Estimating Operational Risk Capital with Greater Accuracy, Precision, and Robustness

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# **Disclaimer**

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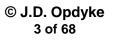




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# **1. Presentation Goals**

- I. Demonstrate that Jensen's Inequality is the apparent source of systematically inflated operational risk capital estimates under the most common implementations of Basel II/III's AMA-LDA, and that this bias often is very large: hundreds of \$millions, and sometimes \$billions at the unit-of-measure level.
- II. Develop a Reduced-bias Capital Estimator (RCE) that i) dramatically mitigates this capital overstatement, ii) notably increases the precision of the capital estimate, and iii) consistently increases its robustness to violations of the (unsupported) i.i.d. presumption. With capital accuracy, precision, and robustness greater than any other current LDA implementation, RCE arguably would unambiguously improve the most widespread OpRisk Capital Estimation Framework, and would be the most consistent with regulatory intent vis-à-vis an unbiased and more stable implementation under Basel II/III's AMA.





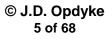
# **Operational Risk**

└─ Basel II/III

# — Advanced Measurement Approaches (AMA) — Risk Measurement & Capital Estimation — Loss Distribution Approach (LDA) — Frequency Distribution Severity Distribution\* — Aggregate Loss Distribution

\* For purposes of this presentation, and as is widespread practice, potential dependence between the frequency and severity distributions is ignored. See Chernobai, Rachev, and Fabozzi (2007) and Ergashev (2008).







# 2. AMA–LDA OpRisk Capital Defined

- A la Basel II/III, Operational Risk Capital for large banks/SIFIs must be estimated with an Advanced Measurement Approaches (AMA) framework.
- In writing, AMA provides great flexibility, but in practice, there has been industry convergence to the Loss Distribution Approach (LDA).
- Under LDA, severity and frequency distributions representing the magnitude and number of OpRisk loss events, respectively, are estimated based on samples of OpRisk loss event data.
- The severity and frequency distributions are convoluted (rarely in closed form) to obtain the Aggregate Loss Distribution.
- Estimated Capital is a VaR of the Aggregate Loss Distribution: specifically, the quantile associated with its 99.9%tile, or the 1-in-1000 year loss, on average. Capital is estimated for every cell of data (or "Unit-of-Measure" (UoM), typically defined by Line of Business and Event Type) and then aggregated to the enterprise level via dependence modeling. The focus in this presentation is UoM-level capital.
- In practice, frequency parameters have very little effect on estimated capital, which is driven almost entirely by the severity parameter values (see Degen's (2010) analytical result below).

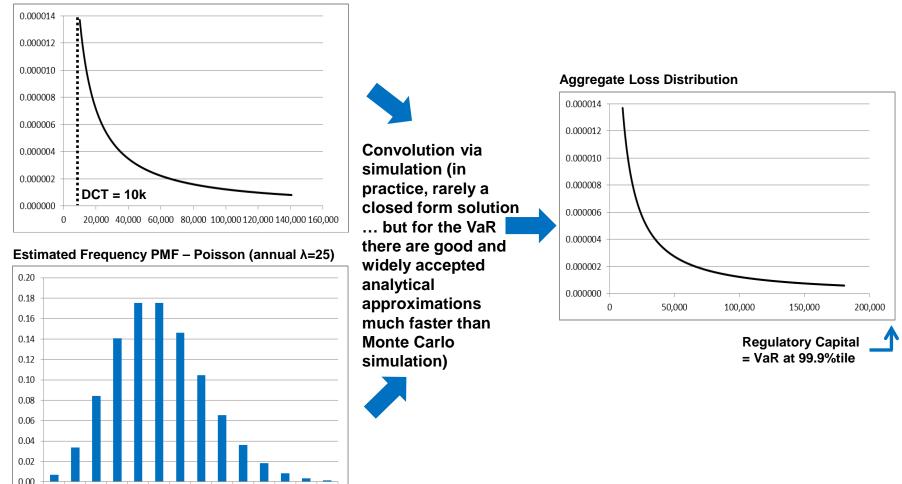




# 2. AMA–LDA OpRisk Capital Defined

### Loss Distribution Approach – For a given UoM:







**GE** Capital

 Estimated Capital is Essentially a High Quantile of the Severity Distribution as per Degen's (2010) Single Loss Approximation (SLA):

$$C_{\alpha} \approx F^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{1 - \alpha}{\lambda}; \hat{\beta}\right) + \lambda \mu$$
 where  $\lambda$  = frequency parameter and  $\mu = E[X]$ 

In other words, first term >> second term (see Appendix A for an improved Interpolated SLA (ISLA) from Opdyke, 2014).

 <u>PROPOSED</u>: For this setting (heavy-tailed severities, certain parameter value ranges, and very high p = percentiles):

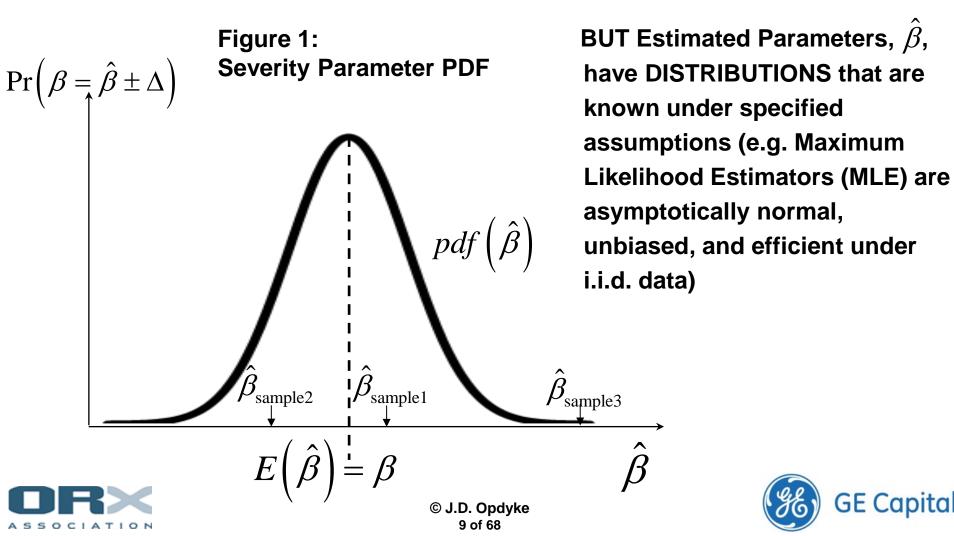
IF Aggregate Loss Distribution (ALD) VaR (i.e. Capital) is a very slightly concave function of  $\lambda$ , the frequency parameter(s) (as shown empirically in Opdyke, 2014), AND Severity VaR is a highly convex function of Severity Parameter Vector  $\hat{\beta}$ , THEN ALD VaR (Capital) is a highly convex function of  $\hat{\beta}$ .

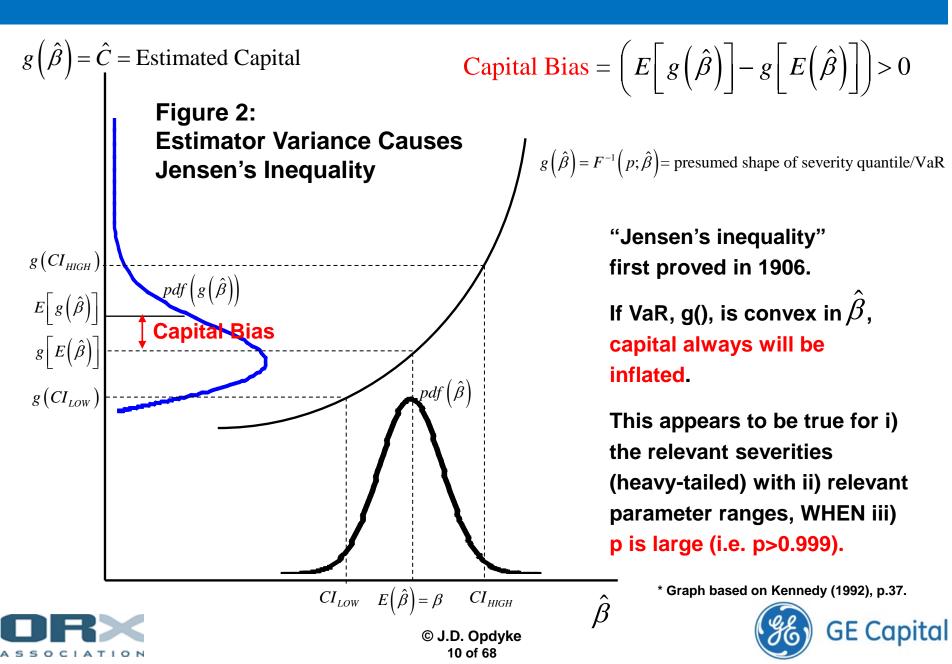
• <u>NOTE</u>: Severity VaR is much more extreme than ALD VaR, because for, say,  $\lambda = 30$ , and  $\alpha = 0.999$  and  $\alpha = 0.9997$ ,  $p = \left[1 - (1 - \alpha)/\lambda\right] = 0.999967$  and 0.99999, respectively.





- Operational Risk Loss Event Data = a Sample, NOT a Population
- Therefore, true severity parameters,  $\beta$ , will never be known.





- It is critical to note here that even though capital estimates will be, on average, high 50% of the time and low 50% of the time even under Jensen's inequality, the AMOUNTS that they are high vs. low are very different: when high, they are often much higher than true capital, but when low, they often are not much lower than true capital.
- So when comparing capital estimates to true capital, probability alone is not sufficient here – the absolute DISTANCE from true capital matters too. And it is the mean (expected value), rather than specific quantiles like the median, that is determined by BOTH the probability, AND the absolute distance from true capital, associated with specific capital estimates.
- The capital estimate distribution, and all of its relevant characteristics, are examined throughout this presentation. The specific issue of the distance of true capital from specific quantiles of the distribution (e.g. the median) is examined in great detail in Appendix D herein, as well as in footnote 67, p.59, of Opdyke (2014).



GE Capital

- Severity VaR is NOT a convex function of the severity parameter vector  $\hat{\beta}$  globally, for all percentiles (*p*) and all severities. This is widely known and easily proved.
- However, Severity VaR appears always to be a convex function of β under, concurrently, BOTH i) sufficiently high percentiles (p>0.999) AND ii) sufficiently heavy-tailed severities (amongst those used in OpRisk modeling). Both conditions hold in AMA–LDA OpRisk Capital Estimation (see Appendix B), and the very strong empirical evidence is exactly consistent with the effects of convexity in that we observe Jensen's Inequality.
- Still, we would like to **PROVE** a) convexity in Severity VaR under these conditions, and b) convexity in VaR for all relevant severities.





- Still, we would like to **PROVE** a) convexity in Severity VaR under these conditions, and b) convexity in VaR for all relevant severities.
- Re: a), we can examine three things: The shape of VaR as a function of the severity parameters...
  - i. individually (i.e. check for marginal convexity)
  - ii. jointly (i.e. mathematically determine the shape of the multidimensional VaR surface)
  - iii. jointly, based on extensive Monte Carlo simulation (i.e. examine the behavior of VaR as a function of joint parameter perturbation)





- Re: a), we can examine three things: The shape of VaR as a function of the severity parameters...
  - i. individually (i.e. check for marginal convexity)

Analytically this is straightforward for those severities with closed-form VaR functions. For the LogNormal, for example,

$$VaR = ICDF = \exp(\mu + \sigma \Phi^{-1}(p))$$
, so

$$\partial^2 VaR / \partial \mu^2 = VaR > 0$$

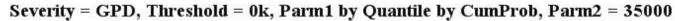
$$\partial^2 VaR / \partial \sigma^2 = VaR \cdot \left[ \Phi^{-1}(p) \right]^2 > 0$$

However, this is not typically the case, especially for truncated distributions. But these marginal checks are easy to do graphically (NOTE that GPD also is straightforward analytically).





Figure 3a:



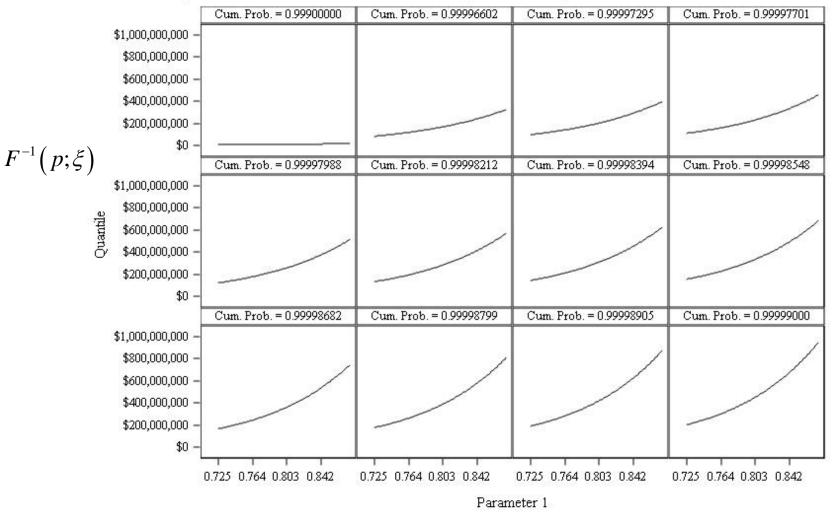
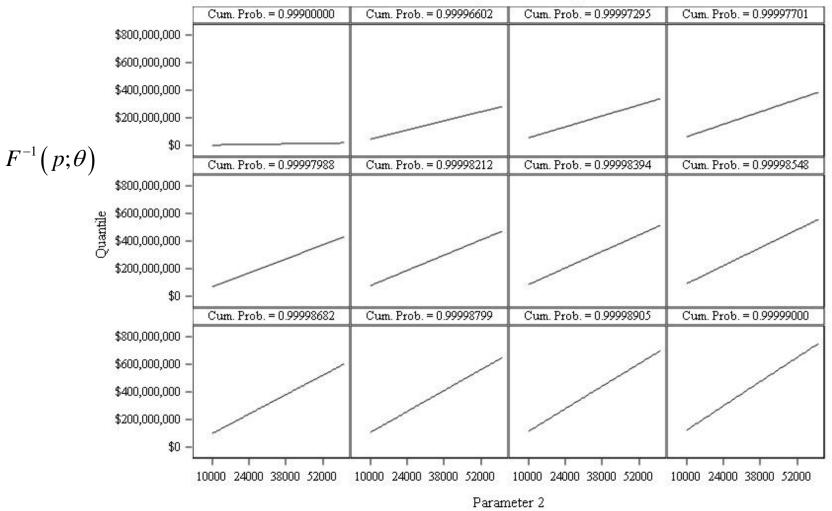






Figure 3b:









For GPD, for large p(>0.999): VaR is convex in  $\xi$  and linear in  $\theta$ , so VaR APPEARS to be convex in parameter vector  $\beta$ , implying systematic and consistent capital inflation. Note this convexity in  $\xi$ increases in *p*. Additional widely used severities are shown below.

TABLE 1: Marginal VaR Convexity/Linearity OVER RELEVANT DOMAIN (p > 0.999) by Parameter by Severity

VaR is Convex/Linear as Function			ction of	Relationship
Severity Distribution				between
	Parameter 1	Parameter 2	Parameter 3	Parameters
1) LogNormal $(\mu, \sigma)$	Convex	Convex		Independent
2) LogLogistic $(\alpha, \beta)$	Linear	Convex		Independent
3) LogGamma (a, b)	Convex	Convex		Dependent
4) <b>GPD</b> $(\xi, \theta)$	Convex	Linear		Dependent
5) Burr (type XII) $(\Upsilon, \alpha, \beta)$	Convex	Convex	Linear	Dependent
6) Truncated 1)	Convex	Convex		Dependent
7) Truncated 2)	Linear	Convex		Dependent
8) Truncated 3)	Convex	Convex		Dependent
9) Truncated 4)	Convex	Linear		Dependent
10) Truncated 5)	Convex	Convex	Linear	Dependent
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VoD is Convoy/Lincor of Function of Deletionshin



- Re: a), we can examine three things: The shape of VaR as a function of the severity parameters...
  - i. individually (i.e. check for marginal convexity)

For all commonly used severities in this space,\* VaR always appears to be a convex function of at least one parameter, and a linear function of the rest. This would be consistent with convex, or "convex-dominant" (see below) behavior when VaR is examined as a function of the severity parameters jointly.

\*NOTE: Although in the past spliced and mixed-distribution severities have been used by a number of banks, the most recent Interagency Guidance (June, 2014) indicated strong preference for single-density severity estimation with fewer parameters, both to avoid potential for overfitting the loss event data. Specifically, the LogNormal, LogGamma, GPD, and Burr Type XII severities were mentioned.



- Re: a), we can examine three things: The shape of VaR as a function of the severity parameters...
  - ii. jointly (i.e. mathematically determine the shape of the multidimensional VaR surface)

This can be done via examination of the signs and magnitudes of the eigenvalues of the shape operator (which define its principal curvatures).

This turns out to be analytically nontrivial, if not intractable under truncation, and even numeric calculations for many of the relevant severities are nontrivial given the sizes of the severity percentiles that must be used in this setting (because most of the gradients are exceedingly large for such high percentiles).



ii. jointly (i.e. mathematically determine the shape of the multidimensional VaR surface)

So this research currently remains underway, and without this strict mathematical verification, attributions of capital inflation to Jensen's inequality are deemed "apparent" and/or "preliminary," as are those related to VaR's (apparent) convexity.

This scientifically conservative approach, however, belies the strong and consistent empirical evidence of capital inflation, and its behavior as being exactly consistent with the effects of Jensen's inequality (in addition to findings of marginal convexity). In other words, just because the specific multidimensional shapes of high-percentile VaR under these severities are nontrivial to define mathematically, we should not turn a blind eye toward strong empirical evidence that convexity dominates VaR's shapes as a joint function of severity parameters.





ii. jointly (i.e. mathematically determine the shape of the multidimensional VaR surface)

In other words, the cumulative weight of the evidence – even in the absence of a "smoking-gun" absolute mathematical proof – is very strong here. An apt analogy is the relationship between smoking and cancer: no one study definitively proves the nowknown and widely accepted relationship between the two – it was the weight of cumulative evidence from disparate sources that eventually became accepted wisdom and scientific fact.

All strong and consistent evidence here points to Jensen's Inequality as the source of bias, so we should not delay in allowing this assumption to guide the design of solutions to it.

It is also crucial to note that a strictly convex VaR surface is not necessary for Jensen's inequality to be true, and this is a widely proven result: the surface need only be sufficiently convex.





iii. jointly, based on extensive Monte Carlo simulation (i.e. examine the behavior of VaR as a function of joint parameter perturbation)

This is unarguably the most directly relevant of the three "checks" for convexity -- EXAMPLE:

- a. simulate 10 years of i.i.d. losses generated under a Poisson frequency distribution, with  $\lambda = 25$ , and a LogNormal severity distribution with  $\mu = 9.27$ ,  $\sigma = 2.77$ , estimating  $\lambda$ ,  $\mu$ , and  $\sigma$  using, say, maximum likelihood.
- b. Use Degen (2010) to calculate RCap with  $\alpha$  = 0.999 and ECap with  $\alpha$  = 0.9997 based on the estimated  $\lambda$ ,  $\mu$ , and  $\sigma$ .
- c. Repeat a. and b. 1,000 or more times.
- d. The mean of the 1,000+ RCap/ECap estimates  $E[g(\hat{\beta})]$  will be about \$83m/\$203m larger than "true" capital  $g[E(\hat{\beta})]$  (\$603m, \$1,293m; see complete results in Table 4a below).





### ANOTHER **EXAMPLE**:

- a. simulate 10 years of i.i.d. losses generated under a Poisson frequency distribution, with  $\lambda = 25$ , and a GPD severity distribution with  $\xi = 0.875$ ,  $\theta = 47,500$ , estimating  $\lambda$ ,  $\xi$ , and  $\theta$  using, say, maximum likelihood.
- b. Use Degen (2010) to calculate RCap with  $\alpha$  = 0.999 and ECap with  $\alpha$  = 0.9997 based on the estimated  $\lambda$ ,  $\xi$ , and  $\theta$ .
- c. Repeat a. and b. 1,000 or more times.
- d. The mean of the 1,000+ RCap/ECap estimates  $E[g(\hat{\beta})]$  will be about \$249m/\$1,016m larger than "true" capital  $g[E(\hat{\beta})]$  (\$391m/\$1,106m; see complete results in Table 4e below).





iii. jointly, based on extensive Monte Carlo simulation (i.e. examine the behavior of VaR as a function of joint parameter perturbation)

As long as the percentiles examined are large enough (e.g. *p* > 0.999) and the severity parameter values large enough, the estimates of severity VaR and Rcap/ECap consistently, across all severities used in AMA-based operational risk capital estimation, are notably inflated. This inflation can be dramatic, not uncommonly into the hundreds of millions, and even billions of dollars, for each UoM (unit-of-measure) as shown below.

So let us presume sufficient VaR convexity for Jensen's Inequality to hold, and design a capital estimator accordingly to mitigate the actual capital bias/inflation of which it is the presumed source...





- Still, we would like to **PROVE** a) convexity in Severity VaR under these conditions, and b) convexity in VaR for all relevant severities.
- So we are presuming a) based on very strong empirical evidence and incomplete mathematical evidence.
- For b), tackling ALL potentially relevant severities is nontrivial (if possible), but arguably unnecessary as the number of severities used in this setting are quite finite, and we can satisfy a) for each individually.

Note again that because capital (VaR of ALD) was shown empirically in Opdyke (2014) to be only a slightly concave function of the frequency parameter(s), the only source of capital inflation would appear to be strong convexity in severity VaR.





# 4. When is Capital Bias (Inflation) Material?

Convexity in Severity VaR  $\Rightarrow$  Capital Bias is upwards ... always! Magnitude of Capital Inflation is Determined by:

- a) <u>Variance of Severity Parameter Estimator</u>: Larger Variance (smaller n < 1,000)  $\Rightarrow$  Larger Capital Bias
- b) <u>Heaviness of Severity Distribution Tail</u>: Heavier  $\Rightarrow$  More Capital Bias (so truncated distributions  $\Rightarrow$  more bias, ceteris paribus)
- c) <u>Size of VaR Being Estimated</u>: Higher VaR ⇒ More Capital Bias (so Economic Capital Bias > Regulatory Capital Bias)

This demonstrable empirical behavior is exactly consistent with Jensen's Inequality, and since most UoMs are heavy-tailed severities and typically *n* < 250, <u>AMA–LDA OpRisk capital estimation is squarely</u> in the bias zone!





# 4. When is Capital Bias (Inflation) Material?

- NOTE: LDA Capital Bias holds for most, if not all widely used severity parameter estimators (e.g. Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE), Robust Estimators (OBRE, CvM, QD, etc.), Penalized Likelihood Estimation (PLE), Method of Moments, all M-Class Estimators, Generalized Method of Moments, Probability Weighted Moments, etc.).
- <u>NOTE</u>: Because CVaR is a (provably) convex function of severity parameter estimates (see Brown, 2007, Bardou et al., 2010, & Ben-Tal, 2005), switching from VaR to CVaR, even if allowed, does not avoid this problem (and in fact, appears to make it worse).
- <u>NOTE</u>: Severities with  $E(x) = \infty$  also can exhibit such bias (see GPD with  $\xi = 1.1$ ,  $\theta = 40,000$  in Opdyke, 2014), even though (arguably contrived) counterexamples exist.





# 5. RCE – Reduced-bias Capital Estimator

- I. Demonstrate that Jensen's Inequality is the apparent source of systematically inflated operational risk capital estimates ...
- II. Develop a Solution...

### **SOLUTION CHALLENGES / CONSTRAINTS:**

- 1. It must remain consistent with the LDA Framework (even with new guidance (6/30/14) encouraging new methods, arguably the smaller the divergence from widespread industry practice, the greater the chances of regulatory approval).
- 2. The same general method must work across very different severities.
- 3. It must work when severity distributions are truncated to account for data collection thresholds.
- 4. It must work even if  $E(x) = \infty$  (or close, which is relevant for any simulation-based method).
- 5. It cannot be excessively complex (or it won't be used).
- 6. It cannot be extremely computationally intensive (e.g. a desktop computer, or it won't be used).
- 7. Its range of application must encompass all commonly used estimators of severity (and frequency)
- 8. It must work regardless of the method used to approximate VaR of the aggregate loss distribution.
- 9. It must be easily understood and implemented using any widely available statistical software.
- 10. It must provide unambiguous improvements over the most widely used implementations of LDA (e.g. MLE, and most other estimators) on all three key criteria capital accuracy, capital precision, and capital robustness.



**RCE (Reduced-bias Capital Estimator)** is the only published estimator designed to effectively mitigate LDA Capital Bias.

RCE simply is a scaler of capital as a function of the degree of empirical VaR convexity.

### **RCE Conceptually Defined:**

Step 1: Estimate LDA-based capital using any estimator (e.g. MLE).

Step 2: Using 1), simulate K iid data samples and estimate parameters of each

<u>Step 3</u>: Using 2), simulate *M* data samples for each of the *K* parameters, estimate capital for each, and calculate median for each, yielding *K* medians of capital

<u>Step 4</u>: RCE = median(*K* medians) \* [median(K medians) / weighted mean(*K* medians)]<sup></sup>*c* 





# **RCE Motivation:**

RCE = median(*K* medians) \* [median(K medians) / weighted mean(*K* medians)]<sup>c</sup>

<u>First term</u>: The median of *K* medians is empirically close to "capital." The *K* medians simply trace out the VaR function (in 1-dimension,  $g(\hat{\beta})$  in Figure 2) just as do *K* capital estimates, but capital is more volatile than using another layer of sampling to obtain the *K* medians in <u>Step 3</u>.

<u>Second term</u>: The ratio of the median to the mean is an empirical measure of the convexity of VaR,  $g(\hat{\beta})$ . This is used to scale down the first term (which is essentially capital) to eliminate inflation exactly consistent with the effects of Jensen's Inequality. The mean is weighted\* based on the sampling (perturbation) method described below. The *c* exponent is a function of the severity chosen and the sample size, both of which are known ex ante under LDA.

\* Due to the sampling method described below, the median in the numerator turns out to be empirically identical to a weighted median, and so for efficiency, the simple median is used.





# **RCE Implemented:**

<u>Step 1</u>: Estimate LDA-based capital using any estimator (e.g. MLE).

<u>Step 2</u>: Using 1), generate *K* parameter vectors based on the Var-Cov matrix using iso-density sampling (see Figure 4 below): use iso-density ellipses to select parameter values associated with a given probability, and change parameter values to reach these ellipses via the decrease-decrease, decrease-increase, increase-decrease, and increase-increase of both parameters by the same number of standard deviations (thus generating two orthogonal lines emanating from original parameter estimate in the normalized coordinate system). Opdyke (2014) uses ellipse percentiles = 1, 10, 25, 50, 75, 90, and 99, so K = 4\*7=28, and two frequency percentiles for  $\lambda$ , 25 and 75, so total K = 28\*2 = 56. Weights =  $(1-p_{sev})*2*(1-p_{frg})$ .

<u>Step 3</u>: Using the *K* parameter vectors from 2) (including the frequency parameters), generate another triplet of *M* parameter vectors for each (let M=K), and calculate capital for each, and take the median to get *K* medians of capital.

<u>Step 4</u>: RCE = median(*K* medians) \* [median(K medians) / weighted mean(*K* medians)]<sup></sup>*c* 

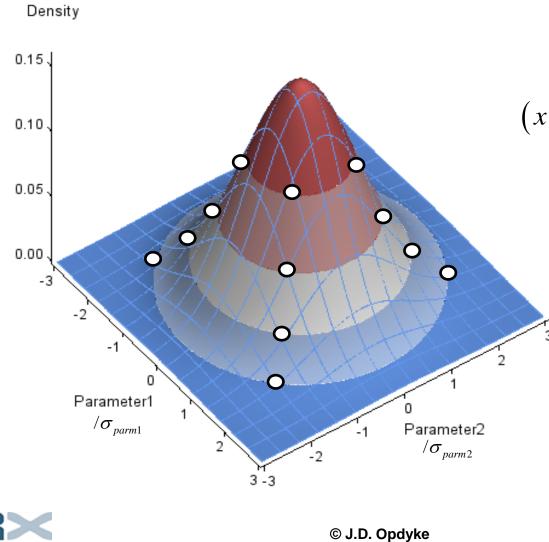




# 5. RCE – Reduced-bias Capital Estimator

### FIGURE 4: Iso-density Perturbation of the Joint Severity Parameter Distribution

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For multivariate normal (e.g. all M-class estimators), ellipses are given by:

 $\left(x-\mu\right)^T \Sigma^{-1}\left(x-\mu\right) \leq \chi_k^2(p)$ 

where *x* is a *k*- (2-) dimensional vector,  $\mu$ is the known kdimensional mean vector (the parameter estimates),  $\Sigma$  is the known covariance matrix (the inverse of the Fisher information of the given severity), and  $\chi_k^2(p)$  is the quantile function for probability p of the Chisquare distribution with *k* degrees of freedom.



# 5. RCE – Reduced-bias Capital Estimator

Finding *x* as the solution to  $(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu) \le \chi_k^2(p)$  can be obtained quickly via a convergence algorithm (e.g. bisection) or simply the analytic solution to the equation rather than the inequality (see Mayorov 2014). Simply change both parameters by *q* units of their respective standard deviations to obtain four pairs of parameter values on the ellipse defined by *p*: increase both parameters by *q* standard deviations ( $z_1 = z_2 = 1$ ), decrease both parameters by *q* standard deviations ( $z_1 = z_2 = 1$ ), increase one while decreasing the other ( $z_1 = -1, z_2 = 1$ ).

$$q \# SD = \sqrt{\frac{\chi_k^2(p) \cdot (1 + z_1 z_2 \rho_{1,2})}{2}}$$

where  $\sigma_1(\sigma_2)$  = stdev of parameter 1 (2), and  $\rho_{1,2}$  is Pearson's correlation of the parameter estimates.

Alternately, the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $\Sigma^{-1}$  can be used to define the most extreme parameter values (smallest and largest) on the ellipses (corresponding to the largest/smallest eigenvalues) (see Johnson and Wichern, 2007), but this may change the values of *c* calculated below, and the above is arguably more straightforward.





Iso-density sampling (perturbation) makes RCE runtime feasible (1 to 3 seconds on a standard desktop PC):

Severity*	Real Time	CPU Time
LogN	0.14	0.14
TLogN	1.10	1.10
Logg	1.13	1.12
TLogg	2.96	2.94
GPD	0.21	0.18
TGPD	1.35	1.35

Table 2: Runtime of RCE by Severity (seconds)

The complexity of the Fisher information is the only thing that drives runtime (sample size is irrelevant).



\* See Appendix C.



### **Implementation NOTE:**

It is important to avoid bias when using iso-density sampling in cases of incalculably high capital. For example, say the initial MLE parameters happen to be large, and then the 99%tile of the joint parameter distribution, based on the initial estimates, is obtained in <u>Step 2</u> of RCE's implementation; and then the 99%tile of THIS Fisher information is obtained in <u>Step 3</u>, based on the joint parameter distribution of the <u>Step 2</u> values. Capital calculated in <u>Step 3</u> sometimes simply will be too large to calculate in such cases. If ignored, this could systematically bias RCE. A simple solution is to eliminate the entire ellipse of values – along with all "larger" ellipses – when any one value on an ellipse is too large to calculate.





### How is c(n, severity) determined?:

<u>Method 1</u>: Conduct a simulation study to empirically determine the value of *c* for the relevant sample sizes and severities (both known ex ante within the LDA framework) using three sets of parameter values: the original estimates, and those corresponding to the 2.5% tile and the 97.5% tile of the joint parameter distribution, which yields a 95% confidence interval (a wider confidence interval can be used if desired). The value of c(n, severity) is chosen to yield true capital (or slightly above) for all three sets of parameter values.

<u>Method 2</u>: Use the simulation study conducted in Opdyke (2014) to select values of *c* for specific values of *n* and *severity* (see Table 3 and Figure 5 below).





# Table 3:Values of c(n, severity) by Severity by # of Loss Events(Linear, and Non-Linear Interpolation with Roots Specified for Shaded Ranges)

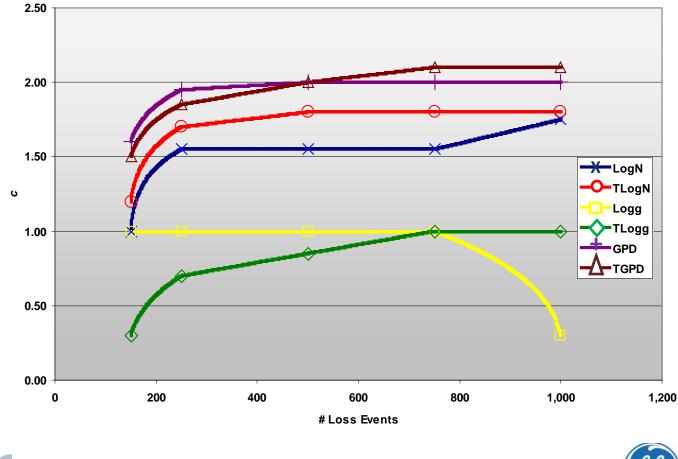
$N \rightarrow$	150	250	500	750	1000	Root
Severity						
LogN	1.00	1.55	1.55	1.55	1.75	8
TLogN	1.20	1.70	1.80	1.80	1.80	8
Logg	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.30	3
TLogg	0.30	0.70	0.85	1.00	1.00	3
GPD	1.60	1.95	2.00	2.00	2.00	10
TGPD	1.50	1.85	2.00	2.10	2.10	10





## 5. RCE – Reduced-bias Capital Estimator

## Figure 5: Values of *c*(*n*, *severity*) by Severity by # of Loss Events





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## 5. RCE – Reduced-bias Capital Estimator

<u>NOTE</u>: Unfortunately, other Bias-reduction/elimination strategies in the literature, even for VaR (e.g. see Kim and Hardy, 2007), do not appear to work for this problem.\* Most involve shifting the distribution of the estimator, often using some type of bootstrap distribution, which in this setting often results in negative capital estimates and greater capital instability. RCE-based capital is never negative, and is more stable than capital based on most, if not all other commonly used severity parameter estimators (e.g. MLE).

Also, given the very high percentiles being examined in this setting (e.g., Severity VaR = 0.99999 and higher), approaches that rely on the derivative(s) of VaR(s), perhaps via (taylor) series expansions, appear to run into numeric precision issues for some severities. So even when such solutions exist in tractable form, practical challenges may derail their application here.

\* The only other work in the literature that appears to be similar in approach to RCE is the fragility heuristic (H) of Taleb et al. (2012) and Taleb and Douady (2013). Both RCE and H are measures of convexity based on perturbations of parameters: H measures the distance between the average of model results over a range of shocks and the model result of the average shock, while RCE is a scaling factor based on the ratio of the median to the mean of similar parameter perturbations. Both exploit Jensen's inequality to measure convexity: in the case of the fragility heuristic, to raise an alarm about it, and in the case of RCE, to eliminate it (or rather, to effectively mitigate its biasing effects on capital estimation).





## SIMULATION STUDY\*: 1,000 (i.i.d.) Simulations of

- λ = 25 (Poisson-distributed average annual losses ... so n = 250, on average, over 10 years)
- $\alpha$  = 0.999 and 0.9997 for Regulatory and Economic Capital, respectively (so [1 (1-  $\alpha$ ) /  $\lambda$ ] = 0.99996 and 0.999988, respectively).

## Selected Results of RCE capital vs. MLE capital:

- o LogNormal
- o **LogGamma**
- o **GPD**
- Truncated LogNormal
- o Truncated LogGamma
- o Truncated GPD

\*Note that true bias is probably far greater than that associated with MLE-based capital below, since under the i.i.d. presumption MLE is maximally efficient.



#### Table 4a:

#### RCE vs. LDA-MLE for LogNormal Severity ( $\mu$ = 9.27, $\sigma$ = 2.77, H=\$0k)\*

(millions)	Regulator	y Capital**	Economic	c Capital**
	RCE	LDA-MLE	RCE	LDA-MLE
Mean*	\$614	\$686	\$1,333	\$1,498
True Capital	\$603	\$603	\$1,293	\$1,293
Bias (Mean - True)	\$12	\$83	\$40	\$205
Bias %	2.0%	13.8%	3.1%	15.8%
RMSE*	\$328	\$382	\$764	\$898
STDDev*	\$328	\$373	\$763	\$874

\* 1,000 Simulations, n ≈ 250





#### Table 4b:

RCE vs. LDA-MLE for Truncated LogNormal Severity ( $\mu$  = 10.7,  $\sigma$  = 2.385, H=\$10k)\*

(millions)	Regulator	y Capital**	Economic	c Capital**
	RCE	LDA-MLE	RCE	LDA-MLE
Mean*	\$700	\$847	\$1,338	\$1,678
True Capital	\$670	\$670	\$1,267	\$1,267
Bias (Mean - True)	\$30	\$177	\$71	\$411
Bias %	4.5%	26.4%	5.6%	32.4%
RMSE*	\$469	\$665	\$1,003	\$1,521
STDDev*	\$468	\$641	\$1,000	\$1,464

\* 1,000 Simulations, n ≈ 250



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#### Table 4c:

#### RCE vs. LDA-MLE for LogGamma Severity (a = 25, b = 2.5, H=\$0k)\*

(millions)	Regulator	y Capital**	Economic	c Capital**
	RCE	LDA-MLE	RCE	LDA-MLE
Mean*	\$466	\$513	\$1,105	\$1,272
True Capital	\$444	\$444	\$1,064	\$1,064
Bias (Mean - True)	\$11	\$70	\$42	\$208
Bias %	2.5%	15.7%	3.9%	19.5%
RMSE*	\$301	\$355	\$814	\$984
STDDev*	\$301	\$348	\$813	\$962

\* 1,000 Simulations, n ≈ 250



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#### Table 4d:

RCE vs. LDA-MLE for Truncated LogGamma Severity (a = 34.5, b = 3.15, H=\$10k)\*

(millions)	Regulator	y Capital**	Economic Capital**		
	RCE	LDA-MLE	RCE	LDA-MLE	
Mean*	\$539	\$635	\$1,158	\$1,437	
True Capital	\$510	\$510	\$1,086	\$1,086	
Bias (Mean - True)	\$29	\$125	\$72	\$350	
Bias %	5.8%	24.5%	6.6%	32.2%	
RMSE*	\$397	\$544	\$941	\$1,453	
STDDev*	\$396	\$529	\$938	\$1,410	

\* 1,000 Simulations, n ≈ 250





#### Table 4e:

#### RCE vs. LDA-MLE for GPD Severity ( $\xi = 0.875$ , $\theta = 47,500$ , H=\$0k)\*

(millions)	Regulator	y Capital**	Economic	c Capital**
	RCE	LDA-MLE	RCE	LDA-MLE
Mean*	\$396	\$640	\$1,016	\$2,123
True Capital	\$391	\$391	\$1,106	\$1,106
Bias (Mean - True)	\$5	\$249	\$24	\$1,016
Bias %	1.2%	63.7%	2.2%	91.9%
RMSE*	\$466	\$870	\$1,594	\$3,514
STDDev*	\$466	\$834	\$1,594	\$3,363

\* 1,000 Simulations, n ≈ 250



\*\* λ = 25; α = 0.999 RC; α = 0.9997 EC



#### Table 4f:

RCE vs. LDA-MLE for Truncated GPD Severity ( $\xi = 0.8675$ ,  $\theta = 50,000$ , H=\$10k)\*

(millions)	Regulator	y Capital**	Economic	c Capital**
	RCE	LDA-MLE	RCE	LDA-MLE
Mean*	\$466	\$737	\$1,327	\$2,432
True Capital	\$452	\$452	\$1,267	\$1,267
Bias (Mean - True)	\$13	\$285	\$61	\$1,166
Bias %	3.0%	63.0%	4.8%	92.0%
RMSE*	\$576	\$1,062	\$1,988	\$4,337
STDDev*	\$576	\$1,023	\$1,988	\$4,177

\* 1,000 Simulations, n ≈ 250



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## 6. Simulation Study: RCE vs. MLE

## Table 5: Summary of Capital Accuracy by Sample Size: MLE vs. RCE (\$millions) (across 6 severities, Opdyke, 2014)

	++ ECap				++ RCap			
	Mean Absolute Bias		Median Absolute Bias		Mean Absolute Bias		Median Abs	olute Bias
λ =	RCE	MLE	RCE	MLE	RCE	MLE	RCE	MLE
15	7.8%	92.6%	2.6%	82.3%	5.9%	61.6%	1.6%	58.1%
25	3.4%	53.1%	3.3%	40.6%	2.4%	38.1%	2.0%	30.6%
50	2.8%	25.7%	2.7%	17.7%	2.0%	19.4%	1.9%	14.3%
75	1.2%	15.5%	0.8%	10.7%	0.8%	11.9%	0.5%	8.7%
100	0.9%	11.3%	0.5%	7.9%	0.5%	8.7%	0.4%	6.1%
15	\$61	\$825	\$18	\$502	\$21	\$228	\$5	\$154
25	\$45	\$727	\$29	\$410	\$14	\$209	\$8	\$133
50	\$69	\$617	\$52	\$320	\$20	\$182	\$15	\$109
75	\$40	\$526	\$14	\$250	\$11	\$157	\$3	\$80
100	\$32	\$485	\$15	\$223	\$7	\$142	\$5	\$73

NOTE: Even when relative absolute bias of MLE decreases, actual bias \$ still are notable.





## SIMULATION STUDY: Conclusions RCE vs. MLE-LDA

- a) <u>RCE is Dramatically More Accurate</u>: LDA-MLE Bias can be ENORMOUS: \$Billion+ just for one uom!
- b) <u>RCE is Notably More Precise</u>: Sometimes <50% RCE RMSE < MLE RMSE, RCE StdDev < MLE StdDev
- c) <u>RCE is Consistently More Robust</u>: RCE Robustness to Violations of iid > MLE (see non-iid simulation study in Opdyke, 2014)





1. An alternate form of RCE is to simply use estimated capital as the first term, and then scale it based on the perturbation of its frequency and severity parameters:

RCE = median(K medians) \* [median(K medians) / weighted mean(K medians)]^c

#### Modified RCE: MRCE = estimated capital \* [median(K medians) / weighted mean(K medians)]<sup>c</sup>.

This approach has the advantage of simply being a scalar of existing capital, but requires re-estimation of the values of "*c*" for some combinations of severity distribution + sample size. However, with respect to the variance of capital estimate, RCE maintains the distinct advantage (i.e. RCE decreases it).

2. A non-published paper by Zhou, Durfee, and Fabozzi (2015) presents a modification of the RCE approach. Curiously, even though Zhou et al. (2015) follows Opdyke (2014), in both timing and methodology, changes made to the RCE estimator appear to worsen not only its performance in terms of bias, speed of execution, and stability, but also increase its likelihood of regulatory rejection due to its reliance on "trimming" (which RCE avoids). See Appendix for further details.





## 8. Summary and Conclusions

• Under an LDA framework, operational risk capital estimates based on the most commonly used estimators of severity parameters (e.g. MLE) and the relevant severity distributions are consistently systematically biased upwards, presumably due to Jensen's inequality (Jensen, 1906).

• This bias is often material, sometimes inflating required capital by hundreds of millions, and even billions of dollars.

• RCE is the estimator MOST consistent with regulatory intent regarding a prudent, responsible implementation of an AMA–LDA framework in that it alone is not systematically and materially biased, let alone imprecise and non-robust.

• RCE is the only capital estimator that mitigates and nearly eliminates capital inflation under AMA-LDA. RCE also is notably more precise than LDA-based capital under most, if not all severity estimators, and consistently more robust to violations of i.i.d. data (which are endemic to operational risk loss data). Therefore, with greater capital accuracy, precision, and robustness, RCE unambiguously and notably improves LDA-based OpRisk Capital Estimation by all relevant criteria.

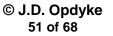




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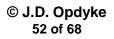






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## 9. Appendix A: Capital Approximation via ISLA

Under the Basel II/III AMA, estimated capital requirements are the Value-at-Risk (VaR) quantile corresponding to the 99.9% Tile of the aggregate loss distribution, which is the convolution of the frequency and severity distributions. This convolution typically has no closed form, but its VaR may be obtained in a number of ways, including extensive monte carlo simulations, fast Fourier transform, Panjer recursion (see Panjer (2006) and Embrechts and Frei (2009)), and Degen's (2010) Single Loss Approximation. All are approximations, with the first as the gold standard providing arbitrary precision, and SLA as the fastest and most computationally efficient. SLA is implemented as below under three conditions (only a) is relevant for severities that cannot have infinite mean):

a) if 
$$\xi < 1$$
,  $C_{\alpha} \approx F^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{1 - \alpha}{\lambda} \right) + \lambda \mu$  where  $\mu$  is the mean of  $F$ 

b) if 
$$\xi = 1$$
,  $C_{\alpha} \approx F^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{1 - \alpha}{\lambda} \right) + c_{\xi} \lambda \mu_F \left[ F^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{1 - \alpha}{\lambda} \right) \right]^{\text{where}} c_{\xi} = 1, \ \mu_F \left( x \right) = \int_{0}^{x} \left[ 1 - F\left( s \right) \right] ds$ 

$$\text{if } 1 < \xi < 2, \quad C_{\alpha} \approx F^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{1 - \alpha}{\lambda} \right) - \left( 1 - \alpha \right) F^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{1 - \alpha}{\lambda} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{c_{\xi}}{1 - 1/\xi} \right) \qquad (\xi \ge 2 \text{ is so extreme as to not be relevant in this setting)}$$

(the above assumes a Poisson-distributed frequency distribution and can be modified if this assumption does not hold)

When implementing the above it is important to note that the capital estimate diverges as  $\xi \to 1$ ; specifically, for a)  $C_{\alpha} \to +\infty$  as  $\xi \to 1^{-}$  and for c)  $C_{\alpha} \to -\infty$  as  $\xi \to 1^{+}$ . Note that this divergence does not only occur for small deviations from  $\xi = 1$ . For example, for GPD, divergence can be noticeable in the range of  $0.8 < \xi < 1.2$ . Therefore, one must utilize a nonlinear interpolation or an alternative derivation of Degen's formulae to avoid this obstacle. All results relying on SLA herein utilize the former solution – i.e. "ISLA" (see Opdyke, 2014) and were all tested to be within 1% of extensive monte carlo results (e.g. five million years' worth of monte carlo loss simulations).

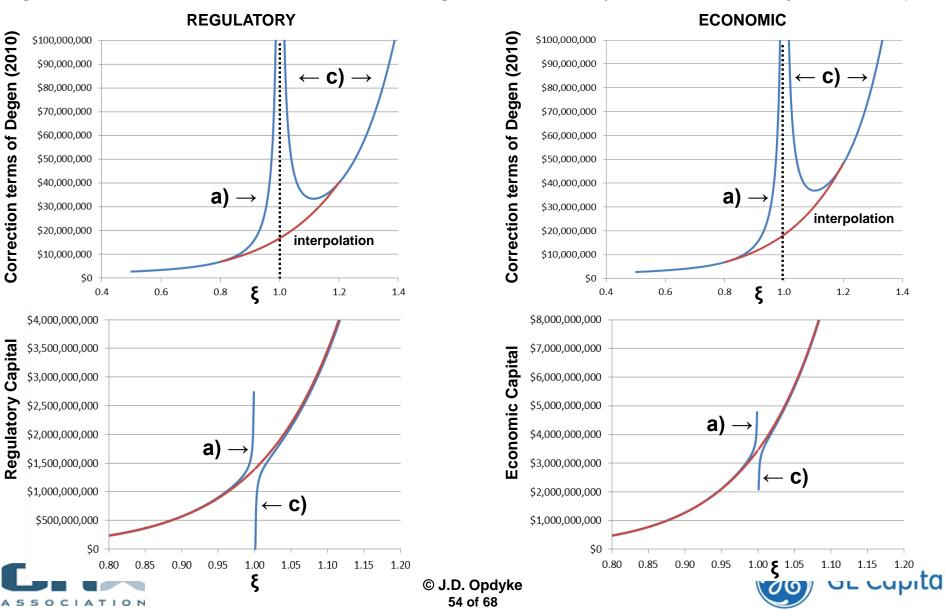


c)

GE Capital

## 9. Appendix A: Capital Approximation via ISLA

#### Figures A1-A4: ISLA Correction for SLA Divergence at Root of $\xi=1$ for GPD Severity ( $\theta = 55,000$ )



• As currently implemented per Basel II/III's AMA-LDA, operational risk capital is a value-at-risk (VaR) estimate (i.e. the quantile corresponding to p = 0.999, the 99.9% tile) of the aggregate loss distribution. As shown by Degen (2010), this is essentially a high quantile of the severity distribution. For those severities relevant to operational risk capital estimation, VaR always appears to be a convex function of the severity distribution parameter estimates as long as the quantile being estimated is large enough (e.g. corresponding to p>0.999; see Degen, Embrechts, & Lambrigger, 2007; Daníelsson et al., 2005; and Daníelsson et al., 2013). For the heavy-tailed severities examined above, in addition to two others sometimes used in this space (Burr type XII and LogLogistic), we see:

#### TABLE A1: Marginal VaR Behavior OVER RELEVANT DOMAIN (p > 0.999) by Severity

	Relationship			
Severity Distribution	between			
	Parameter 1	Parameter 2	Parameter 3	Parameters
1) LogNormal $(\mu, \sigma)$	Convex	Convex		Independent
2) LogLogistic $(\alpha, \beta)$	Linear	Convex		Independent
3) LogGamma (a, b)	Convex	ex Convex		Dependent
4) <b>GPD</b> $(\xi, \theta)$	Convex	Linear		Dependent
5) Burr (type XII) $(\Upsilon, \alpha, \beta)$	Convex	Convex	Linear	Dependent
6) Truncated 1)	Convex	Convex		Dependent
7) Truncated 2)	Linear	Convex		Dependent
8) Truncated 3)	Convex	Convex		Dependent
9) Truncated 4)	Convex	Linear		Dependent
10) Truncated 5)	Convex	Convex	Linear	Dependent

As mentioned above (p.16), VaR empirical convexity increases in *p*: larger quantiles are associated with greater convexity.





• PDF and CDF of LogNormal:

$$f(x;\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}x} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\ln(x)-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} \quad F(x;\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{2}\left[1 + erf\left(\frac{\ln(x)-\mu}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}}\right)\right]$$

 $0 < x < \infty, \ 0 < \sigma < \infty$ 

- Mean of LogNormal:  $E(X) = e^{(\mu + \sigma^2/2)}$
- Inverse Fisher information of LogNormal:

$$A(\theta)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 / 2 \end{bmatrix}$$





• PDF and CDF of Truncated LogNormal:

 $g(x;\mu,\sigma) = \frac{f(x;\mu,\sigma)}{1 - F(H;\mu,\sigma)} \qquad G(x;\mu,\sigma) = 1 - \frac{1 - F(x;\mu,\sigma)}{1 - F(H;\mu,\sigma)} \qquad H < x < \infty, \ 0 < \sigma < \infty$  $f(\ ) \text{ is LogNormal PDF and } F(\ ) \text{ is LogNormal CDF}$ 

• Mean of Truncated LogNormal:

 $E(X) = e^{\mu + \sigma^2/2} \cdot \Phi\left(\frac{\mu + \sigma^2 - \ln(H)}{\sigma}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{\left[1 - F(H)\right]} \text{ where } \Phi(\text{ )is the standard normal CDF.}$ 

Inverse Fisher information of Truncated LogNormal:

Let 
$$u = \frac{\ln(H) - \mu}{\sigma}$$
,  $j = \frac{-u^2/2}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ ,  $J = \frac{j}{1 - \Phi(u)}$ , where  $\Phi = \text{CDF}$  of Standard Normal, and  $INV = \frac{\sigma^2}{\left[2 + J \cdot (J - u) \cdot (u \cdot (J - u) - 3)\right]}$   
Then  $A(\theta)^{-1} = INV \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 + J \cdot u \cdot (1 - u \cdot (J - u)) & J \cdot (u \cdot (J - u) - 1) \\ J \cdot (u \cdot (J - u) - 1) & 1 - (J \cdot (J - u)) \end{bmatrix}$ 

From Roehr (2002). Note that the first cell of this matrix as presented in Roehr, 2002, contains a typo: this is corrected in the presentation above.



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- **PDF and CDF of Generalized Pareto Distribution (GPD):**  $f(x;\xi,\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} \left[ 1 + \xi \frac{x}{\theta} \right]^{\left[-\frac{1}{\xi} - 1\right]} \qquad F(x;\xi,\theta) = 1 - \left[ 1 + \xi \frac{x}{\theta} \right]^{\left[-\frac{1}{\xi}\right]} \qquad \text{assuming } \xi \ge 0, \text{ for } 0 \le x < \infty; \ 0 < \theta < \infty$
- Mean of GPD:  $E(X) = \frac{\theta}{1-\xi}$  for  $\xi < 1$  (=  $\infty$  for  $\xi \ge 1$ )
- Inverse Fisher information of GPD:

$$A(\theta)^{-1} = (1+\xi) \begin{bmatrix} 1+\xi & -\theta \\ -\theta & 2\theta^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

From Smith (1987)





• PDF and CDF of Truncated GPD:

$$g(x;\xi,\theta) = \frac{f(x;\xi,\theta)}{1 - F(H;\xi,\theta)} \qquad G(x;\xi,\theta) = 1 - \frac{1 - F(x;\xi,\theta)}{1 - F(H;\xi,\theta)} \qquad \text{assuming } \zeta \ge 0, \text{ for } H \le x < \omega, \ 0 < \theta < \omega$$

- Mean of Truncated GPD:  $E(X) = \frac{\theta}{\xi} \cdot \left(\frac{\left[1 F(H)\right]^{-\xi}}{1 \xi} 1\right)$  for  $\xi < 1$  (=  $\infty$  for  $\xi \ge 1$ )
- Inverse Fisher information of Truncated GPD:

$$A(\theta)^{-1} = (1+\xi) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} (1+\xi) & -\theta \left(1+(1+2\xi)\left(\frac{H}{\theta}\right)\right) \\ -\theta \left(1+(1+2\xi)\left(\frac{H}{\theta}\right)\right) & \theta^2 \left(2+2(1+2\xi)\left(\frac{H}{\theta}\right)+(1+\xi)(1+2\xi)\left(\frac{H}{\theta}\right)^2\right) \end{bmatrix}$$

From Roehr (2002)





 $\sim$   $\leq$  > 0 for  $H < \pi < \infty$   $0 < 0 < \infty$ 

PDF and CDF of LogGamma\*:

$$f(x;a,b) = \frac{b^{a} (\log(x))^{(a-1)}}{\Gamma(a) x^{b+1}} \qquad F(x;a,b) = \int_{1}^{x} \frac{b^{a} (\log(y))^{(a-1)}}{\Gamma(a) y^{b+1}} dy$$

 $1 \le x < \infty; \ 0 < a; \ 0 < b$ where  $\Gamma(a)$  is the complete gamma function

- Mean of LogGamma:  $E(X) = \left(\frac{b}{b-1}\right)^a$  for b > 1; otherwise  $E(X) = \infty$
- Inverse Fisher information of LogGamma:

$$A(\theta)^{-1} = \frac{1}{(a/b^2) \cdot trigamma(a) - 1/b^2} \begin{bmatrix} a/b^2 & 1/b \\ 1/b & trigamma(a) \end{bmatrix}$$

From Opdyke and Cavallo (2012a)

\*NOTE that a location parameter can be added to change the lower end of the domain to zero, but this is unnecessary in this setting. Also note that this is the "rate" or "inverse scale" parameterization of the LogGamma, which can also be defined with a "scale" parameterization wherein b = 1/b.





• PDF and CDF of Truncated LogGamma\*:

$$g(x;a,b) = \frac{f(x;a,b)}{1 - F(H;a,b)} \qquad G(x;a,b) = 1 - \frac{1 - F(x;a,b)}{1 - F(H;a,b)}$$

 $H \le x < \infty; \ 0 < a; \ 0 < b$ f() is GPD PDF and F() is GPD CDF

• Mean of Truncated LogGamma:

$$E(X) = \left(\frac{b}{b-1}\right)^{a} \cdot \frac{1 - J\left(\log(H)(b-1);a,1\right)}{\left[1 - F(H)\right]} \text{ for } b > 1, \text{ otherwise } E(X) = \infty$$

where J() is the CDF of the Gamma distribution.

From Opdyke (2014)

• Inverse Fisher information of Truncated LogGamma:





• Inverse Fisher info. of Truncated LogGamma\*: 
$$A(\theta)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B & D \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$
 where

$$A = trigamma(a) - \frac{\left[\int_{1^{+}}^{H} \ln(b) + \ln(\ln(x)) - digamma(a)f(x)dx\right]^{2}}{\left[1 - F(H;a,b)\right]^{2}} - \frac{\left[1 - F(H;a,b)\right] \cdot \int_{1^{+}}^{H} \left[\ln(b) + \ln(\ln(x)) - digamma(a)\right]^{2} - trigamma(a)f(x)dx}{\left[1 - F(H;a,b)\right]^{2}}$$

$$B = -\frac{1}{b} - \frac{\left[1 - F(H;a,b)\right] \cdot \frac{1}{b} \cdot F(H;a,b)}{\left[1 - F(H;a,b)\right]^2} - \frac{\left[1 - F(H;a,b)\right] \cdot \int_{I^+}^{H} \left[\ln(b) + \ln(\ln(x)) - digamma(a)\right] \cdot \left[\frac{a}{b} - \ln(x)\right] f(x) dx}{\left[1 - F(H;a,b)\right]^2}$$
$$- \frac{\int_{I^+}^{H} \ln(b) + \ln(\ln(x)) - digamma(a) f(x) dx \cdot \int_{I^+}^{H} \left(\frac{a}{b} - \ln(x)\right) f(x) dx}{\left[1 - F(H;a,b)\right]^2}$$

$$D = \frac{a}{b^{2}} - \frac{\left[\int_{t^{*}}^{H} \left(\frac{a}{b} - \ln(y)\right) f(x) dx\right]^{2} + \left[1 - F(H;a,b)\right] \cdot \int_{t^{*}}^{H} \frac{a(a-1)}{b^{2}} - \frac{2a\ln(y)}{b} + \left[\ln(y)\right]^{2} f(x) dx}{\left[1 - F(H;a,b)\right]^{2}}$$

#### From Opdyke and Cavallo (2012b)

\*The digamma and trigamma functions are the first and second order logarithmic derivatives of the complete gamma function: digamma(z) =  $\partial/\partial z \ln[\Gamma(z)]$  and trigamma(z) =  $\partial^2/\partial z^2 \ln[\Gamma(z)]$ .



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## • Inverse Fisher information of Truncated LogGamma:

To avoid computationally expensive numeric integration, Opdyke (2014) derives the analytic approximation below:

$$A(\theta)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B & D \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$
 where

$$A = \frac{1}{a^{4}UIG^{2}} \times \left\{ \left[ -\left(GHG2\right)^{2} \right] \cdot \left(-z\right)^{2a} + 2a\left(-z\right)^{a} \cdot \left[ -UIG \cdot GHG3 + a\Gamma(a) \cdot GHG2 \cdot \left(Log\left(-z\right) - digamma(a)\right) \right] + a^{4}\Gamma(a) \left[ -\left(\Gamma(a) - UIG\right) \cdot \left(Log\left(-z\right) - digamma(a)\right)^{2} + UIG \cdot trigamma(a) \right] \right\}$$

$$B = \frac{1}{a^2 b U I G^2} \times \left\{ t^{-b} \cdot G H G 2 \cdot \left(-z\right)^{2a} - a^2 \left(t^b U I G^2 + \Gamma\left(a\right) \left(-z\right)^a \left(Log\left(-z\right) - digamma\left(a\right)\right)\right) \right\}$$

$$D = \frac{a}{b^{2}} + \frac{t^{-b} (-z)^{a} (1 - a - z)}{b^{2} UIG} - \frac{t^{-2b} (-z)^{2a}}{b^{2} UIG^{2}}$$

where...



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## • Inverse Fisher information of Truncated LogGamma:

$$t = \text{ data collection (truncation) threshold}$$
  

$$\eta = 0.001$$
  

$$adown = a - \eta$$
  

$$aup = a + \eta$$
  

$$z = -bLog[t]$$
  
divide  $aup = divau = \frac{\Gamma(a+1)}{(-z)^a}$   
divide  $adown = divad = \frac{\Gamma(adown+1)}{(-z)^{adown}}$   
divide  $aup = divau = \frac{\Gamma(aup+1)}{(-z)^{aup}}$ 

$$GHG2 = divad \cdot J(-z; adown, 1) \frac{aup}{aup - adown} + divau \cdot J(-z; aup, 1) \frac{adown}{adown - aup}$$

$$GHG3 = divad \cdot J(-z; adown, 1) \left(\frac{aup}{aup - adown}\right) \left(\frac{a}{a - adown}\right) + diva \cdot J(-z; a, 1) \left(\frac{adown}{adown - a}\right) \left(\frac{aup}{aup - a}\right) + divau \cdot J(-z; aup, 1) \left(\frac{adown}{adown - aup}\right) \left(\frac{a}{a - adown}\right) \quad \text{where } J() \text{ is the CDF of the Gamma distribution.}$$

UIG = upper incomplete gamma function =  $\Gamma(a, -z) = \Gamma(a)(1 - J(-z; a, b = 1))$ 



where...

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## 9. Appendix D: Rejection of "Trimming" Methods

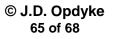
In a non-published paper, Zhou et al. (2015) present a modification of RCE. The approach follow's Opdyke (2014) in both timing and methodology by using a median/mean ratio of estimated capital combined with an adjustment factor.

Adjusted capital = capital \* [median of simulated capital / mean of simulated capital]

Unfortunately, in attempting to compensate for greater instability due to its reliance on simple parameter simulation (as opposed to a far more stable approach based on the median-of-median of parameter estimates), their adjustment factor relies on data "trimming." Estimation methods like "trimming" that rely on systematically discarding a percentage of observed loss data (or simulated data based on parameter estimates which are based on observed loss data) have not been well received by regulators. In addition, the more simple approach of Zhou et al. (2015) approach has the following disadvantages relative to RCE:

- 1. It appears to be far less stable than RCE, which is designed specifically to avoid these instability issues (see above)
- 2. It is tested far less extensively on fewer severities
- 3. It appears to have greater capital bias compared to RCE, and the authors state that further "tuning" of the amount of "trimming" required is needed for its application to additional severities
- 4. Its execution time is slower, sometimes by orders of magnitude (RCE typically is implemented within one or two seconds)
- 5. The authors themselves conclude that their alternate method provides " 'limited' improvement" and is not sufficient to use within a loss distribution approach for operational risk capital estimation.







## 9. Appendix D: Rejection of "Trimming" Methods

In addition, Zhou et al.'s (2015) focus on so-called "median bias" is at odds with their own estimator, the statistical literature, and the primary goals of the operational risk capital estimation setting.

1) For nearly a century, statistical "bias" has been defined with respect to the mean of an estimator, not one of its quantiles (such as the median).

2) To the extent that researchers would like to design an estimator centered on a particular quantile (such as a median), the (highly) skewed nature of the operational risk capital distribution (under the loss distribution approach) means that the capital estimator cannot be unbiased simultaneously with respect to both the mean and the median. Zhou et al. (2015) acknowledge this, but then proceed to follow Opdyke (2014) and attempt to design a capital estimator (actually, to modify RCE) in a manner that is "unbiased" in the traditional sense (i.e. vis-à-vis the mean) while ignoring so-called "median bias".

3) Exploring the possibility of estimators that are unbiased with respect to a particular quantile is arguably the wrong approach here. Far more relevant is the question of how close to ALL estimator quantiles is the true value of capital, on average? Or even more pertinent, given the extreme right-skewness of the capital distribution (based on ANY of the widely used frequency and severity estimators), is how close is the true value of capital, on average, to the quantiles in the right tail of the (estimator's) capital distribution? Stated differently, how well does the estimator "pull in" and eliminate extremes in the right tail? The most established and widely used statistic that at least indirectly addresses the first question is, simply, the RMSE. And Opdyke (2014) shows RCE-based capital to always have smaller – and often dramatically smaller – RMSE compared to MLE-based capital. Regarding the second question, specifically with reference to RCE, Opdyke (2014) showed empirically that the right tail of the capital distribution (even as close to the body as the 60% tile) was far closer to true capital than that based on MLE. In other words, Opdyke (2014) showed that the RCE-based capital distribution is far less skewed than that based on MLE (by both traditional measures of skew and quantile-based measures). And skewness is the far more important question to address in this setting compared to so-called "median bias": wildly inflated capital estimates in the right tail, due to instability of the estimator (as happens to Zhou et al. (2015) in the absence of "trimming"), are exactly what researchers and regulators are most concerned with and seeking to avoid, not whether the median of the estimator is close(r) to true capital.

Thus does Opdyke (2014) show that the two most established and widely used metrics – skewness and RMSE – that also happen to matter most in this setting are those by which RCE-based capital has been rigorously tested and is vastly superior to MLE-based capital. So-called "median bias" arguably has little to no relevance in this setting.



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#### Estimating Operational Risk Capital with Greater Accuracy, Precision, and Robustness

The largest US banks and Systemically Important Financial Institutions are required by regulatory mandate to estimate the operational risk capital they must hold using an Advanced Measurement Approach (AMA) as defined by the Basel II/III Accords. Most of these institutions use the Loss Distribution Approach (LDA) which defines the aggregate loss distribution as the convolution of a frequency distribution and a severity distribution representing the number and magnitude of losses, respectively. Capital is a Value-at-Risk estimate of this annual loss distribution (i.e. the quantile corresponding to the 99.9% tile, representing a one-in-a-thousand-year loss, on average). In practice, the severity distribution drives the capital estimate, which is essentially a very large quantile of the estimated severity distribution. Unfortunately, when using LDA with any of the widely used severity distributions (i.e. heavy-tailed, skewed distributions), all unbiased estimators of severity distribution parameters generate biased capital estimates apparently due to Jensen's Inequality: VaR always appears to be a convex function of these severities' parameter estimates because the (severity) quantile being estimated is so large and the severities are heavy-tailed. The resulting bias means that capital requirements always will be overstated, and this inflation is sometimes enormous (sometimes even billions of dollars at the unit-of-measure level). Herein I present an estimator of capital that essentially eliminates this upward bias when used with any commonly used severity parameter estimator. The Reducedbias Capital Estimator (RCE), consequently, is more consistent with regulatory intent regarding the responsible implementation of the LDA framework than other implementations that fail to mitigate, if not eliminate this bias. RCE also notably increases the precision of the capital estimate and consistently increases its robustness to violations of the i.i.d. data presumption (which are endemic to operational risk loss event data). So with greater capital accuracy, precision, and robustness, RCE lowers capital requirements at both the unit-of-measure and enterprise levels, increases capital stability from quarter to quarter, ceteris paribus, and does both while more accurately and precisely reflecting regulatory intent. RCE is straightforward to explain, understand, and implement using any major statistical software package.



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