

# MATH 4281 Risk Theory–Ruin and Credibility

Intro to the course and start of Module 1

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# Introduction to this course

# The story so far...

For those who took Math 4280 you essentially studied the following problem:

$$\boxed{\text{How to compute } \rho[L]?} = ES[L]?$$

Where:

- $\rho$  is some (potentially) coherent risk measure e.g. ES/TCE/CVaR, etc...
- $L$  is some random variable representing a loss.

# Some Questions

Q1: What do you do when  $L$  is equal to a sum of smaller RVs?

Q2: How do you introduce **time** to this model?

Q3: How do I estimate the parameters of the model for  $L$ ...if I don't have a nice heterogeneous sample?

# Some Questions

Q1: What do you do when  $L$  is equal to a sum of smaller RVs?

⇒ Module 1: Aggregate Loss Models

Q2: How do you introduce **time** to this model?

⇒ Module 2: Ruin Theory

Q3: How do I estimate the parameters of the model for  $L$ ...if I don't have a nice heterogeneous sample?

⇒ Module 3: Credibility

# Start of Module 1: Intro to Aggregate Loss Models

# Models for aggregate losses

A portfolio of insurance contracts or an insurance contract will potentially experience a sequence of losses:

$$X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots$$

We are interested in the aggregate sum  $S$  of these losses over a certain period of time.



# Assumptions going forward

- How do losses relate to each other?
  - ↪ Assume independent  $X_i$ 's.
- When do these losses occur?
  - ↪ Assume no time value of money i.e. short term models
- How many losses will occur?
  - ↪ if deterministic ( $n$ )  $\rightarrow$  individual risk model
  - ↪ if random ( $N$ )  $\rightarrow$  collective risk model

# Definition: The Individual Risk Model

## The Individual Risk Model<sup>1</sup>

$$S = X_1 + \cdots + X_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i,$$

- The random variables  $X_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , are assumed to be independent
- BUT they are not assumed to be identically distributed.
- Typically the  $X_i$ 's have mass at 0 (representing no loss/payment).

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<sup>1</sup>Refer to Def. 9.2 in the loss model textbook

## Definition: The Collective Risk Model

In the Collective Risk Model, aggregate losses become

$$S = X_1 + \dots + X_N = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i.$$

This is a random sum. We make the following assumptions:

- $N$  is the number of claims
- $X_i$  is the amount of the  $i$ th claim
- the  $X_i$ 's are iid with
  - CDF  $F(x)$
  - P(D/M)F  $f(x)$
  - Moments exist and are finite!
- the  $X_i$ 's and  $N$  are mutually independent

# How to compute $S$ ?

We will study methods to get probabilities about  $S$ :

- 1 If possible we will get the true distribution of  $S$  via:
  - Convolutions
  - Method of generating functions
- 2 Otherwise we will approximate with the help of the moments of  $S$

# Examples of The IRM vs CRM

A group life insurance contract where each employee has a different age, gender, and death benefit<sup>2</sup>.

A: IRM

why ; - we know " $n$ "  
-  $x_i$ 's not identical

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<sup>2</sup>ex 9.2 of the loss models book

## Examples of The IRM vs CRM

A reinsurance contract that pays when the annual total medical malpractice costs at a certain hospital exceeds a given amount.

A: CRM

Why:  $N$  - random # of claims  
 $X_i$ 's are similar  $\rightarrow$  i.i.d justified!

# Examples of The IRM vs CRM

A dental policy on an individual pays for at most two checkups per year per family member. A single contract covers any size family at the same price.

A CRM

why?  $N$  random  $\rightarrow$  # of family members  
claiming  
+  
# of checkups

# An example for the collective Risk model

An insurable event has a 10% probability of occurring and when it occurs results in a loss of \$5,000. Market research has indicated that consumers will pay at most \$550 to purchase insurance against this event. How many policies must a company sell in order to have a 95% chance of making money (ignoring expenses)?<sup>3</sup>

$n = \# \text{ of policies}$

$C = \# \text{ of claims @ } 5,000 \$$

$$\underline{0.95 \leq P(5000C < 550n)}$$

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<sup>3</sup>ex 9.1 of the loss models book



## An example for the collective Risk model

$$\begin{aligned}
 0.95 &\leq P(S \leq 5500) \\
 &= P(C < 0.11n) \\
 &= P\left(\underbrace{\frac{C - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}}}_{\text{std normal}} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} (0.03)\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$C \sim \text{Bin}(n, 0.1)$$

$$\text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$C \sim \mathcal{N}(np, np(1-p))$$

$$\Phi^{-1}(0.95) \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} 0.03$$

$$\Rightarrow 2400 \approx n$$

# An example for the collective Risk model

# Generating Functions and Convolutions

# Probability Generating functions

## Definition (PGF)

Given a discrete RV  $X$ . We define the Probability Generating Function(PGF)  $p_X(t)$  as:

$$p_X(t) = E[t^X]$$

i.e:

$$p_X(t) = \Pr[X = x_0]t^{x_0} + \Pr[X = x_1]t^{x_1} + \Pr[X = x_2]t^{x_2} + \dots$$

# Properties

- There is a 1-1 relation between a distribution and its PGF.
- If  $X$  is an integer-valued random variable, then the PGF is

$$p_X(t) = E[t^X] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \Pr[X = n] t^n,$$

which is in fact the Taylor series of  $p_X(t)$ :

$$\Pr[X = n] = \frac{\frac{d^n}{dt^n} p_X(t) |_{t=0}}{n!} \quad \left. \vphantom{\frac{d^n}{dt^n} p_X(t) |_{t=0}} \right] \text{Recover probability}$$

- If  $X_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  are independent, then:

$$p_{X_1 + \dots + X_n}(t) = p_{X_1}(t) p_{X_2}(t) \cdots p_{X_n}(t)$$

# Moment Generating functions

## Definition (MGF)

For a continuous random variable  $X$  we define the Moment Generating Function (MGF) as:

$$M_X(t) = E\left(e^{tX}\right)$$

# Properties

- There is a 1-1 relation between a distribution and its MGF.
- Taylor Expansion:

$$M_X(t) = 1 + E[X]t + E[X^2]\frac{t^2}{2} + E[X^3]\frac{t^3}{6} + \dots + E[X^k]\frac{t^k}{k!} + \dots$$

Recall:  
moments

and thus

$$E[X^k] = \left. \frac{d^k}{dt^k} m_X(t) \right|_{t=0}$$

- If  $X_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  are independent then:



$$\underbrace{M_{X_1 + \dots + X_n}(t)}_{S=?} = \underbrace{M_{X_1}(t)}_{\text{known!}} M_{X_2}(t) \dots M_{X_n}(t)$$

# Why do we care?

- As we said there is a 1-1 relation between a distribution and its MGF or PGF.
- Sometimes,  $m_S(t)$  or  $p_S(t)$  can be recognised: this is the case for infinitely divisible distributions (Normal, Poisson, Inverse Gaussian, ...) and certain other distributions (Binomial, Negative binomial)
- Otherwise,  $m_S(t)$  or  $p_S(t)$  can be expanded numerically to get moments and/or probabilities



**Example** Consider a portfolio of 10 contracts. The losses  $X_i$ 's for these contracts are i.i.d. Poisson RVs with parameter 100. Determine the distribution of  $S$ .

$$X_i \sim \text{Poi}(\underbrace{100}_{\text{"}\lambda\text{"}}) \quad S = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad (=?)$$

$$p_S(t) = \underbrace{p_{X_1}(t) \cdots p_{X_{10}}(t)}_{\text{same}} = \left( \underbrace{p_{X_i}(t)}_{\text{ind to } K_{100}} \right)^{10}$$

$$p_{X_i}(t) = E[t^X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{\lambda^i e^{-\lambda}}{i!} \right) t^i$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda t)^i}{i!}}_{= e^{\lambda t}} = e^{\lambda(t-1)}$$

$$p_S(t) = (p_{X_i}(t))^{10} = \left( e^{\lambda(t-1)} \right)^{10} = \underbrace{e^{1000(t-1)}}_{= \text{PGF of } P_{D_i}(1000)}$$

$$\Rightarrow S \sim P_{D_i}(1000)$$



**Example** Consider three independent RVs  $X_1, X_2, X_3$ . For  $i = 1, 2, 3$ ,  $X_i$  has an exponential distribution and  $E[X_i] = 1/i$ . Derive the PDF of  $S = X_1 + X_2 + X_3$  by recognition of the MGF of  $S$ .

$$\text{MGF; } E[e^{tX_i}] = \frac{i}{i-t} \text{ for } t < i \text{ (Exercise)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} M_S(t) &= M_{X_1}(t) \cdot M_{X_2}(t) \cdot M_{X_3}(t) \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{1-t} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{2}{2-t} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{3}{3-t} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$M_S(t) = \left( \frac{1}{1-t} \right) \left( \frac{2}{2-t} \right) \left( \frac{3}{3-t} \right)$$

$$= 3 \left( \frac{1}{1-t} \right) - 3 \left( \frac{2}{2-t} \right) + \left( \frac{3}{3-t} \right)$$

by  
Partial  
Fractions

Note

$$f_S(x) = g(x) + h(x)$$

$$E[e^{tx}] = \int e^{tx} (g+h) dx = \int + \int$$

$$f_S(x) = 3(e^{-x}) - 3(2e^{-2x}) + (3e^{-3x})$$



# Convolutions

- The operation of computing the distribution of the sum of two independent random variables is called a **convolution**. It is denoted by:

$$F_{X+Y} = F_X * F_Y$$

- The result can then be convoluted with the distribution of another random variable:

$$F_{X+Y+Z} = F_Z * F_{X+Y}$$

- And so on...(as we will see for  $n$ -fold convolutions)

# Formulas

Continuous case:

- CDF:  $F_{X+Y}(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_Y(s-x) f_X(x) dx$
- PDF:  $f_{X+Y}(s) = \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Y(s-x) f_X(x) dx}_{\text{pdf of } X+Y} = f_Y \otimes f_X$

Discrete case:

- CDF:  $F_{X+Y}(s) = \sum_x F_Y(s-x) f_X(x)$
- PMF:  $f_{X+Y}(s) = \sum_x f_Y(s-x) f_X(x)$



## $n$ -fold convolutions

For i.i.d. continuous random variables  $X_i$  with a common CDF  $F_X(x)$ , the  $n$ -fold convolution of  $F_X(x)$  is denoted by  $F_X^{*n}(x)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} F_X^{*k}(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_X^{*(k-1)}(x-y) f_X(y) dy \\ &= \int_0^x F_X^{*(k-1)}(x-y) f_X(y) dy \quad \text{if positive support} \end{aligned}$$

for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$  where:

$$F_X^{*0}(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ 1, & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

# $n$ -fold convolutions (Cont.)

Continuous case PDF for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$  :

$$\begin{aligned} f_X^{*k}(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X^{*(k-1)}(x-y) f_X(y) dy \\ &= \int_0^x f_X^{*(k-1)}(x-y) f_X(y) dy \quad \text{if positive support} \end{aligned}$$

## $n$ -fold convolutions (Cont.)

Discrete case:

- CDF:

$$F_X^{*k}(x) = \sum_{y=0}^x F_X^{*(k-1)}(x-y) f_X(y) \text{ for } x = 0, 1, \dots, k = 2, 3, \dots$$

- PMF:

$$f_X^{*k}(x) = \sum_{y=0}^x f_X^{*(k-1)}(x-y) f_X(y) \text{ for } x = 0, 1, \dots, k = 2, 3, \dots$$

# Why?

**Exercise:** Show the convolution gives the distribution for the sum.

Hint: Law of total prob.

