# LECTURE NOTES

# NON LIFE INSURANCE First Draft

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# Contents

1	Individual Risk and Distributions	3
2	Thursday 09/03/17           2.1 Distribution of the largest claim amount	<b>8</b> 8 9
3	Pareto Type Distributions	10
4	Thursday $16/03/17$	<b>12</b>
5	Pareto Type Distributions	<b>12</b>
6	Birth Processes	16
7	Risk Process	18

# 1 Individual Risk and Distributions

A non negative random variable is called a **loss** and it its distribution a **loss distribution**. One impotant classes of loss distributions are the following

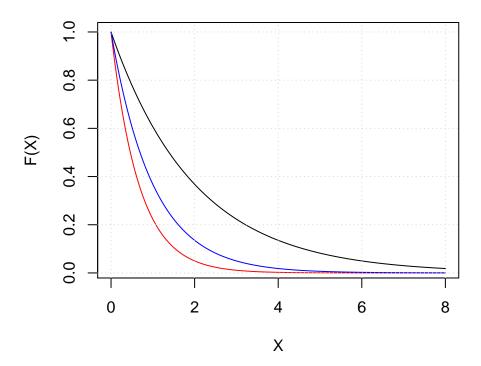
 $X \sim Exponential(\alpha)$  means that X has density  $f_X(x) = \alpha e^{-\alpha x}$  and distribution function (d.f)  $F_X(x) = 1 - e^{-\alpha x}$ ,  $\forall x > 0$  and  $\alpha > 0$ .

Let  $Y = e^x$ ,

$$F_Y(y) = F_X(\log y)$$
$$= 1 - e^{\alpha \log(y)}$$
$$= 1 - y^{-\alpha}$$

Is called the **Pareto Distribution**. If Y follows a Pareto distribution, denoted  $Y \sim Pareto(\alpha), \forall y > 1$ 

# Pareto distribution with parameter $\alpha$

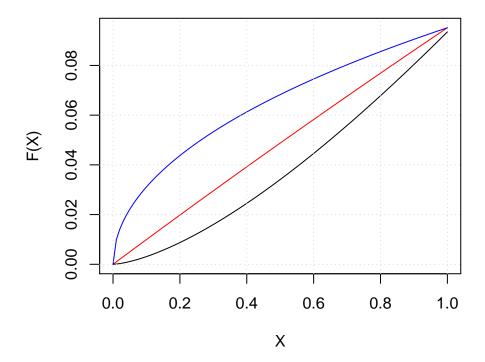


 $X \sim Exponential(\lambda)$  and  $Y \sim X^{\frac{1}{\tau}}, \, \forall \tau > 0$ 

$$F_Y(Y) = F_X(Y^{\tau})$$
  
= 1 - e<sup>-\lambda y^{\tau}</sup>, \quad \forall y > 0

Y follows the **Weibull distribution**,  $\tau$  is called the Weibull index. It is denoted by  $Y \sim Weibull(\tau, \lambda)$ 

# **Weibull Distribution**



Let  $X \sim Exponential(1)$  and

$$Y = \frac{X^{-\gamma} - 1}{\gamma} \quad \forall \gamma \neq 0$$

$$F_Y(Y) = P(Y \le y)$$

$$= P\left[\frac{X^{-\gamma - 1}}{\gamma} \le Y\right]$$

$$= P\left[X \ge (1 + \gamma x)^{-\frac{1}{\gamma}}\right]$$

$$= 1 - F_X(\{1 + \gamma x\}^{-\frac{1}{\gamma}})$$

Y follows the Extreme Value Distribution.

$$\lim_{\gamma \to 0} \frac{x^{-\gamma - 1}}{\gamma} = \lim_{\gamma \to 0} \frac{d}{d\gamma} x^{-\gamma}$$
$$= \lim_{\gamma \to 0} \frac{d}{d\gamma} e^{-(\log x)\gamma}$$
$$= -\log x$$

Let Y = -log X,

$$F_y(y) = P[-logX \le Y]$$

$$= P[X \ge e^{-y}]$$

$$= exp\{e^{-y}\} \ \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Y follows the **Gumbel** distribution.

Let 
$$X \sim Exponential(1)$$
 and  $Y = X^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}}$  for  $\alpha > 0$ .  $F_Y(y) = 1 - F_X(x^{-\alpha})$   
=  $1 - \{1 - e^{-x^{-\alpha}}\}$   
=  $exp\{-x^{-\alpha}\}$   $\forall x > 0$ 

Y follows the **Fréchet** Distribution.

$$X \sim Pareto(\alpha)$$
 and  $Y = \beta(X - 1), Y = \{\beta(X - 1)\}^{\frac{1}{\tau}}$ 

$$for\beta, \tau > 0$$
 
$$F_Y(y) = F_x(1 + \frac{Y^2}{\beta})$$
 & = 1 -  $(1 + \frac{Y^2}{\beta})^{-\alpha}$   $\forall y > 0$ 

Y follows the **Burr** distribution, we denote it as

$$Y \sim Burr(\alpha, \beta, \tau)$$

Let  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and  $Y = e^x$ 

$$f(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma y} exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{logy - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^{2}\right\} \quad \forall y > 0$$

Y follows the **Lognormal** Distribution.

$$Y \sim Lognormal(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

Let  $X \sim Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$  and  $Y = e^x$ 

$$f_x(x) = \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\beta x} \quad \forall x > 0 \quad and \quad \alpha, \beta > 0$$
$$f_y(y) = \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} (\log y)^{\alpha - 1} y^{-\beta - 1} \quad \forall y > 1$$

Y follows the log-gamma distribution.

$$Y \sim \log\text{-gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$$

Let  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$  and Y = |X|

$$F_Y(X) = P[|X| \le Y]$$
  
=  $2\phi(y) - 1 \quad \forall y > 0$ 

Where  $\phi$  is the distribution function  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ 

**Definition 1.1.** The distribution function  $F_1$  has  $\begin{cases} heavier \\ equivalent \\ lighter \end{cases}$ 

function  $F_2$  if

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1 - F_1(x)}{1 - F_2(x)} \begin{cases} > \\ = 1. \end{cases}$$

Example 1. 
$$F_1$$
 Pareto,  $F_2$  Burr
$$= \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{x^{-\alpha}}{\left(\frac{\beta}{\beta + x^{\tau}}\right)^{\alpha}}$$

$$= \left(\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\beta + x^{\tau}}{\beta x}\right)^{\alpha}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{\beta} \lim_{x \to \infty} x^{\tau - 1}\right)^{\alpha} = \begin{cases} \infty & if & \tau > 1\\ \beta^{-\alpha} & if & \tau = 1\\ 0 & if & \tau < 1 \end{cases}$$

**Definition 1.2.** Moments

$$E(X^{k}) = \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{k} dF(x)$$
$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{k} f(x) dx$$

The existence of moments is a practical problem with heavy tailed distributions.

**Lemma 1.2.1.** For any (real-valued) random variable X.

$$\begin{split} i. \quad E[|X|] = & \int_0^\infty P[|X| > x] dx \\ ii. E[|X|] < \infty \Rightarrow P[|X| > x] = o(x^{-1}) \end{split}$$

*Proof.* Let G be the d.f of |X| and c>0, then:

$$\int_0^c xdG(x) = \int_0^c \{1 - G(x)\}dx - \overbrace{c\{1 - G(c)\}}^{>0}$$
 Assume  $E[|x|] < \infty$  thus  $E[|X|] = \int_0^\infty xdG(x) \infty$  
$$0 = \lim_{c \to \infty} \int_c^\infty xdG(x) \ge \lim_{c \to \infty} c \int_c^\infty dG(x)$$
 
$$= \lim_{c \to \infty} c\{1 - F(c)\}$$
 Thus 
$$\int_0^\infty xdG(x) = \int_0^\infty \{1 - G(x)\}dx \Leftrightarrow (i)$$
 If 
$$\int_0^\infty P[|X| > x]dx < \infty, \text{ then } P[|X| > x] = o(x^{-1})$$
 as  $x \to \infty$  and thus  $ii$  holds

Assume 
$$E[|X|] = \infty$$
, So  $\infty = \int_0^\infty x dG(x) \le \int_0^\infty \{1 - G(x)\} dx$   
=  $\int_0^\infty P[|X| > x] dx = \infty$  Thus (i) holds.

Corollary 1.2.1.1. For any real valued random variable X and r > 0.

i. 
$$E[|X|^r] = r \int_0^\infty x^{r-1} P[|X| > x] dx$$
  
ii.  $E[|X|^r] < \infty \Rightarrow = P[|X| > x] = o(x^{-r})$ 

One could distinguish three main categories of loss distributions according to the importance of the (right) tail.

Let  $M(v) = E[e^{vX}]$  for  $v \in \mathbb{R}$ , denote the moment generating function (m.g.f) of X of its distributions.

1.  $M(v) < \infty \ \forall v \in \mathbb{R}$ 

These distributions are very light-tailed

$$\exists \gamma \in (0, \infty) \text{ s.t } M(v) < \infty, \forall v < \gamma$$

These distributions are light tailed of exponential type

**3.** 
$$\exists k \in (0, \infty)$$
 s.t  $E[x^p] < \infty < k$  and  $E[x^p] = \infty \ \forall \ge k$ 

## Example 2.

$$X \sim Exponential(\lambda)$$

$$M(v) = \int_0^\infty e^{vx} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx$$

$$= \lambda \int_0^\infty e^{-(\lambda - v)x} dx$$

$$= \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - v}, \quad \text{if } v < \lambda \text{ and}$$

$$= \infty \quad \text{if } v > \lambda$$

#### Example 3.

$$X \sim Beta(\alpha,\beta)$$
 
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} x^{1-\alpha} (1-x)^{1-\beta} \quad \forall x \in (0,1)$$
 
$$Beta(\alpha,\beta) = \int_0^1 x^{1-\alpha(1-x)^{1-\beta}} dx$$
 
$$= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}$$

Beta(1,1) is Uniform(0,1)

 $X \sim Beta(\alpha, \beta)$  is in (1).

The one sided normal is in (1)

 $X \sim Pareto(\alpha)$  is in (3).

Assume that M(v) exists in a neighbourhood of the origin, then:

$$\begin{split} M(v) &= E[e^{vx}] \\ &= E[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} v^k] \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} E[\frac{x^k}{k!} v^k] \quad \textit{From Fubini theorem because } M(v) < \infty \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} E[x^k] \frac{v^k}{k!} \\ M(v) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} M^{(k)}(0) \frac{v^k}{k!} \end{split}$$

So, we find that  $E[x^k] = M^{(k)}(0)$  for k = 1, 2, ...

#### **Definition 1.3.** Hazard Rate

Let F be a loss distriution with density f. The function

$$h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{1 - F(x)}$$

is the instantaneous hazard rate of F and

$$H(x,u) = \frac{F(x+u) - F(x)}{1 - F(x)}$$

is the hazard rate of F, where x, u > 0

Thus

$$h(x)dx = \frac{f(x)dx}{1 - F(x)} = P[x \in (x, x + dx)|X > x]$$

and

$$H(x,u) = P[x \in (x,x+u)|X>x]$$

Thus H(x, u) = h(x)dx.

The hazard rate is also called failure rate of force of mortality.

**Definition 1.4.** The loss distribution has  $\left\{\begin{array}{ll} increasing \\ decreasing \end{array}\right.$  failure rate called  $\left\{\begin{array}{ll} IFR \\ DFR \end{array}\right.$  in x, if H(x,u) is  $\left\{\begin{array}{ll} increasing \\ decreasing \end{array}\right.$  in x  $\forall u>0$ 

Increasing and decreasing are meant in the weak sense, i.e not in the strict sense.

**Lemma 1.4.1.** 
$$F$$
 is  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} IFR \\ DFR \end{array} \Leftrightarrow h$  is  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} increasing \\ decreasing \end{array} \right.$ 

Proof.

# 2 Thursday 09/03/17

#### 2.1 Distribution of the largest claim amount

The distribution of the largest loss is very important in **risk management**.

We will derive asymptotic approximation of standardized maxima.

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be independent losses with distribution function (d.f) F and define

$$M_n = \max\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$$

$$P[M_n \le n] = P[X_1, ..., X_n \le x]$$
$$= F^n(x), \quad \forall x > 0$$

Let 
$$\bar{x} = \sup\{x > 0 | F(x) < 1\}$$
.  
Assume  $E[M_n] < \infty$ , then  $E[M_n] = \int_0^{\bar{x}} \{1 - F^n(x)\} dx \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \bar{x}$ .  
Assume  $E[M_n^2] < \infty$ , then  $E[M_n^2] = \int_0^{\bar{x}} x \{1 - F^n(x)\} dx \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \bar{x}^2$   
 $Var(M_n) = E[M_n^2] - E^2[M_n] \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \bar{x}^2 - \bar{x}^2 = 0$ , assuming  $\bar{x} = 0$ .

Thus the asymptotic distribution of  $M_n$  is degenerate (the total mass is over  $\bar{x}$ ). SO if we want to compute this asymptotic distribution, we must consider the standardization  $\frac{M_n-b_n}{a_n}$ . Before studying these asymptotic approximation we give some examples with finite sample.

# 2.2 Examples

The distribution of the monthly largest loss is Gumbel  $F(x) = G(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma})$  where  $G(x) = \exp\{-e^{-x}\}\ x \in \mathbb{R}$ , what is the distribution of the annual maximum?

$$\begin{split} F^{12} &= \exp\{-12e^{-\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}}\} \\ &= \exp\{-e^{-\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} + log12}\} \\ &= \exp\{-e^{-\frac{x-(\mu + \sigma log12)}{\sigma}}\} \end{split}$$

It is thus agian Gumbel, with another location parameter with Frechet monthly largest loss, with  $G(x) = \exp\{-x^{-\alpha}\}, \ x > 0$ , we have  $F^{12}(x) = \exp\{-12\frac{x-\mu-\alpha}{\sigma}\} = \exp\{-(\frac{x-\mu}{12^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}\sigma})^{-\alpha}\}$ . It is again Fréchet with another scale parameter. Because of this algebraic closure property, the Gumbel and the Frechet distributions are called max-stable. We consider the slight generalization where the sample size is the random variable N.

Let  $M_N = \max\{X_1, \dots, X_N\}$ . Assume N independent of  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ 

$$P[M_N \le x] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P[M_N \le x | N = n] P[N = n]$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F^n(x) P[N = n]$$
$$= G_N(F(x)), \quad \forall x \ge 0$$

Where  $M_0=0$  and  $G_N(v)=\sum_{n=0}^\infty v^n P[N=n]$  is the generating function of N. Thus  $P[M_N\leq 0]$  if F(0)=0

**Example 4.**  $N_k \sim Poisson(k, \lambda)$ , the number of claim amounts during k years.

$$G_{N_k}(v) = E[v^{N_k}]$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} v^n e^{-k\lambda} \frac{(k\lambda)^n}{n!}$$

$$= e^{-k\lambda} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda kv)^n}{n!}$$

$$= \exp\{-k\lambda + \lambda kv\}$$

$$= \exp\{\{k\lambda(v-1)\} \quad \forall v \in \mathbb{R}$$

 $Let F(x) = 1 - e^{-\frac{x}{\sigma}}$ 

$$\begin{split} P[M_{N_k} \leq x] &= G_{N_k}(F(x)) \\ &= \exp\{-k\lambda e^{-\frac{x}{\sigma}}\} \\ &= \exp\{-\exp\{-\frac{x}{\sigma + \log k\lambda}\}\} \\ &= \exp\{-\exp\{-\frac{x - \sigma \log k\lambda}{\sigma}\}\} \end{split}$$

 $\forall x \geq 0$  which is the Gumbel distribution.

Let 
$$F(x) = 1 - (\frac{x}{\sigma} + 1)^{-\alpha} \quad \forall x \ge 0$$

$$P[M_{N_k} \le x] = \exp\{k\lambda (\frac{x}{\sigma} + 1)^{-\alpha}\}$$
$$= \exp\{-(\frac{x}{\sigma(k\lambda)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}} + 1)^{-\alpha}\} \quad \forall x \ge 0$$

Which is the Fréchet distribution.

# 3 Pareto Type Distributions

Extreme value theory is the analysis of the asymptotic distributions of standardized maxima. We search for  $a_1, a_2, ... > 0$ ,  $b_1, b_2, ... \in \mathbb{R}$  and for d.f G s. t

$$P\left[\frac{M_n - b_n}{a_n} \le x\right] \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} G(x)$$

at all continuity points  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  of G

We consider distributions of Pareto-type.

**Definition 3.1.** The d.f F is of Pareto type if

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1 - F(tx)}{1 - F(x)} = t^{-\alpha} \quad \forall t > 0$$

for some  $\alpha > 0$ 

Example 5. 
$$F(x)=1-x^{-\alpha}$$

$$\frac{1-F(tx)}{1-F(x)} = \frac{(tx)^{-\alpha}}{x^{-\alpha}} = t^{\alpha} \quad \forall x > 1$$

**Definition 3.2.** The function  $f: \mathbb{R}_+ \to \mathbb{R}_+$  has regular variation (to infinity) with index  $\delta \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\frac{f(tx)}{f(x)} \xrightarrow{x \to \infty} t^{\delta}$$

This means that  $f(tx) \sim t^{\delta} f(x)$ , as  $x \to \infty$  (Remember that a homogeneous function f of degree  $\delta$  satisfies  $f(tx) = t^{\delta} f(x) \ \forall x$ ). Notation  $f \in_{\delta}$  Thus F is of Pareto-type if and only if  $1 - F \in \mathbb{R}_{\alpha}$ 

**Definition 3.3.** The function  $f: \mathbb{R}_+ \to \mathbb{R}_+$  is a slow varying function if

$$\frac{f(tx)}{f(x)} \xrightarrow{x \to \infty} 1 \quad \forall t > 0$$

 $f \in \mathbb{R}_{\delta} <=> f(x) = x^{\delta} l(x)$  where  $l \in \mathbb{R}_0$ 

=>

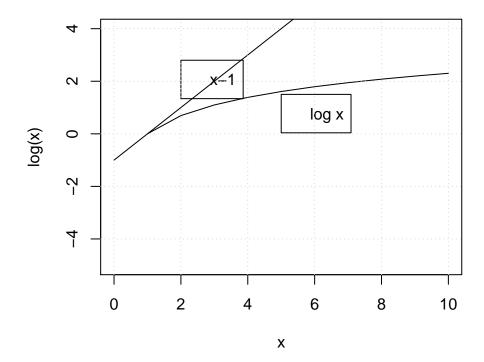
$$\frac{(tx)^{-\delta}f(tx)}{x^{-\delta}f(x)} = t^{-\delta}\frac{f(tx)}{f(x)} \xrightarrow{x \to \infty} t^{-\delta}t^{\delta} = 1$$

<=

$$\frac{f(tx)}{f(x)} = \frac{(tx)^{\delta}l(tx)}{x^{\delta}l(x)} = t^{\delta}\frac{l(tx)}{l(x)} \xrightarrow{x \to \infty} t^{\delta}$$

We want to show that if the distribution of the individual losses is of Pareto type, then the simple maxima is Fréchet distribution.

$$\log P\left[\frac{M_n - b_n}{a_n} \le x\right] = \log F^n(a_n x + b_n)$$
$$= n \log F(a_n x + b_n)$$
$$\sim \{1 - F(a_n x + b_n)\}$$



as  $n \to \infty$ , provided that  $a_n x + b_n \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \infty$  where  $a_1, a_2, ... > 0$  and  $b_1, b_2, ... \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let us consider  $F(x) = 1 - x^{-\alpha} \quad \forall x \ge 1$  and  $b_1 = b_2 = ... = 0$ .

$$n\{1 - F(a_n x)\} = n(a_n x)^{-\alpha} = x^{-\alpha}$$

would give us

$$logP[\frac{M_n}{a_n} \le x] \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \exp\{-x^{-\alpha}\}$$

<=>

$$P\left[\frac{M_n}{a_n} \le x\right] \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \exp\{-x^{-\alpha}\}$$

$$\frac{M_n}{a_n} \xrightarrow{d} Fr\acute{e}chet(\alpha)$$

$$na_n^{-\alpha} = 1 <=> a_n^{-\alpha} = n^{-1} <=> a_n = n^{1/\alpha}$$

Thus  $n^{1/\alpha}M_n \xrightarrow{d} Frechet(\alpha)$  as can be expressed in terms of F as follows.

$$1 - x^{-\alpha} = u \le x = (1 - u)^{-1/\alpha}$$
$$F^{(-1)}(u) = (1 - u)^{-1/\alpha}$$
$$F^{-1}(1 - \frac{1}{n}) = (1 - \{1 - \frac{1}{n}\})^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}} = (\frac{1}{n})^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}}$$

$$=n^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}=a_n$$

Thus  $1 - \frac{1}{n} = F(a_n) <=>$ 

$$\frac{1}{n} <=> 1 - F(a_n) <=> n = \{1 - F(a_n)\}^{-1}$$

Let us keep this relation for a more general distribution function F.

Thus

$$n\{1 - F(a_n x)\} = \frac{1 - F(a_n x)}{1 - F(a_n)}$$
$$\xrightarrow{n \to \infty} x^{-\alpha}$$

if F is of Pareto-type.

Therefore, from the previous computations

$$M_n \xrightarrow{d} Fr\'{e}chet(\alpha)$$

where  $a_n = F^{(-1)}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$ 

This result is the Fréchet limit theorem for maxima, when the individual losses are of Paretotype, then the sample maximum is asymptotically Fréchet. Some computations

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\log(tx)}{\log x} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\log t}{\log x} + \frac{\log x}{\log x} = 1 \quad \log \in R_0$$

$$\log^{(0)} x = x, \log^{(1)} = \log x$$

 $\log^{(k)} = \log \log^{(k-1)} x$  for k = 1, 2, ...

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\log^{(k)tx}}{\log^{(k)}x} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\frac{t}{\log^{(k-1)}tx...\log txtx}}{\frac{1}{\log^{(k-1)}x...\log tx}} = 1$$

Then  $log^{(k)} \in R_0$ 

# 4 Thursday 16/03/17

# 5 Pareto Type Distributions

**Definition 5.1.** F is of Pareto type if  $1-F \in \mathbb{R}_{-\alpha}$  for some  $\alpha > 0$ . Remember that  $(f \in \mathbb{R}_{\delta), \delta \in \mathbb{R}}$  if  $\frac{f(tx)}{f(x)} \xrightarrow{t^{\delta}}$ . Thus  $1 - F(x) = x^{-\alpha}l(x)$  where  $l \in \mathbb{R}_{\not\vdash}$ .

Some examples

#### Example 6. Pareto

$$F(x) = 1 - x^{-\alpha} \forall x > 1$$
  
$$F(x) = x^{-\alpha} \cdot 1(l(x) = 1)$$

# Example 7. Burr

$$F(x) = 1 - \left(\frac{\beta}{\beta + x^{\tau}}\right)^{\lambda}, \forall x > 0 \ \beta \lambda \tau > 0$$
$$= \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\beta + x^{\tau}}{\beta + (t + x)^{\tau}} \lambda$$

$$= \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\beta + x^{\tau}}{\beta + (tx)^{\tau}}^{\lambda}$$
$$= (t^{-\tau})^{\lambda} = t^{-\lambda \tau}$$

Thus  $-\alpha = \lambda \tau$  (is the index of regular variation)  $l(x) = x^{\lambda \tau} (\frac{\beta}{\beta + x^{\tau}})^{\lambda} = (\frac{\beta x^{\tau}}{\beta + x^{\tau}})^{\lambda}$ 

### Example 8. Fréchet

$$F(x) {=} exp\{-x^{-\alpha}\} \quad \forall x>0, \alpha>0$$

$$\begin{aligned} &=& \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\alpha(tx)^{-\alpha-1}t \ exp\{-(tx)^{-\alpha}\}}{\alpha x^{-\alpha-1}exp\{-x^{-\alpha}\}} \\ &= t^{-\alpha} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{1-}F(x){=}x^{-\alpha}l(x) & where & l(x) = x^{\alpha}(1-exp\{-x^{-\alpha}\}) \\ = x^{\alpha}(1-exp\{-x^{-\alpha}\}) \\ = x^{\alpha}(1-[1-x^{-\alpha}+\frac{1}{2}x^{-2\alpha}-\frac{1}{3!}x^{-3\alpha}+\ldots]) \\ = 1-\frac{1}{2}x^{-\alpha}+\frac{1}{3!}x^{-2\alpha}+\ldots \end{array}$$

#### Theorem 5.1.1. Karamata

**Definition 5.2.**  $\rho: L_p(\Omega \to \mathbb{R}^+)$ , is a measure of risk coherent. It has the next properties:

• 
$$\rho(X+Y) \le \rho(X) + \rho(Y)X \le Ya.s \Rightarrow \rho(X) \le \rho(Y)$$

• 
$$\rho(cX) = c\rho(X), \forall c > 0 \rho(c+X) = c + \rho(X), \forall c > 0$$

Interpretations:

- (1) Aggregation of risks is beneficial
- (3) Scale invariance (e.g for change of currency)  $X = 0a.s \Rightarrow \rho(0) = 0$

(4) 
$$X = 0a.s \Rightarrow \rho(c) = c + \rho(0)$$
  
  $\Rightarrow \rho(c) = c \text{ from (3)}$ 

#### Example 9. Standard Deviation Principle

$$\rho(X) = \mu_x + K\sigma_x \text{ for some } k > 0, \text{ where } \mu_x = E[X] \text{ and } \sigma_x = var(X)$$

$$(1) \rho(X+Y) = \mu_x + \mu_y + k(\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 + 2\sigma_{xy}), \text{ where } \mu_Y = E[Y], \sigma_Y^2 = var(Y) \text{ and } \sigma_{XY} = cov(X,Y)$$

$$\rho(X) + \rho(Y) = \mu_x + \mu_y + k(\sigma_x + \sigma_y)$$

$$\rho(X+Y) \le \rho(X) + \rho(Y) \Leftrightarrow$$

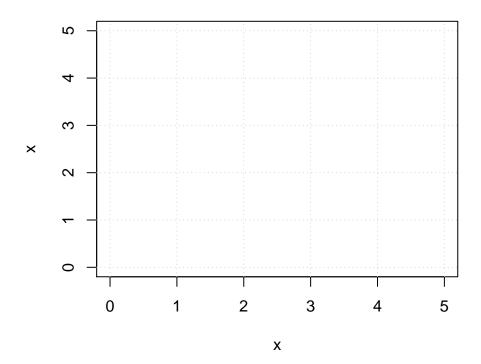
$$(\sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2 + 2\sigma_{XY})^{1/2} \le \sigma_x + \sigma_Y \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2 + 2\sigma_{XY} \le \sigma_x + \sigma_Y + 2\sigma_X\sigma_Y \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\sigma_{XY} \le \sigma_X\sigma_Y$$

Which is true from the Cauchy Schwarz inequality

We can easily show that (3) and (4) hold also



$$\begin{split} & \mu_{x} = 0 \times 0.025 + 4 \times 0.75 = 3 \\ & E[X^{2}] = 0^{2} \times 0.025 + 4^{2} \times 0.75 = 12 \\ & \sigma_{X}^{2} = 12 - 3^{2} = 3 \\ & \mu_{Y} = 4, \sigma_{Y} = 0 \\ & Let \ k = 1, \ then \ \rho(X) \leq \rho(Y) \Leftrightarrow 3 + \sqrt(3) \leq 4 \Leftrightarrow \sqrt(3) \leq 1 \ which \ is \ false. \end{split}$$

**Definition 5.3.** The  $\alpha$  – th value-at-risk (VaR) is the  $\alpha$  – th quantile of the distribution of the loss X,  $\forall \alpha \in (0,1)$ 

The  $\alpha$  – th quantile of the d.f F is any value  $q_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t  $\forall \alpha \in (0,1)$ 

- $F(X) \le \alpha, \forall x < q_{\alpha}$
- $F(x) \ge \alpha \forall x > q_{\alpha}$

If  $q_{\alpha}$  is not unique, one can choose for example:

$$q_{\alpha} = F^{-1}(\alpha) = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} | F(x) \ge \alpha\}$$

Note that (\*) can be re-expressed as  $F(q_{\alpha^{-}}) \leq \alpha$  and  $F(q_{\alpha}) \geq \alpha$  because  $F(q_{\alpha+}) = F(q_{\alpha})$ . The Var is unfortunately not subadditive.

Let Z have d.f  $F_Z$  (strictly) increasing and continuous with  $F_z(1) = 0.91$   $F_z(90) = 0.95$  and  $F_z(100) = 0.96$ 

$$Let \ X = ZI\{Z \leq 100\} \ \ and \ Y = ZI\{Z \geq 100\}. \ \ So \ X + Y = Z(I\{Z \leq 100\} + \{Z > 100\}) = ZI\{Z \leq 100\} + \{Z > 100\} = ZI\{Z \leq 100\} =$$

$$F_x(1) = P[X \le 1|Z \le 100]P[Z \le 100] + P[X \le 1|Z > 100]P[Z > 100]$$
  
=  $P[Z \le 1] + P[Z > 100] = 0.91 + 0.04 = 0.95$ 

Let us check that  $F_x(x)$  is continuous at x = 1 for  $\delta$  sufficiently close to zero.

$$F_x(1+\delta) = P[Z \le 1+\delta] + P[Z > 100]$$
  
=  $F_z(1+\delta) + 0.04$ 

and so  $F_x$  is strictly increasing and continuous at 1.

Defining  $VaR_{\alpha}(U)$  as the  $\alpha$  – th quantile of the random loss U, we have  $VaR_{0.95}(X) = 1$ 

$$F_Y(0) = P[Y \le 0]$$

$$= P[Y \le 0|Z \le 100]P[Z \le 100] + P[Y \le 0|Z > 100]P[Z > 100]$$

$$= P[Z > 200] + P[Z \le 0|Z > 100]P[Z > 100] = 0.96$$

Thus  $VaR_{0.95}(Y) \ge 0$  and so  $VaR_{0.95} + VaR_{0.95}(Y) \le 1 < 90VaR_{0.95}(X+Y)$ 

**Definition 5.4.** The  $\alpha$  – th tile value at risk (TVaR) of the random loss is:

$$TVaR_{\alpha} = E[X|X > q_{\alpha}],$$

where  $q_{\alpha}isthe\alpha - th$  quantile or VaR of X,  $\forall \alpha \in (0,1)$ 

The TVaR makes good use of the information of the tail of the loss distribution and it is coherent. If the d.f of X  $F_X$  is continuous at  $q_\alpha$  then

$$TVaR_{\alpha}(X) = \frac{\int_{q_{\alpha}}^{\infty} x dF_{x}(x)}{1 - F_{x}(q_{\alpha})}$$
$$= \frac{\int_{q_{\alpha}}^{\infty} x dF_{x}(x)}{1 - \alpha}$$

If  $F_x$  is continuous and strictly increasing, then:

$$\int_{q_{\alpha}}^{\infty} x dF_x(x) = \int_{\alpha}^{1} F_x^{(-1)}(u) du$$

$$= \int_{\alpha}^{1} V a R_u(X) du \quad (F_x(x) = u, x = F_x^{(-1)}(u))$$
Thus  $TV a R_{\alpha}(X) = \frac{\int_{\alpha}^{1} V a R_u(X)}{1 - \alpha}$ 

which is the average of  $VaR_u$  for  $u \in [\alpha, 1)$ 

$$TVaR(X) = ex(q_{\alpha}) + q_{\alpha}$$

Example 10. 
$$X \sim Exponential(\theta)$$
  $F(x)=1-e^{-\theta x}=u \Leftrightarrow -\frac{1}{\theta}log(1-u)=x$  so  $VaR_{\alpha(X)=q_{\alpha}=-\frac{1}{\theta}log(1-\alpha)}$   $ex(a)=E[X]=\frac{1}{\theta}, \ \forall a\geq 0$   $TVaR_{\alpha}(X)=\frac{1}{\theta}-\frac{1}{\theta}log(1-\alpha)=\frac{1}{\theta}\{1-log(1-\alpha)\}$ 

**Example 11.**  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^{\in})$   $VaR_{\alpha(X)} = \mu + \sigma\Phi^{(-1)}(\alpha)$ , where  $\Phi$  is the d.f of  $\mathcal{N}(\prime, \infty)$  If  $\Phi = \Phi'$ , then

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\infty} x \Phi(x) dx = -\int_{a}^{\infty} \Phi'(x) dx = -[0 - \Phi(a)] = \Phi(a)$$

X has density  $\frac{1}{\sigma}\Phi(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma})$ 

$$TVaR_{\alpha}(X) = \frac{\int_{q_{\alpha}}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{\sigma} \Phi(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}) dx}{1-\alpha}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \int_{\frac{q_{\alpha}-\mu}{\sigma}}^{\infty} (\mu + \sigma y) \frac{1}{\sigma} \phi(y) \sigma dy \quad (y = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}, \mu + \sigma y = x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \{ \mu [1 - \phi \circ \phi^{-1}(\alpha)] + \sigma \int_{\phi^{(-1)}(\alpha)}^{\infty} y \phi(y) dy \}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \{ \mu (1-\alpha) + \sigma \phi \phi^{(-1)(\alpha)} \}$$

$$= \mu + \frac{\sigma}{1-\alpha} \phi \circ \phi^{-1}(\alpha)$$

# 6 Birth Processes

$$p_{k,k+n}(s,t) = P[N_t - N_s = n | N_s = k]$$

transition probability

$$p_{k,k+n}(t,t+h) = \begin{cases} 1 - \lambda_k(t) + o(h) & if n = 0\\ \lambda_k(t)h + o(h) & if n = 1\\ o(h) & if n = 2, 3, \dots \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 6.0.1.** The transition probabilities  $\{p_{k,k+n}(s,t)\}$  of the non homogeneus birth process are  $\forall 0 \leq s < t, K \geq 0$  and  $n \geq 1$ ,

$$p_{k,k}(s,t) = exp\{-\int_s^t \lambda_k(x)dx\}$$

and

$$p_{k,k+n}(s,t) = \int_{s}^{t} \lambda_{k+n-1}(y) p_{k,k+n-1}(s,y) exp\{-\int_{y}^{t} \lambda_{k+n}(x) dx\} dy$$

A sufficient condition for  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p_{k,k+n}(s,t) = 1 \ \forall 0 \leq s < t, \ k \geq 0$  is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\max_{t>0} \lambda_k(t)} = \infty$$

**Corollary 6.0.1.1.** The homogeneus Poisson process, which is obtained by  $\lambda_0(t) = \lambda_1(t) = ... = \lambda > 0$  has transition probabilities

$$p_{k,k+n}(s,t) = e^{-\lambda(t-s)} \frac{\{\lambda(t-s)\}^n}{n!} \quad \forall 0 > t, k, n \ge 0$$

*Proof.* This is clear for n = 0. Assume the formula true for n - 1, then

$$\begin{aligned} p_{k,k+n}(s,t) &= \int_{s}^{t} \lambda e^{-\lambda(y-s)} \frac{\{\lambda(y-s)\}^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} exp\{-\int_{y}^{t} \lambda dx\} dy \\ &= \int_{s}^{t} \lambda^{n} e^{-\lambda(y-s)-\lambda(t-y)} \frac{(y-s)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} dy \\ &= \frac{\lambda^{n} e^{-\lambda(t-s)}}{(n-1)!} \int_{s}^{t} (y-s)^{n-1} dy \\ &= e^{-\lambda(t-s)} \frac{\{\lambda(t-s)^{n}\}}{n!} \end{aligned}$$

Corollary 6.0.1.2. The non homogeneus Poisson process, which is obtained by  $\lambda_0(t) = \lambda_1(t) = \dots = \lambda(t)$  has transition probabilities

$$p_{k,k+n}(s,t) = exp\{-\int_s^t \lambda(x)dx\} \frac{\{\int_s^t \lambda(x)dx\}^n}{n!} \quad \forall 0 \le s < t, \ k, n \ge 0$$

One can for example compute the expected number of claims during (s,t) as  $\int_s^t \lambda(x)dx$ . The increments are no longer stationary but still independent.

Birth processes with contagion can be used when the increments are desired dependent. We consider

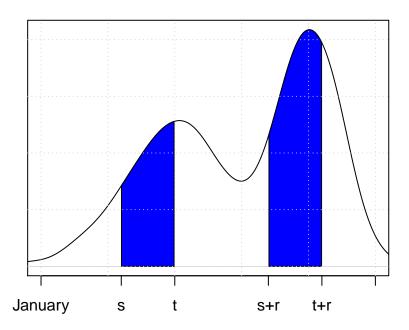
$$\lambda_k(t) = \alpha + \beta k \quad with \quad \alpha > 0$$

 $\beta \neq 0 \ \ \textit{satisfies} \ \alpha + \beta k \geq 0 \quad \ \textit{for} \ \ k = 0, 1, \dots$ 

These processes are homogeneus.

**Corollary 6.0.1.3.** THe transition probability of a contagious birth process are given by:

$$p_{k,k+n}(s,t) = {\binom{\alpha}{\beta} + k + n - 1 \choose n} e^{-(\alpha + \beta k)(t-s)}$$
$$\{1 - e^{-\beta(t-s)}\}^n$$



Reminder

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} \frac{[x]_k}{k!} & if k = 1, 2, \dots \\ 1 & if k = 0 \\ 0, & if k = -1, -2, \dots \end{cases}$$

$$[x]_k = x(x-1)\dots(x-k-1)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x-1 \\ n \end{pmatrix} = \frac{n+1}{x} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ n+1 \end{pmatrix}$$

When n = 0  $p_{k,k(s,t)=e^{(\alpha+\beta k)(t-s)}}$ , assume the formula true for n, then:

$$\begin{split} p_{k,k+n+1}(s,t) &= \int_{s}^{t} \{\alpha + \beta(k+n)\} \binom{\frac{\alpha}{\beta} + k + n - 1}{n} e^{-(\alpha + \beta k)(y-s)} \{1 - e^{-\beta(y-s)}\}^{n} \\ &= \binom{\frac{\alpha}{\beta} + k + n}{n+1} \frac{n+1}{\frac{\alpha}{\beta} + k + n} \{\alpha + \beta(k+n)\} e^{-(\alpha + \beta k)(y-s)} e^{-(\alpha + \beta k)(t-y)} \\ &= \binom{\frac{\alpha}{\beta} + k + n}{n+1} \beta(n+1) e^{-(+\beta k)(t-s)} \int_{s}^{t} \{e^{-\beta(t-y)} - e^{-\beta(t-s)}\}^{n} e^{-\beta(t-y)} dy \end{split}$$

.....

# 7 Risk Process

The following quantities are required to define the risk process  $X_1, X_2, ...$  are independent individual losses or claim amounts (non-negativa r.v) with distribution function F and expectation  $\mu$  finite.

 $K_t$  is the number of individual claims occurring during [0,t]  $\forall t \geq 0$ .  $\{K_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  is a birth process independent of  $\{X\}_{t\geq 1}$ .

The total loss or claim amount is  $Z_t = \sum_{k=0}^{K_t} X_k$  where  $X_0 = 0$ .

Let  $r_o \geq 0$  be the initial capital of the insurance and c > 0 be the premium rate (assumed constant), the

$$Y_t = r_0 + ct - Z_t, \forall t \ge 0$$

is the risk process.

Let  $T_k$  be the time of the k-th claim, thus.

$$T_k = \inf\{t \ge 0 | K_t \ge k\}$$

for k = 0, 1, ...

Let  $D_k = T_k - T_{k-1}$  for k = 1, 2, ... be the interclaim times.

If  $D_1, D_2, ...$  are i.i.d, then  $\{T_k\}_{k\geq 0}$  or  $\{K_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  are called renewal processes.

For example, if  $\{K_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  is the homogeneous Poisson process with rate  $\lambda > 0$ , the  $D_1, D_2, ...$  are independent exponential (),  $(\lambda e^{-\lambda x})$  is the density.

We focus on renewal conting process. In this case we define

$$\rho = \frac{E[X_1]}{E[D_1]}$$

For the Poisson process

$$E[D_1] = \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_0^\infty x \lambda e^{-\lambda x} d(x\lambda)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\lambda} \Gamma(2)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

 $\rho = \frac{E[X_1]}{E[D_1]} = \lambda \mu$ , we define the **security loading** (Siche heitszuschlag)

$$\beta = \frac{c - \rho}{\rho}$$

Let  $t^{\dagger}$  be any time horizon, then

$$\Psi(r_0, t^{\dagger}) = P[inf_{0 \le t \le t^{\dagger}} Y_t < 0]$$

is the probability of ruin in the finite time horizon  $[0, t^{\dagger}]$ 

$$\psi(r_o) = \lim_{t^{\dagger} \to \infty} \psi(r_0, t^{\dagger})$$
$$= P[inf_{0 < t < \infty} Y_t < 0]$$

Is the probability of ruin in infinite time horizon or simply the probability of ruin. We define the

time of first ruin as 
$$T = \begin{cases} \inf\{t \ge 0 | Y_t < 0\} & if the infimum is finitek \\ \infty & otherwise \end{cases} Thus \psi(r_0, t^{\dagger}) = P[T \le t^{\dagger}] \xrightarrow{t^{\dagger} \to \infty} \psi(r_0)$$

 $\psi(r_0) < 1 \Rightarrow T$  has a defective distribution.

Some possible generalization of the basic risk process (of Lundberg). A Wiener Process is a stochastic process  $\{W_t\}_{t>0}$  with  $W_0=0$  a.s, with continuous sample paths a.s, with independent increments and with  $W_t - W_s \sim N(0, t - s) \quad \forall 0 \le s < t < \infty$ 

It is tiically used to add noise to a stochastic process.

$$Y_t = r_0 + cct - Z_t + \sigma W_t \quad \forall t \ge 0$$

perturbed risk process.

$$Y_t = r_0 + ct - Z_t + \int_0^t Y_s ds,$$

where r is the fixed interest rate.

$$Y_t = r_0 + ct - Z_t + \int_0^t Y_s dR_s \ \forall t \ge 0$$

where  $\{R_t\}$  is the stochastic process of the interest rates  $(R_s = r \text{ gives the previous case})$ . We can also consider the inhomogeneous Poisson process.

**Theorem 7.0.1.** Consider the renewal risk process, then  $\beta < 0 \Rightarrow \psi(r_0) = 1$ 

*Proof.* FOr n = 1, 2, ...,

$$Y_{T_n} = r_0 + cT_n - Z_{T_n}$$

$$= r_0 + c\sum_{k=1}^n D_k - \sum_{k=1}^{K_{T_n}} X_k$$

$$= r_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n V_k, \text{ where }$$

$$V_k = cD_k - X_k, fork = 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\frac{Y_{T_n}}{n} \xrightarrow{a.s} E[V_1]$$

from the strong law of large numbers

$$Y_{T_n} \xrightarrow{a.s} sgnE[V_1].\infty$$

.

$$\beta < 0 \Leftrightarrow c < \rho$$

$$\Leftrightarrow c < \frac{E[X_1]}{E[D_1]}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow cE[D_1] - E[X_1] < 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow E[V_1] < 0$$

Thus  $Y_{T_n} \xrightarrow{a.s} -\infty$ , which means that  $\{Y_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  downcrosses the null line a.s, viz  $\psi(r_0=1)$ . Note that  $E[D_1] < \infty$  is an assumption of the definition of the renewal process.

We will now show in detail that in compound Poisson risk process  $\frac{Z_t}{t} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \rho$  ( $ast \to \infty$ ) and  $\psi(r_0) = 1$ , if  $\beta \le 0$ .

We define the loss process as  $L_t = Z_t - ct$