk is subject to unlimited risk of loss.

Covered and uncovered options:

There is a difference between the covered option and the uncovered option. In a covered option, the option seller holds the agreed-upon quantity of the deliverable underlying asset upon closing of the transaction. In an uncovered option, the obliged party does not have the deliverable item. Thus, if the option seller as the writer is obligated to deliver, the seller must procure the item by the delivery date if necessary. In that case, the risk is not limited in its amount just as in the case in which the party is obligated to accept the units.

2. Material parameters of an option

The following parameters are of significance for the structuring of all options:

- **Underlying asset:**
  All options are based on an agreed-upon object, the so-called underlying asset. This is the object for which the option is granted.

- **Strike or exercise price:**
  The option buyer and option seller initially agree on a price for the underlying asset and the respective quantity which is a fixed price applicable at a later date.

- **Multiplier:**
  The multiplier reflects the number of units of the underlying asset per option.

- **Term:**
  This is the date until which (American option) or at which (European option) the option may be exercised (expiry date).

3. Option premium

The amount of the option premium or the rate of an option or the option price comprises the so-called intrinsic value of the option and the so-called fair value.

Intrinsic value:

The intrinsic value of an option is the difference between the current rate of the option item and the strike price of the option. Thus, for example, a call option on the DAX at a strike price of 4,000--with the DAX at 4,300--has an intrinsic value of 300 index points. A put option on the DAX at a strike price of 4,500--with the same DAX--has an intrinsic value of 200 index points (4,500-4,300). Hence, the larger the difference between the current rate and the strike price, the higher the intrinsic value and thus the more expensive the option.

Fair value:

In addition to the intrinsic value, the option has a so-called fair value. The fair value is determined based on the difference between the actual rate of the option and the intrinsic value. For example, if the DAX is at 4,300 and a call option with a strike price of 4,000 is agreed upon and if the price of the option is at 450, the price of 450 exceeds the intrinsic value of the option, which is 300 points, by 150 points. In that scenario, the option has a fair value of 150 points. The fair value of an option depends primarily on three factors.

Residual maturity of the option:

An option with a residual maturity of several months, e.g., six months, must have a higher fair value than an option with a residual maturity of only one months since, in the first case scenario the option may be exercised five months longer than in the second case scenario.

Volatility of the option item:

Volatility reflects the frequency and degree of price fluctuations. For example, if the item on which the option is based experiences a fluctuation of 20% or if a fluctuation of such extent is expected in the future, this option will have a higher fair value than the option on a stock which has an annual fluctuation of, for example, 5% or for which such a fluctuation is expected; this is due to the fact that the higher fluctuation range results in the option buyer having a higher chance of an increase in value of the option during the residual maturity.

Difference from strike price:

In the money: The option is “in the money” if the price of the underlying asset exceeds the strike price in a call option or is below the strike price in a put option. This scenario is also referred to as “in the money” option. At the money: An option is an “at the money” option if the option's strike price is identical to the price of the underlying asset. Out of the money: In this scenario, the strike price in a call option exceeds the price of the underlying asset, while the strike price in a put option is below the price of the underlying asset, with the result that the option does not have any intrinsic value. In this scenario, the option is a so-called “out of money” option.

4. Basket, turbo, and exotic warrants

If an option is certified in the form of a security (warrants), some special types of options must be taken into account.

Basket warrants:

If investors hold basket warrants, they are entitled to purchase (call) the defined “basket” of underlying assets or such warrants entail a corresponding cash compensation when the option is exercised.

Turbo warrants:

Turbo warrants are options where the holder is entitled to acquire other warrants. This enhances leverage since it will be doubled. The described effects, in particular the risks, thus increase accordingly.

Exotic warrants:

Exotic warrants differ from traditional warrants in so far as they are subject to additional terms and conditions agreed-upon by the parties which change the content of the option. The possibilities are basically endless which is why the terms and conditions of the option must be reviewed thoroughly prior to acquiring such warrants. The following types are worth mentioning in particular:

Barrier warrants:

The options expire worthless (knock-out) if or are not created (knock-in) until a specified price level in the underlying asset is reached. In this respect, four different concepts are offered by various issuers. Only after procuring and acknowledging detailed information can the specific risk-reward profile be analyzed and evaluated by the investor.

Digital warrants:

These warrants certify the buyer’s right of disbursement of a previously agreed-upon fixed amount if the price of the underlying asset exceeds or is below the agreed-upon strike price at the end of the term or at any time during the term, depending on the structure.

Single range warrants:

In this warrant scenario, the investor received a fixed amount for each day on which the price of the underlying asset exceeds the lower margin or stays below the higher margin. The disbursement of the total amount accrued during the term occurs at the end of the term in one sum.

Dual range warrants:

The investor received a fixed amount for each day on which the price of the respective underlying asset exceeds the lower margin or stays below the higher margin. For each day on which the price is determined to be outside the defined range, a corresponding fixed amount is deducted. At the end of the term, the claims and obligations are netted. Investors are only required to make additional payments if there is a difference not in their favor at the end of the term; this is typically not the case.

Bottom-up or top-down warrants:

In this scenario, the investor receives a previously agreed-upon amount for each day on which the price of the underlying asset exceeds the range specified in the terms and conditions of the warrant (bottom-up) or falls below this specified range (top-down). The disbursement equals the netted amount at the end of the term.

Knock-out range warrants:

These warrants follow the same concept as the range warrants. Depending on the terms, the investor's option expires as soon as the price of the underlying asset is outside or--depending on the terms--within the defined range. Based on the terms, there are either no payments to be made or payments are made that had been accrued until the specified price was reached.

Specific information on the details of these products, their functionality, and on the specific risks related to warrants with complex terms and conditions or when combining different options or warranties can only be provided on a case-by-case basis and based on a detailed description of the transaction.

Market maker:

In case of warrants, the issuer is the counterparty. The price of the warrant is not determined directly based on supply and demand, but in most cases by a so-called market maker. These market makers have notified the exchange organizers that they will focus on those stocks and meet certain obligations regarding those securities. Oftentimes, warrants have only one so-called market maker and said market maker is also the sole party interested in case the investor wishes to sell the acquired stock. The market makers may also act as their own trading party, i.e., they purchase and sell the stock at their own account as well.

The prices are determined by those market makers and thus are not subject to supply and demand.

It must be considered in this regard as well that the scope of the market and the market maker's unique position entail the major risk of price manipulation and unfair pricing. The price of the warrant is typically indexed (determined based on a theoretical model) and it is only then that the market maker determines the final price.

II. Risks inherent in option transactions

Option transactions (options and warrants) entail major risks of loss due to their design which the investor must be clearly aware of.

1. Impact of costs

In all option transactions, minimum commissions, percentage commissions, or fixed commissions per transaction (purchase and sale) can result in costs which, in the extreme case scenario, could even exceed the value of the options many times over. When the options are exercises additional costs are often incurred. These costs can in total reach an amount that is significant in comparison to the price of the options.

Any costs change and adversely affect the profits expected by those who acquire the option (or a warrant) since a higher break than the one deemed realistic in the market is required to break even.

As can be derived from the remarks above regarding the effects and risks of futures, option transactions are deemed bets on future price trends. The option buyer must pay the so-called option premium for entering into this bet. Whether the option holder generates profits depends on whether any difference amount between the strike price and the difference resulting from closing out or exercising the option can be generated by exercising or closing the option. Whether this results in profits depends on whether the difference amount exceeds the premium paid. Such premium must first be earned again before the option buyer can break even. As long as the difference is lower than the premium paid the option holder is in the so-called partial loss or option zone. If the strike price does not increase or if it declines during the option period, the option buyer loses the entire premium.

It must be considered that the amount of the premium corresponds to the speculative price trends deemed realistic at the market and expected by the exchange experts.

The option premium settles in the range between bid and counterbid and thus determines the scope of the risks deemed acceptable in the market.

All costs, fees, and any markups incurred on the option premium have an adverse effect on the risk and rewards ratio. This is due to the fact that such costs must first be earned again before the option holder can break even.

Depending on the amount of the costs incurred in addition to the option premium, the risk-reward ratio changes due to the amount of the fees to such extent that profits can no longer be anticipated realistically. Any markups on the exchange option premium also result in each additional transaction diminishing the chances of generating profits at all or even eliminates any chance of such profits.

2. Price change risk

The price of an option is subject to fluctuation depending on various factors (see above). Such fluctuation can even lead to the option becoming worthless. Due to the limited term of options, you cannot rely on the option price recovering in time.

3. Leverage

Changes in the price of the underlying asset have an effect on the price of the option that is always disproportionate to the change in price of the underlying asset. This is referred to as leverage or leverage effect. Call options become impaired typically when the price of the underlying asset declines; in case of put options, this is usually the case when the price of the underlying asset increases. Conversely, not each positive development of the price of the underlying asset results in a positive impact on the value of the option. The price of the option can even drop if the price of the underlying asset is overcompensated, for example, as a result of the adverse effect of the declining volatility or due to the directly imminent expiry date. In addition to the rewards, the leverage effect also triggers major risks for the investor. The leverage effect impacts in both directions, i.e., not only in favor of the holder, but potentially unfavorably for the holder. The higher the leverage effect, the riskier the respective transactions. The shorter the residual term of an option, the higher is typically the leverage effect.

4. Risk of forfeiture, impairment, and total loss
It can be derived from the above remarks that options may be forfeited and thus close worthless or their value may decline. The shorter the residual term, the higher the risk of impairment or even total loss. Impairment losses occur when the expected price trends do not occur as expected during the terms. Due to the limited terms of options, the investor cannot rely on the rate or price of an option recovering in time before the expiry of the term.

5. Unlimited risks of loss
Entering into option transactions may result in a total loss of the amount invested due to unfavorable market trends, the occurrence of conditions, or expiration. Depending on the respective position, an unlimited risk of loss may be triggered. The risks are not limited to the collateral provided but can exceed their amount.

6. Limited or lack of opportunities to minimize losses
Transactions by way of which the risk from options are to be eliminated or limited may potentially be completed not at all or with a loss only.

7. Issuer risk
In case of warrants you bear the issuer risk, i.e., the risk of insolvency of the warrant issuer.

8. Increased risk due to loans
The risk of losses increases if loans are obtained to meet the obligations from futures.

9. Increased risk due to foreign currency transactions
Furthermore, the risk of losses increases when the obligation from the futures transaction or the consideration related to such transaction is denominated in a foreign currency or accounting unit. This increase is triggered by the exchange rate risk.

10. No improvement of the risk structure by way of certification
The certification of the rights and obligations described here by way of a security, in particular by way of warrants, does not have any impact on the rights and obligations outlined here.

Since futures transactions can be designed in various ways, additional risks may be triggered depending on the type of transaction. Such transactions should only be entered into when and if the investor is fully aware and fully understands the functionalities and risks of the transaction.

III. Short sale of options

In a short sale, the investors sell options they do not hold.

These are extremely risky activities in which the risk-rewards ratio is unfavorable for the short selling party.

If options are sold in a short sale, the seller first receives the option premium from the buyer. This option premium received constitutes the maximum potential profits for the seller, while the seller at the same time bears the unlimited risk of losses. A short sale of options means that the sellers themselves do not hold the option. They do not necessarily have to have the underlying asset either. With regard to short sales of options, the investor must take into account that the potential profits in the short sale of a call option are limited to the option premium received while the risk of losses remained unlimited. The potential profits in a short sale of put options is also limited to the option premium received; when the prices decline, the risk of losses is also unlimited (however, the value of the option asset cannot drop below zero). Limited potential profits in such transactions are also offset by an unlimited risk of losses. Such unfavorable risk-rewards ratio therefore required a thorough and efficient risk management.

Collateral for options:

In futures transactions that are subject to unlimited risk of losses, i.e., options disposed of in a short sale as well, collateral (margin) must be provided to cover potential risks.

At the respective exchanges, the regulations set forth for them apply and must be complied with in the individual case. The following distinction (premium and additional margin) only applies to Eurex. At other exchanges, the regulations set forth for those apply. All investors should familiarize themselves with those before trading at the respective exchange.

Premium margin:

In a short sale of options, the "premium margin" is calculated daily. For this purpose, the exchange uses the official closing rate of the option daily and based on that rate, calculates the premium margin for each individual option. In short sales of options, this premium margin also constitutes the redemption value or liquidation value, which means the value which the short seller would have to pay when redeeming the option at the official exchange closing rate. This margin is referred to as premium margin and is genuinely debited to the margin account since an outstanding redemption obligation exists in that amount. The procedure is as follows: The option premium received in the short sale is credited to the margin account. At the same time, the redemption price of the option effective at exchange closing is debited upon opening of the transaction so that the outstanding profit or loss of this item is derived from the difference between the premium received and the redemption value. On the following exchange trading day, the new redemption value is debited as the new "premium margin" and previous day's "premium margin" is credited; the difference between the new and the old "premium margin" is the profit or loss of the option over the previous day. Hence, the daily changes equal the profits and losses generated daily in the outstanding option items.

Additional margin:

For the purpose of calculating the "additional margin," the respective exchange determines a margin parameter for the largest possible change in the price of the option item, i.e., the underlying asset. The amount of that margin parameter is based on past experience. On the basis of this model, the exchange estimates how the price of the underlying asset could change unfavorably for the short seller in the extreme case scenario based on experience. By means of option-theoretical models, the exchange then calculates how the price of the respective option would most likely change with regard to the underlying asset if the expected extreme case scenario occurred. Such potential loss is then referred to as the "additional margin" which is to cover any price losses on the next day. The account must have sufficient funds to at least cover this "additional margin" in order to even be able to hold a short sale position in options until the next day at all. It must be emphasized that losses are not limited to this "additional margin" or the entire margin but can exceed those in each case. For options sold in a short sale, the total margin comprises the sum of the "premium margin" and the "additional margin."

C) RISKS RELATED TO FINANCIAL AND COMMODITY FUTURES TRANSACTIONS

Financial or commodity futures transactions are contracts in which one party accepts the obligation to deliver and the other party the option to accept the delivery to be made at an agreed-upon later date. Immediately upon closing of the futures transaction, the delivery, acceptance, quantity, and payment for the goods to be delivered are agreed upon. If these transactions are standardized and processed via the exchange, the processing is also standardized. The general term for financial and commodity futures transactions is futures. Such futures are often based on a genuine speculation purpose. In most cases, the contracting parties do not have any economic interests in the purchase or sale of the commodity.

Collateral (margin):

In future trading, it is typically a requirement for the closing of the transaction to provide collateral, the so-called margin payment. The broker records the margin payment as the opening balance on the customer account. All futures for the customer are recorded on this account. Profits, losses, and fees related to the individual transactions are netted. The investor is required to maintain the margin necessary to have sufficient funds in the account at all times. If the obligation accepted in the futures contract develops unfavorably for the investor, the respective losses are debited to the margin account as losses. If the amount in the margin account decreases below the margin to be maintained, the investor is requested to make additional payments. This request is referred to as margin call. The deadline for the additional payments may be a few hours only. If the investor fails to comply with this call, the assets in the account may be subject to a compulsory sale. The broker may also close out contracts already processed by way of counter-transactions. The minimum margins are determined by the respective exchange and can change daily, depending on the volatility of the futures. The processing broker may request margin payments exceeding this minimum margin.

The details regarding the collateral to be provided and any existing additional payments can be derived from the broker's most recent terms and conditions.

Risk information:

When entering into commodity futures transactions, specific risks are triggered due to the tangible delivery or acceptance obligations. Please take into account that any seller acting in futures may request acceptance of the commodity as of the "first notice day" which is specified in the provisions of the respective contract. The delivery to the respective place of delivery determined by the exchange is made in the quantity set forth in the underlying terms and conditions and the prescribed quality range after the corresponding call. The seller may in this regard make a discretionary decision regarding the exact delivery date; however, delivery must occur within the delivery month and the delivery must be announced one business day prior in the written offer. Without the timely counter-transaction (closing), you as the buyer bear the risk of facing an acceptance obligation during the last trading months after the "first notice day." As a seller, you may face the obligation to deliver if the counter-transaction does not occur in a timely manner upon expiration of the contract. If you have accepted an obligation to deliver and do not close out this obligation by way of a counter-transaction, you must purchase, store, and deliver the respective commodity in the agreed-upon amount and quality. You must also bear the additional costs incurred as a result. This cost risk cannot be reliable estimated beforehand and may exceed any collateral significantly. The obligations in this case may also exceed your entire personal assets.

Covered and uncovered delivery obligation:

Those accepting a delivery obligation under a futures contract and do not have the sufficient amount of the corresponding asset upon closing of the contract accept a higher risk than those who have the respective assets.

Special scenario: Futures with difference compensation:

Since futures do not necessarily involve only physical genuinely deliverable underlying assets, but also intangibles, only a cash compensation is paid in such cases. This is the case in particular with financial futures on an index or in a stock portfolio, i.e., a mere numbers unit which is calculated based on previously determined parameters and whose changes reflect the rate trends of the underlying securities. Moreover, all other notes and comments apply to these types of contracts accordingly.

Futures options:

Options can also be traded for futures. In that case, the transaction is an option transaction that is subject to the risks and mechanisms described under B.

Futures with exchange risk:

If you enter into futures transactions in which your obligation or the consideration to which you are entitled are denominated in a foreign currency or an accounting unit or if the value of the item is determined based on those, you do not only face the risks associated with the transaction, but also with an exchange risk. Even developments on the foreign exchange market can diminish the value of your options due to fluctuations in the exchange rate, make the item which you must deliver in order to meet your obligations under the futures contract more expensive or reduce the value or the proceeds.

D) EXCHANGE TRADED FUNDS (ETF) RISKS

Exchange traded funds (ETFs) are investment funds traded at the stock exchange which replicate the price trend of an index. ETFs are typically passively managed index funds. Passive investment strategies, unlike active investment strategies, aim at not exceeding the benchmark index, but reflect said index while at the same time minimizing the costs.

Just as regular investment fund shares, shares in an ETF certify prorated possession of special assets which is managed separate from the assets of the issuing investment company.

In addition to the general risks inherent in the investment in securities, ETF investments are subject to additional specific risks which are outlined below.

- **Price risk:**

  In case of ETFs which passively replicate the underlying index and are not actively managed you typically bear the basic risks of the underlying indexes. Hence, ETFs fluctuate in a directly proportionate manner compared to their underlying asset. The risk-yield profile of ETFs and their underlying indexes are therefore remarkably similar. If, for example, the DAX drops by 10%, the price of the ETFs replicating the DAX also drops by approximately 10%.
- **Risk concentration:**

  The investment risk increases based on the focus of an ETF such as a specific region, sector, or currency. This increased risk, however, can also result in increased earnings potential.
- **Exchange rate risk:**

  ETFs entail exchange rate risks if the underlying index is not denominated in the currency of the ETF. If the index currency deflates compared to the ETF currency, the value of the ETF is adversely affected.

- **Replication risk:**

  In addition, ETFs are subject to a replication risk, i.e., deviations between the value of the index and the value of the ETF may occur ("tracking error"). This tracking error can exceed the difference in the value trend affected by the ETF fees. Such deviation can, for example, be the result of cash balances, re-weighing, capital measures, dividend payments, or taxation of dividends.

- **Counterparty risk:**

  Furthermore, synthetically replicating ETFs entail a counterparty risk. If a swap counterparty does not meet its payment obligations, the investor may incur losses.

- **Risk of transfer or termination of the special assets:**

  Under certain circumstances, both the transfer of the special assets to another special asset portfolio and the termination of the management by the capital management company may occur. In case of a transfer, the continued management may be at less favorable terms and conditions. In case of a termination, the risk of a loss of (future) profits is triggered.

- **Of-market trading:**

  If ETFs and their underlying components are traded at different exchanges with different trading times, the investor faces the risk that transactions relating to those ETFs occur outside the trading times of the corresponding components. This may result in a deviation in the value trend compared to the underlying index.

- **Securities lending:**

  An investment fund may enter into securities lending transactions in order to optimize yields. If a borrower cannot meet their obligation to return the securities and the collateral's value has declined

E) EXCHANGE TRADED COMMODITIES (ETC) RISKS

Exchange traded commodities (ETC) are securities which enable the investors to invest in commodities. Just like ETFs, ETCs are traded at the stock exchange. Contrary to the ETF, the capital invested in an ETC is not deemed a special asset which is protected in case of the issuer's insolvency. This is due to the fact that the ETC is a bond issued by the ETC issuer. Compared to a physically replicating ETF, the investor in an ETC thus faces an issuers risk. In order to minimize this risk, issuers use various hedging methods.

In addition to the general risks inherent in the investment in securities, ETC investments are subject to additional specific risks which are outlined below.

- **Price risk:**

  In general, investments in commodities are subject to the same price risks as direct investments in commodities. Extraordinary events such as natural disasters, political conflicts, government regulation or weather changes may affect the availability of the commodities and thus lead to a drastic change in the price of the underlying asset and potentially the derivative as well. This can also result in a limitation of the liquidity and declining prices. In addition, the general economic development has a major impact on the demand for certain commodities such as metal or energy sources as a production factor significant to the sector.

- **Counterparty risk:**

  The trading in derivatives triggers a risk related to the structuring of the derivative contract. If the other party is not willing or able to meet its obligation under the derivative contract, it is possible that the derivative contract is not executed either in full or in part.

F) EXCHANGE TRADED NOTES (ETN) RISKS

Just like ETCs, exchange traded notes (ETNs) are non-interest-bearing bearer bonds traded at the stock exchange which replicate the value development of the underlying index or asset. ETNs are typically issued via banks. Contrary to ETFs, ETNs are usually unsecured. Even if the value trends of ETNs depend on an underlying index or asset, the ETNS have a similar structure as unsecured bonds listed at the exchange.

In addition to the general risks inherent in the investment in securities, ETN investments are subject to additional specific risks:

Credit risk:

If the issuer's credit standing changes, such change can have adverse effects on the value of the ETN--regardless of the development of the value of the underlying index or asset. In extreme cases, non-payment by the issuer may result in the investor as the unsecured creditor being forced to bring forward claims against the issuer.

G) PENNY STOCK TRADING RISK DISCLOSURE

This disclosure contains the additional important information regarding the characteristics and risks associated with trading small-cap stocks. This disclosure contains additional important information regarding the characteristics and risks associated with trading small-cap (penny) stocks.

What Is A "Penny" Stock?

Generally, penny stocks are low-priced shares of small companies that are not traded on an exchange or quoted on NASDAQ. Penny stocks generally are traded over-the-counter, such as on the OTC Bulletin Board or Pink Sheets and are historically more volatile and less liquid than other equities. For these and other reasons, penny stocks are considered speculative investments and customers who trade in penny stocks should be prepared for the possibility that they may lose their entire investment, or an amount in excess of their investment if they purchased penny stocks on margin. Before investing in a penny stock, you should thoroughly review the company issuing the penny stock. In addition, you should be aware of certain specific risks associated with trading in penny stocks.

Risks Associated With Penny Stocks

There are a number of risks of trading penny stocks, including the following: You Can Lose All or Much of Your Investment Trading Penny Stocks. All investments involve risks, but penny stocks are among the most risky and are generally not appropriate for investors with low risk tolerance. Many penny stock companies are new and do not have a proven track record. Some penny stock companies have no assets, operations or revenues. Others have products and services that are still in development or have yet to be tested in the market. Penny stock companies therefore have a greater risk of failure and those who invest in penny stocks have a greater risk that they may lose some or all of their investment.

- **Lack of Publicly Available Information.**

  Most large, publicly-traded companies file periodic reports with the SEC that provide information relating to the company's assets, liabilities and performance over time. In addition, these companies provide their financial information and operational results online. In contrast, information about penny stock companies can be extremely difficult to find, making them more likely to be the subject of an investment fraud scheme and making it less likely that quoted prices in the market will be based on full and complete information about the company.

- **No Minimum Listing Standards.**

  Companies that offer shares of their stock on exchanges can be subject to stringent listing standards that require the company to have a minimum amount of net assets and shareholders. Most penny stock companies do not list their shares on exchanges and are not subject to these minimum standards.

- **Risk of Lower Liquidity.**

  Liquidity refers to the ability of market participants to buy and sell securities. Generally, the more demand there is for a particular security, the greater the liquidity for that security. Greater liquidity makes it easier for investors to buy or sell securities, so investors are more likely to receive a competitive price for securities purchased or sold if the security is more liquid. Penny stocks are often traded infrequently and have lower liquidity. You may therefore have difficulty selling penny stocks once you own them. Moreover, because it may be difficult to find quotations for certain penny stocks, they may be difficult, or even impossible, to accurately price.

- **Risk of Higher Volatility.**

  Volatility refers to changes in price that securities undergo when they are being traded. Generally, the higher the volatility of a security, the greater its price swings. Due to their lower liquidity, penny stocks are subject to greater volatility and price swings. A customer order to purchase or sell a penny stock may not execute or may execute at a substantially different price than the prices quoted in the market at the time the order was placed. In addition, the market price of any penny stock shares you obtain can vary significantly over time.

Penny Stocks Can Be Subject to Scams.

Penny stocks are frequent vehicles for scams and/or market manipulation due to their generally lower prices and less stringent listing requirements. You should be wary of advertisements, unsolicited e-mails, newsletters, blogs or other promotional reports that emphasize the potential for large profits in penny stocks generally or certain penny stocks. These promotional materials are often used to manipulate or "pump up" the price of penny stocks before selling a large volume of shares. Customers are therefore strongly encouraged to do their own due diligence with respect to any penny stock company they invest in and to not rely on any outside promotional reports or newsletters. Further information concerning penny stocks and the risks involved in trading them is available on the SEC's website at http://www.sec.gov/investor/pubs/microcapstock.htm.

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