

# Regulatory Capital Alpha Factor

Gabriel Magill

2020-06-06

## 1 Theorems and Definitions

In the following, we assume all the conditions needed for these statements to be true are satisfied.

Random Variable	$X$
Joint Probability	$\begin{aligned} P(X, Y) \\ &= P(X \cap Y) \\ &= P(X Y)P(Y) \\ &= P(Y X)P(X) \end{aligned}$
$X$ independent of $Y$	$\begin{aligned} &\Leftrightarrow P(X \cap Y) = P(X)P(Y) \\ &\Leftrightarrow P(X Y) = P(X) \end{aligned}$
Expectation Value	$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_i x_i P(X = x_i) \equiv \sum_i x_i P(x_i)$
Multivariate Expectation Value	$\mathbb{E}[XY] = \sum_{i,j} x_i y_j P(x_i, y_j)$
Conditional Expectation	$\mathbb{E}[X Y = y] = \sum_i x_i P(x_i y)$
Probability Chain Rule	$P(X \cap (YZ)) = P(X YZ)P(YZ)$
Completeness	$\sum_i P(X = x_i) = 1$
Law of total probability	$P(Y) = \sum_i P(Y, x_i)$

## 2 Motivation

In Basel 2, risk weighted assets (RWA) is the typical amount of the money a counterparty may owe you at some point in the future, accounting for the probability that the counterparty defaults. Under the advanced internal ratings based (AIRB) method, it's calculated as follows:

$$RWA = EAD \times (WCDR-PD) \times LGD \times MA \quad (1)$$

Alpha shows up in both standardized and internal OTC EAD formulas:

$$EAD_{SACCR} = \alpha \cdot (RC + PFE) \quad (2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} EAD_{IMM} &= \alpha \cdot \text{Effective EPE} \\ \text{Effective EPE} &= \sum_{k=1}^{\min(1\text{year}, \text{maturity})} \text{Effective EE}_{t_k} \times \Delta t_k \\ \text{Effective EE}_{t_k} &= \max(\text{Effective EE}_{t_{k-1}}, \text{EE}_{t_k}) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

In the IMM and SACCR EAD,  $\alpha$  is typically set to 1.4. However, what does  $\alpha$  represent, and why do we need it? The following notes attempt to derive RWA capital (denoted below as expectation value of Loss), and outlines the assumptions which give rise to  $\alpha$ .

## 3 Alpha Derivation (1 counterparty)

Let  $T$  be some future time. Let  $D = \{0, 1\}$  indicate whether the counterparty has defaulted (1) or not (0) at time  $T$ . Let  $E$  be the exposure at time  $T$ . Exposure measures how much money the counterparty owes us, and is defined as  $E = \text{Max}(M, 0)$ . Here  $M$  is the value of the portfolio where a positive number means they owe us and a negative number means we owe them. Note that  $E$  and  $D$  at future time  $T$  are both random variables governed by some probability distribution function. Putting all this together, the amount of money we lose at future time  $T$  is:

$$L = D \cdot E \quad (4)$$

In the equation above, we assumed that the loss given default (LGD) is 1, meaning we lose 100% of what we are owed.

Let's now calculate the expectation value of  $L$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[L] &= \mathbb{E}[D \cdot E] \\
&= \sum_{i,k} e_i d_k P(d_k, e_i) \\
&= \sum_{i,k} e_i d_k P(d_k|e_i) P(e_i)
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

Let's *assume* that the dependence of defaults on exposure can be captured by a constant fudge factor  $\alpha$ . This can be loosely motivated by using Bayes' theorem:

$$\begin{aligned}
P(d|e) &= \frac{P(e|d)}{P(e)} P(d) \\
&\approx \alpha P(d)
\end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

Saying that  $\alpha$  is constant in the equation above violates conservation of probability, but let's call this a minor inconvenience and press onwards. Eq. 5 can then be approximated as

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[L] &\approx \sum_{i,k} e_i d_k \alpha P(d_k) P(e_i) \\
&= \left[ \sum_i \alpha e_i P(e_i) \right] \left[ \sum_k d_k P(d_k) \right] \\
&\equiv \text{EAD} \cdot \text{PD}
\end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

Since Eq. 5 approximately equals Eq. 7, we can express  $\alpha$  as:

$$\alpha = \frac{\sum_{i,k} e_i d_k P(d_k|e_i) P(e_i)}{[\sum_i e_i P(e_i)] [\sum_k d_k P(d_k)]} \tag{8}$$

Therefore,  $\alpha$  accounts for the correlation between default probabilities and exposures in the regulatory capital calculation.

## 4 Alpha Derivation (N counterparties)

Let's assume  $N = 2$ . The general  $N$  case will trivially follow based on the assumptions we will make.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[L] &= \mathbb{E}[(D \cdot E)_{\text{cpty A}} + (D \cdot E)'_{\text{cpty B}}] \\
&= \sum_{i,j,k,l} (e_i d_k + e'_j d'_l) P(d_k, d'_l, e_i, e'_j) \\
&= \sum_{i,j,k,l} (e_i d_k + e'_j d'_l) P(d_k, d'_l | e_i, e'_j) P(e_i, e'_j) \\
&= \sum_{i,j,k,l} e_i d_k P(d_k, d'_l | e_i, e'_j) P(e_i, e'_j) + \sum_{i,j,k,l} e'_j d'_l P(d_k, d'_l | e_i, e'_j) P(e_i, e'_j)
\end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

Let's now make a number of assumptions:

1. Exposures of A and B are independent:  $P(e, e') = P(e)P(e')$
2. Defaults of A and B are independent conditional on exposures:  $P(d, d' | e, e') = P(d | e, e')P(d' | e, e')$
3.  $\alpha_A$  correlates defaults of A on exposures of A and B:  $P(d | e, e') \approx \alpha_A P(d)$
4.  $\alpha$  is universal:  $\alpha_A = \alpha_B = \alpha$

Using all of these strong assumptions, Eq. 9 becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[L] &\approx \sum_{i,j,k,l} e_i d_k P(d_k | e_i e'_j) P(d'_l | e_i e'_j) P(e_i) P(e'_j) + \sum_{i,j,k,l} e'_j d'_l P(d_k | e_i e'_j) P(d'_l | e_i e'_j) P(e_i) P(e'_j) \\
&= \sum_{i,j,k,l} e_i d_k \alpha P(d_k) P(d'_l | e_i e'_j) P(e_i) P(e'_j) + \sum_{i,j,k,l} e'_j d'_l P(d_k | e_i e'_j) \alpha P(d'_l) P(e_i) P(e'_j) \\
&= \sum_{i,k} \alpha e_i P(e_i) d_k P(d_k) \sum_{j,l} P(d'_l | e_i e'_j) P(e'_j) + \sum_{j,l} \alpha e'_j P(e'_j) d'_l P(d'_l) \sum_{i,k} P(d_k | e_i e'_j) P(e_i) \\
&= \sum_{i,k} \alpha e_i P(e_i) d_k P(d_k) + \sum_{j,l} \alpha e'_j P(e'_j) d'_l P(d'_l) \\
&= (EAD \cdot PD)_{\text{cpty A}} + (EAD \cdot PD)'_{\text{cpty B}}
\end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

In the fourth line above, we have used completeness property of probabilities. Since Eq. 9 approximately equals Eq. 10, we can express  $\alpha$  in the general case as:

$$\alpha = \frac{\sum_{i,j,k,l} (e_i d_k + e'_j d'_l) P(d_k, d'_l, e_i, e'_j)}{\sum_{i,k} e_i P(e_i) d_k P(d_k) + \sum_{j,l} e'_j P(e'_j) d'_l P(d'_l)} \tag{11}$$

The extension to N counterparties follows naturally.

## 5 Correlating Exposures and Defaults

We've derived  $\alpha$  in terms of a joint probability distribution of exposures and defaults. In practice, how do we correlate these two observables? To do so, we need to introduce the framework of copulas, Rieman-Stieltjes integrals and multivariate normal distributions.

We begin by introducing two independent random variables  $M$  and  $Z_i$ , such that  $M \sim N(0, 1)$  and  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ . This means that  $M$  and  $Z_i$  are sampled from a Gaussian distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Let's construct a new variable  $X_i$ :

$$X_i = \sqrt{\rho}M + \sqrt{1 - \rho}Z_i \quad (12)$$

This is the usual procedure done in John Hull for example, where  $X_i$  is typically thought of as the asset returns for portfolio  $i$ ,  $M$  is a systemic factor affecting all portfolios, and  $Z_i$  is an idiosyncratic factor affecting only  $i$ . Let's explore the properties of  $X_i$ . Given a variable  $y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , one can prove that  $ay + b \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$ . Therefore,  $\sqrt{\rho}M$  and  $\sqrt{1 - \rho}Z_i$  are also normally distributed. It's also true that the sum of two normally distributed random variables results in a normally distributed variable  $X_i$ . So what is the mean and standard deviation of  $X_i$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} E(X_i) &= E(\sqrt{\rho}M + \sqrt{1 - \rho}Z_i) \\ &= \sqrt{\rho}E(M) + \sqrt{1 - \rho}E(Z_i) \\ &= 0 + 0 \\ &= 0 \\ Var(X_i) &\equiv cov(X_i, X_i) \\ &= E((X_i - E(X_i))(X_i - E(X_i))) \\ &= E(X_i X_i) \\ &= E(\rho M^2 + 2\sqrt{\rho(1 - \rho)}MZ_i + (1 - \rho)Z_i^2) \\ &= \rho E(M^2) + 2\sqrt{\rho(1 - \rho)}E(M)E(Z_i) + (1 - \rho)E(Z_i^2) \\ &= \rho \cdot 1 + 0 + (1 - \rho) \cdot 1 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

In the above, we have used the independence of  $M$  and  $Z_i$ , as well as the fact that the variance of  $M$  is 1. Therefore,  $X_i \sim N(0, 1)$  as well. Doing the equivalent calculation between  $X_i$  and  $X_j$ , one obtains  $cov(X_i, X_j) = \rho \equiv \Sigma_{ij}$  for  $i \neq j$ . According to these *notes*, we can convince ourselves that the collection of  $X_i$  forms a normal random vector, with Cholesky Decomposition  $\Sigma = AA^T$ .

Now, let's classify a default as when  $X_i < \bar{x}_i$ , for some threshold  $\bar{x}_i$ . Denoting  $\phi$  as the

normal CDF, the probability of this happening is:

$$P(X_i < \bar{x}_i) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 1(X_i < \bar{x}_i) d\phi(x) \quad (14)$$

The integral above is the Rieman-Stieltjes (RS) integral. Given a function  $f$  and a CDF  $g$ , the RS integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) dg(x) \quad (15)$$

is to be calculated by taking the limit

$$S(P, f, g) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} f(c_j)[g(x_{j+1}) - g(x_j)] \quad (16)$$

when the norm of the partition (i.e. length of longest  $x_{j+1} - x_j$  subinterval) tends to 0. The  $\{x_j\}$  endpoints are the partition, and  $c_j \in [x_j, x_{j+1}]$ .

Applying this sum to our example for a given partition  $P$  which includes  $\bar{x}_i$  as one of the endpoints, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_i < \bar{x}_i) &\equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 1(X_i < \bar{x}_i) d\phi(x) \\ &= (\phi(x_1) - \phi(x_0)) + (\phi(x_2) - \phi(x_1)) + \cdots + (\phi(\bar{x}_i) - \phi(x_l)) \\ &= \phi(\bar{x}_i) - \phi(x_0) \\ &= \phi(\bar{x}_i) - \phi(-\infty) \\ &= \phi(\bar{x}_i) \\ &\equiv q \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

This is true when we shrink the partition size to 0. In the above, we used the fact that the terms in the telescoping sum cancel out, that  $f(c)$  is 0 when  $c > \bar{x}_i$ , and that  $\phi(-\infty) = 0$  since  $\phi$  is a CDF.

Let's now revisit our derivation of  $P(X_i < \bar{x}_i)$ , but let's consider  $X_i$  to be as in Eq. 12. In particular, let's fix  $M = m$ . By doing this,  $X \sim N(0, 1)$  is no longer true. We have instead  $X \sim N(\sqrt{\rho}m, 1 - \rho)$ . We now want to calculate:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_i(Z_i) < \bar{x}_i | M = m) &= P(\sqrt{\rho}m + \sqrt{1 - \rho}Z_i < \bar{x}_i | M = m) \\ &= P\left(Z_i < \frac{\bar{x}_i - \sqrt{\rho}m}{\sqrt{1 - \rho}} | M = m\right) \\ &= \phi\left(\frac{\bar{x}_i - \sqrt{\rho}m}{\sqrt{1 - \rho}}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

where in the last line, we have used the fact that  $Z_i \sim N(0, 1)$  (similar to the derivation in Eq. 17). Now, this probability depends on  $m$ , which came from a random variable. Let's now ask what is the value of  $P(X_i(Z_i) < \bar{x}_i | M = m)$ , averaged over all values of  $m$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
E_m(P(X_i(Z_i) < \bar{x}_i | M = m)) &= E_m \left( \phi \left( \frac{\bar{x}_i - \sqrt{\rho}m}{\sqrt{1-\rho}} \right) \right) \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi \left( \frac{\bar{x}_i - \sqrt{\rho}m}{\sqrt{1-\rho}} \right) d\phi(m) \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi \left( \frac{\bar{x}_i - \sqrt{\rho}m}{\sqrt{1-\rho}} \right) \phi'(m) dm \quad (\text{since } \phi \text{ is continuous}) \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi \left( \frac{\bar{x}_i - \sqrt{\rho}m}{\sqrt{1-\rho}} \right) \frac{e^{-m^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} dm \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\frac{\bar{x}_i - \sqrt{\rho}m}{\sqrt{1-\rho}}} \frac{e^{-y^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{e^{-m^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} dy dm \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\bar{x}_i} \frac{e^{-z^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} dz \\
&= \phi(\bar{x}_i)
\end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

We obtain the same thing as in 17! This is somewhat surprising, but not really if you think about it. Note that to show that the  $dy dm$  integral equals the  $dz$  integral, one can take a derivative of each line with respect to  $\bar{x}_i$  and use the fundamental theorem of calculus & chain rule. It will then be fairly easy to show equality. This means that the un-differentiated lines are equal up to a constant independent of  $\bar{x}_i$ . You can then take  $\bar{x}_i = \infty$  to show that the constant is 0.

Let's define:

$$\begin{aligned}
g(m) &= P(X_i(Z_i) < \bar{x}_i | M = m) - E_m(P(X_i(Z_i) < \bar{x}_i | M = m)) \\
&= \phi \left( \frac{\bar{x}_i - \sqrt{\rho}m}{\sqrt{1-\rho}} \right) - \phi(\bar{x}_i)
\end{aligned} \tag{20}$$

By construction and also by the proofs above,  $E_m g(m) = 0$ . Since  $M \sim N(0, 1)$ , it is true that in 99% of samples,  $M > \phi^{-1}(0.01) = \inf(v : \phi(v) \geq 0.01)$ . Since  $\phi$  is monotonic, we have that in 99% of cases,

$$\begin{aligned}
g(m) &< g(\phi^{-1}(0.01)) \quad (99\% \text{ CL}) \\
&\equiv WCDR - PD
\end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

where  $PD = \phi(\bar{x}_i)$ . This is the term that shows up in the RWA capital. Instead of WCDR-PD, one could have defined this measure of default in many other ways, and it's unclear why they chose to subtract PD.

## 6 Copulas

In practice, we don't measure probability of defaults according to  $X_i$ , but rather according to  $T$ . So we introduce  $F_i(T_i)$ , which is the marginal CDF that the counterparty hasn't defaulted by time  $T_i$ . So how do we relate  $F_i(T_i)$  to all the previous formalism? Copulas (see *notes*).

**Copula:** A  $d$ -dimensional copula,  $C : [0, 1]^d \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is a cumulative distribution function (CDF) with uniform marginals.

**Sklar's theorem:** Consider a  $d$ -dimensional CDF,  $F_N$ , with marginals  $F_1, \dots, F_n$ . Then there exists a copula,  $C$ , such that  $F_N(t_1, \dots, t_n) = C(F_1(t_1), \dots, F_n(t_n))$  for all  $x_i \in [-\infty, \infty]$  and  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . If  $F_i$  is continuous for all  $i$ , then  $C$  is unique.

So a copula is just a function with  $n$  arguments (the marginal CDFs) that completely determine the  $d$ -dimensional CDF. This is simple to understand, but surprising that it's true. Let's assume that the full joint multivariate non-normal distribution of  $t$  is given by  $F_N(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  and is continuous, and the full multivariate normal distribution of  $X_i$  is given by  $\phi_N(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  (this *is* continuous). Let's make a bold assumption that the copula of  $F_N$  and the copula of  $\phi_N$  are equal. We also introduce  $u_i = F_i(t_i)$ . We then have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_F(T_1 < t_1, \dots, T_n < t_n) &\equiv F_N(t_1, \dots, t_n) \\
 &= F_N(F_1^{-1}(u_1), \dots, F_n^{-1}(u_n)) \\
 &= C_F(u_1, \dots, u_n) \\
 &= C_\phi(u_1, \dots, u_n) \\
 &= \phi_N(\phi_1^{-1}(u_1), \dots, \phi_n^{-1}(u_n)) \\
 &\equiv P_\phi(X_1 < \phi^{-1}(u_1), \dots, X_n < \phi_n^{-1}(u_n))
 \end{aligned} \tag{22}$$

We don't know what  $P_\phi(X_1 < \phi^{-1}(u_1), \dots, X_n < \phi_n^{-1}(u_n))$  is in general since  $X_i$  are correlated to each other through  $M$ . However, conditional on  $M = m$ , the various  $X_i(m)$  are now independent from each other. Therefore

$$P_\phi(X_1 < \phi^{-1}(u_1), \dots, X_n < \phi_n^{-1}(u_n) | M = m) = \prod_i P_{\phi_i}(X_i < \phi^{-1}(u_i) | M = m) \tag{23}$$

and finally

$$P_\phi(X_1 < \phi^{-1}(u_1), \dots, X_n < \phi_n^{-1}(u_n)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \prod_i^n P_{\phi_i}(X_i < \phi^{-1}(u_i) | M = m) d\phi(m) \tag{24}$$



## 7 Simulations

Going back to  $\alpha$  in Eq. 11, we want to properly calculate the numerator  $(e_i d_k + e'_j d'_l) P(d_k, d'_l, e_i, e'_j)$ .

We can approach this as follows under the N-factor model.

Let  $X_i = \frac{e_i - \mu(e_i)}{\sigma(e_i)}$  where  $e_i$  is our exposure to counterparty  $i$ . Let  $M \rightarrow M_j$  be the returns on stock markets and CDS indices labelled by  $j$ ,  $\sqrt{\rho} \rightarrow a_{ij}$  be the correlation between  $e_i$  and  $M_j$ ,  $\bar{x}_i = \phi^{-1}(PD) = \phi^{-1}(F_i(t_i))$  be the historical PD of this counterparty (based on credit rating). Assume our simulation is a monte carlo that simulates certain risks factors (FX rates, IR rates, etc) according to a scenario  $s$  at future time steps  $t$  and re-values the portfolio to obtain  $e(s, t)$ . If the MC also simulate  $M_j = m(s, t)$ , then for each  $s$  and  $t$ , we can multiply  $e(s, t)$  by

$$P_\phi(X_1 < \phi^{-1}(u_1), \dots, X_n < \phi_n^{-1}(u_n) | M = m(s, t)) \quad (25)$$

We can then proceed to aggregate these probability weighted  $e(s, t)$  exposures. To capture the WCDR, the correlations  $a_i$  and historical default probabilities  $PD_i$  can be calibrated according to historical stress periods.

## 8 Correlating Defaults and Loss

Let  $D = \{0, 1\}$  be an indicator function denoting whether a counterparty has defaulted between now and future time  $T$ . Let  $0 \leq L \leq 1$  be the loss incurred during the counterparty default in terms of our exposure at default<sup>1</sup>. By convention, for a non-defaulted counterparty,  $L \equiv 0$ . Both  $L$  and  $D$  are random variables. Given a fixed  $T$ , we are interested in calculating  $E(LD)$ , where the average is taken over all counterparties within a specific segment (geography, etc). Using the definition of covariance, we can generally write:

$$E(L \cdot D) = \text{cov}(L, D) + E(L) \cdot E(D) \quad (26)$$

We first begin by calculating the covariance analytically using the sample covariance. We will then derive a generic bound on the covariance using the idempotent property of  $D$ .

Let us denote

- $N_D$  as the number of defaulted counterparties
- $N_{ND}$  as the number of non-defaulted counterparties
- $N = N_D + N_{ND}$  as the total number of counterparties
- $\bar{D} \equiv \text{PD} = \sum D_i / N$  as the probability of default between time 0 and  $T$
- $\bar{L} = \sum L_i / N$  as the average  $L$  over all counterparties
- $\text{LGD} = \sum_{\text{defaulted cpty}} L_i / N_D$  as the mean of  $L$  averaged only over the defaulted counterparties

Using these definitions, the covariance is given as follows:

---

<sup>1</sup>It is actually possible that  $L > 1$ , meaning we lose more money than what the defaulting counterparty owes us (lawyer fees, etc).

$$\begin{aligned}
cov(L, D) &= \frac{1}{N-1} \sum (L_i - \bar{L})(D_i - \bar{D}) \\
&= \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{\text{defaulted cpty}} (L_i - \bar{L})(D_i - \bar{D}) + \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{\text{non-defaulted cpty}} (L_i - \bar{L})(D_i - \bar{D}) \\
&= \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{\text{defaulted cpty}} (L_i - \bar{L})(1 - \bar{D}) + \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{\text{non-defaulted cpty}} (0 - \bar{L})(0 - \bar{D}) \\
&= (1 - \bar{D}) \cdot \frac{N_D}{N-1} (\text{LGD} - \bar{L}) + \bar{L} \cdot \bar{D} \cdot \frac{N_{ND}}{N-1} \\
&= \frac{N_D}{N-1} \cdot (1 - \text{PD}) \cdot (\text{LGD} - \bar{L}) + \frac{N_{ND}}{N-1} \cdot \text{PD} \cdot \bar{L}
\end{aligned} \tag{27}$$

Even though we have a closed form formula, it may be useful to derive an upper bound on the covariance. Using Cauchy-Schwarz, we have:

$$cov(L, D) \leq \sqrt{var(L) \cdot var(D)} \tag{28}$$

For an idempotent variable ( $D^2 = D$ ), the variance can be analytically calculated:

$$\begin{aligned}
var(D) &= E(D^2) - E(D)^2 \\
&= E(D) - E(D)^2 \\
&= \text{PD} - \text{PD}^2
\end{aligned} \tag{29}$$

Unfortunately, no such analytic results can be obtained for  $L$  (to our knowledge), and one would need to measure it empirically. We therefore have:

$$cov(L, D) \leq \sqrt{var(L) \cdot \text{PD}(1 - \text{PD})} \tag{30}$$

For total simplicity, it may be of interest to conservatively estimate  $E(L \cdot D)$ . One can achieve this by considering an adjustment factor  $A$ . Given Eq. 27,  $A$  can be chosen large enough to satisfy the following:

$$\begin{aligned}
E(L \cdot D) &= cov(L, D) + E(L) \cdot E(D) \\
&\leq A \cdot E(L) \cdot E(D)
\end{aligned} \tag{31}$$