

Non-Life Insurance: Mathematics and Statistics

Solution sheet 8

Solution 8.1 Panjer Algorithm

For the expected yearly claim amount π_0 we have

$$\pi_0 = \mathbb{E}[S] = \mathbb{E}[N] \mathbb{E}[Y_1] = 1 \cdot \mathbb{E}[k + Z] = k + \mathbb{E}[Z] = k + \exp \left\{ \mu + \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right\} \approx 4'124.$$

Let Y_i^+ denote the discretized claim sizes using a span of $s = 10$, where we put all the probability mass to the upper end of the intervals. Note that $k = 10s$. If we write $g_l = \mathbb{P}[Y_1^+ = sl]$ for all $l \in \mathbb{N}$, then we have

$$g_1 = g_2 = \dots = g_{10} = 0,$$

since $\mathbb{P}[Y_1^+ \leq 10s] = \mathbb{P}[k + Z \leq 10s] = \mathbb{P}[Z \leq 0] = 0$. For all $l \geq 11$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} g_l &= \mathbb{P}[Y_1^+ = sl] = \mathbb{P}[Y_1^+ = k + s(l - 10)] = \mathbb{P}[k + s(l - 11) < Y_1 \leq k + s(l - 10)] \\ &= \mathbb{P}[Y_1 \leq k + s(l - 10)] - \mathbb{P}[Y_1 \leq k + s(l - 11)] = \mathbb{P}[Z \leq s(l - 10)] - \mathbb{P}[Z \leq s(l - 11)] \\ &= \Phi \left(\frac{\log[s(l - 10)] - \mu}{\sigma} \right) - \Phi \left(\frac{\log[s(l - 11)] - \mu}{\sigma} \right), \end{aligned}$$

where Φ is the distribution function of the standard Gaussian distribution and where we define $\log 0 = -\infty$. From now on we replace the original claim sizes Y_i with the discretized claim sizes Y_i^+ , but, by a slight abuse of notation, we still write S for the yearly claim amount.

Note that $N \sim \text{Poi}(1)$ has a Panjer distribution with parameters $a = 0$ and $b = 1$, see Corollary 4.8 of the lecture notes (version of December 17, 2020). Applying the Panjer algorithm given in Theorem 4.9 of the lecture notes (version of December 17, 2020), we have for $r \in \mathbb{N}_0$

$$f_r \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \mathbb{P}[S = sr] = \begin{cases} \mathbb{P}[N = 0], & \text{for } r = 0, \\ \sum_{l=1}^r \frac{l}{r} g_l f_{r-l}, & \text{for } r > 0. \end{cases}$$

Since the yearly amount that the client has to pay by himself is given by

$$S_{\text{ins}} = \min\{S, d\} + \min\{\alpha \cdot (S - d)_+, M\} = \min\{S, d\} + \alpha \cdot \min \left\{ (S - d)_+, \frac{M}{\alpha} \right\},$$

$M/\alpha = 7'000$ and the maximal possible franchise is $2'500$, we have to apply the Panjer algorithm until we reach $\mathbb{P}[S = 9'500] = f_{950}$. Here we limit ourselves to determine the values of f_0, \dots, f_{12} to illustrate how the algorithm works. We have

$$f_0 = \mathbb{P}[N = 0] = e^{-1} \approx 0.37$$

and

$$f_1 = f_2 = \dots = f_{10} = 0,$$

since $g_1 = g_2 = \dots = g_{10} = 0$. For $r = 11$ and $r = 12$ we get

$$f_{11} = \sum_{l=1}^{11} \frac{l}{11} g_l f_{11-l} = g_{11} f_0 = \left[\Phi \left(\frac{\log s - \mu}{\sigma} \right) - \Phi \left(\frac{\log 0 - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \right] e^{-1} \approx 7.089 \cdot 10^{-9}$$

and

$$f_{12} = \sum_{l=1}^{12} \frac{l}{12} g_l f_{12-l} = g_{12} f_0 = \left[\Phi \left(\frac{\log 2s - \mu}{\sigma} \right) - \Phi \left(\frac{\log s - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \right] e^{-1} \approx 2.786 \cdot 10^{-7}.$$

Using the discretized claim sizes, the yearly expected amount π_{ins} paid by the customer is given by

$$\pi_{\text{ins}} = \mathbb{E}[S_{\text{ins}}] = \mathbb{E}[\min\{S, d\}] + \alpha \mathbb{E} \left[\min \left\{ (S - d)_+, \frac{M}{\alpha} \right\} \right],$$

where we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\min\{S, d\}] = \sum_{r=0}^{d/s} f_r s r + d \left(1 - \sum_{r=0}^{d/s} f_r \right) = d + \sum_{r=0}^{d/s} f_r (s r - d)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[\min \left\{ (S - d)_+, \frac{M}{\alpha} \right\} \right] &= \sum_{r=d/s+1}^{d/s+M/s\alpha} f_r (s r - d) + \frac{M}{\alpha} \left(1 - \sum_{r=0}^{d/s+M/s\alpha} f_r \right) \\ &= \frac{M}{\alpha} + \sum_{r=d/s+1}^{d/s+M/s\alpha} f_r \left(s r - d - \frac{M}{\alpha} \right) - \frac{M}{\alpha} \sum_{r=0}^{d/s} f_r. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_{\text{ins}} &= d + \sum_{r=0}^{d/s} f_r (s r - d) + \alpha \left[\frac{M}{\alpha} + \sum_{r=d/s+1}^{d/s+M/s\alpha} f_r \left(s r - d - \frac{M}{\alpha} \right) - \frac{M}{\alpha} \sum_{r=0}^{d/s} f_r \right] \\ &= d + M + \sum_{r=0}^{d/s} f_r (s r - d - M) + \sum_{r=d/s+1}^{d/s+M/s\alpha} \alpha f_r \left(s r - d - \frac{M}{\alpha} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Finally, if the customer has chosen franchise d , then the monthly pure risk premium π is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \pi &= \frac{\pi_0 - \pi_{\text{ins}}}{12} \\ &= \frac{1}{12} \left[k + \exp \left\{ \mu + \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right\} - d - M - \sum_{r=0}^{d/s} f_r (s r - d - M) - \sum_{r=d/s+1}^{d/s+M/s\alpha} \alpha f_r \left(s r - d - \frac{M}{\alpha} \right) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

In the end, we get the following monthly pure risk premiums π for the different franchises d :

franchise d	300	500	1'000	1'500	2'000	2'500
monthly pure risk premium π	307	297	274	253	233	216

Table 1: Monthly pure risk premiums π for the different franchises d .

More generally, the monthly pure risk premium π as a function of the franchise d , which is allowed to vary between 300 CHF and 2'500 CHF, is given in Figure 1. The R code used to calculate the values in Table 1 and to generate Figure 1 is given in Listings 1 and 2. Note that these monthly premiums only represent pure risk premiums. In order to get the premiums that the customer has to pay in the end, we would need to add an appropriate risk-loading, which may vary between different health insurance companies.

Listing 1: R code for Exercise 8.1 (Function to calculate risk premium).

```

1 KK_premium <- function(lambda, mu, sigma2, span, shift){
2   M <- 9500
3   m <- floor(M/span)
4   k0 <- shift/span
5   g_min <- array(0, dim=c(m+1,1))   ### mass put to the lower end of the interval
6   for (k in (k0+1):(m+1)){
7     g_min[k,1] <- pnorm(log((k-k0)*span), mean=mu, sd=sqrt(sigma2))-pnorm(log((k-k0-1)*span),
8       mean=mu, sd=sqrt(sigma2))
9   }
10  g_max <- array(0, dim=c(m+1,1))   ### mass is put to the upper end of the interval
11  g_max[2:(m+1),1] <- g_min[1:m,1]
12  f1 <- matrix(0, nrow=m+1, ncol=3)   ### probability to get zero claims
13  f1[1,1] <- exp(-lambda*(1-g_min[1,1]))
14  f1[1,2] <- exp(-lambda*(1-g_max[1,1]))
15  h1 <- matrix(0, nrow=m, ncol=3)   ### for values "l*g_{1}" of the discretized claim sizes
16  for (i in 1:m){
17    h1[i,1] <- g_min[i+1,1]*(i+1)
18    h1[i,2] <- g_max[i+1,1]*(i+1)
19  }
20  for (r in 1:m){   ### Panjer algorithm (a=0 and b=lambda*v, which is just lambda here)
21    f1[r+1,1] <- lambda/r*(t(f1[1:r,1])%*%h1[r:1,1])
22    f1[r+1,2] <- lambda/r*(t(f1[1:r,2])%*%h1[r:1,2])
23    f1[r+1,3] <- r*span
24  }
25  m1 <- 2500   ### maximal franchise
26  m0 <- 300   ### minimal franchise
27  i1 <- floor(m1/span+1)   ### number of iterations to m1
28  i0 <- floor(m0/span+1)   ### number of iterations to m0
29  franchise <- array(NA, c(i1,3))
30  for (i in i0:i1){
31    franchise[i,1] <- f1[i,3]   ### this represents the franchise
32    franchise[i,2] <- sum(f1[1:i,1]*f1[1:i,3])+f1[i,3]*(1-sum(f1[1:i,1]))
33    franchise[i,2] <- franchise[i,2]+sum(f1[(i+1):floor(i+7000/span),1]
34      *f1[2:floor(7000/span+1),3])*0.1
35      +700*(1-sum(f1[1:floor(i+7000/span),1]))
36    franchise[i,3] <- sum(f1[1:i,2]*f1[1:i,3])+f1[i,3]*(1-sum(f1[1:i,2]))
37    franchise[i,3] <- franchise[i,3]+sum(f1[(i+1):floor(i+7000/span),2]
38      *f1[2:floor(7000/span+1),3])*0.1+700*(1-sum(f1[1:floor(i+7000/span),2]))
39  }
40  price <- array(NA, c(i1, 3))
41  price[,1] <- franchise[,1]   ### this represents the franchise
42  price[,2:3] <- (lambda*(exp(mu+sigma2/2)+shift)-franchise[,2:3])/12
43  price
44 }

```

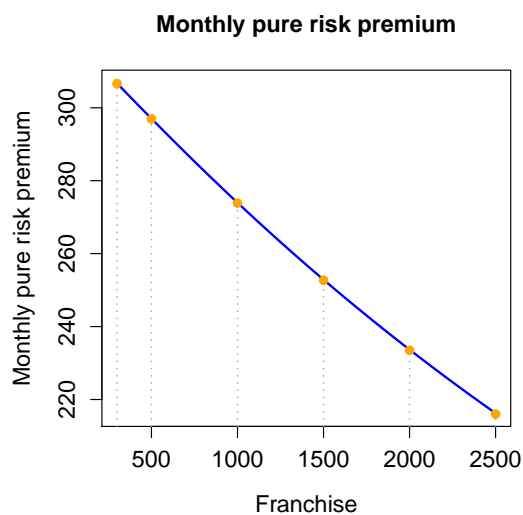


Figure 1: Plot of the monthly pure risk premium π as a function of the franchise d .

Listing 2: R code for Exercise 8.1 (Risk premium).

```

1  require(stats)
2  require(MASS)
3
4  ### Run the function KK_premium
5  lambda <- 1
6  mu <- 7.8
7  sigma2 <- 1
8  span <- 10
9  shift <- 100
10 price <- KK_premium(lambda, mu, sigma2, span, shift)
11
12 ### Plot the monthly pure risk premium as a function of the franchise
13 plot(x=price[,1], y=price[,2], lwd=2, col="blue", type='l', ylab="Monthly pure risk premium",
14      xlab="Franchise", main="Monthly pure risk premium", cex.lab=1.25, cex.main=1.25,
15      cex.axis=1.25)
16 points(x=c(300,500, 1000, 1500, 2000, 2500),
17        y=price[c(300,500, 1000, 1500, 2000, 2500)/span+1,3], pch=19, col="orange")
18 lines(x=c(300,300), y=c(0,price[300/span+1,3]),lty=3, lwd=1.5, col="darkgray")
19 lines(x=c(500,500), y=c(0,price[500/span+1,3]),lty=3, lwd=1.5, col="darkgray")
20 lines(x=c(1000,1000), y=c(0,price[1000/span+1,3]),lty=3, lwd=1.5, col="darkgray")
21 lines(x=c(1500,1500), y=c(0,price[1500/span+1,3]),lty=3, lwd=1.5, col="darkgray")
22 lines(x=c(2000,2000), y=c(0,price[2000/span+1,3]),lty=3, lwd=1.5, col="darkgray")
23 lines(x=c(2500,2500), y=c(0,price[2500/span+1,3]),lty=3, lwd=1.5, col="darkgray")
24
25 ### Give the monthly pure risk premiums for the six franchises listed on the exercise sheet
26 round(price[floor(c(300, 500, 1000, 1500, 2000, 2500)/span+1),2])
27 round(price[floor(c(300, 500, 1000, 1500, 2000, 2500)/span+1),3])
    
```

Solution 8.2 Monte Carlo Simulations

- (a) We assume that for this comparably simple problem with no heavy tails 100'000 Monte Carlo simulations are enough to provide an empirical distribution function of S which is close to the true distribution function of S . The R codes used for part (a) are given in Listings 3 - 6.

Listing 3: R code for Exercise 8.2 (a) (Monte Carlo simulations).

```

1  compound.poisson.distribution <- Vectorize(function(n, lambdav, shape, rate){
2    number.of.claims <- rpois(n=n, lambda=lambdav)
3    sum(rgamma(n=number.of.claims, shape=shape, rate=rate))
4  }, "n")
5  n <- 100000
6  lambdav <- 1000
7  shape <- 100
8  rate <- 1/10
9  set.seed(100)
10 claims <- compound.poisson.distribution(rep(1,n), lambdav, shape, rate)
    
```

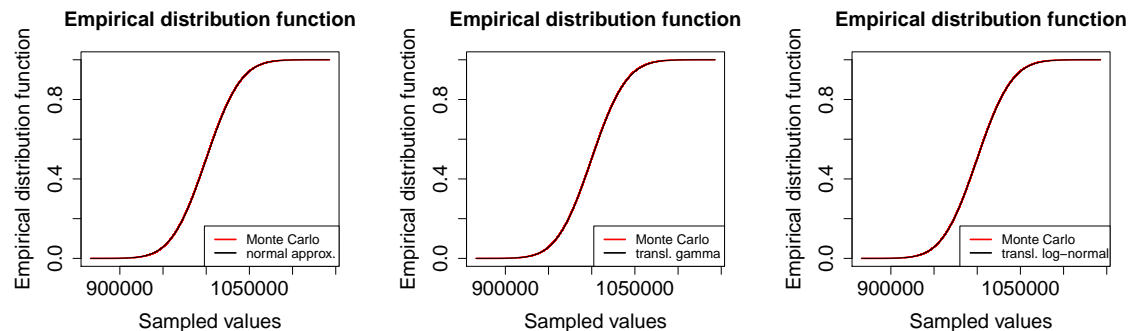


Figure 2: Comparison of the empirical distribution function of S resulting from 100'000 Monte Carlo simulations to the approximate distribution functions when using the normal (left), the translated gamma (middle) and the translated log-normal (right) approximation.

In Figure 2 we compare the empirical distribution function of S resulting from 100'000 Monte Carlo simulations to the approximate distribution functions when using the normal (left), the translated gamma (middle) and the translated log-normal (right) approximation. From these plots we cannot spot any differences between the various distribution functions. In Figure 3 we consider the log-log plot of the 100'000 Monte Carlo simulations of S and compare it to the normal (left), the translated gamma (middle) and the translated log-normal (right) approximation. We observe that all three approximations have a rather good fit to the tail of the distribution of S , but the translated gamma and the translated log-normal approximation seem slightly more accurate than the normal approximation. We conclude that in the absence of heavy tailed distributions the translated gamma and the translated log-normal approximation are very convincing in this example. Moreover, the skewness of S is small enough ($\zeta_S \approx 0.0321$, see Exercise 7.4) and the expected number of claims large enough ($\lambda v = 1'000$, see Exercise 7.3) for the normal approximation to be a valid approximation, too.

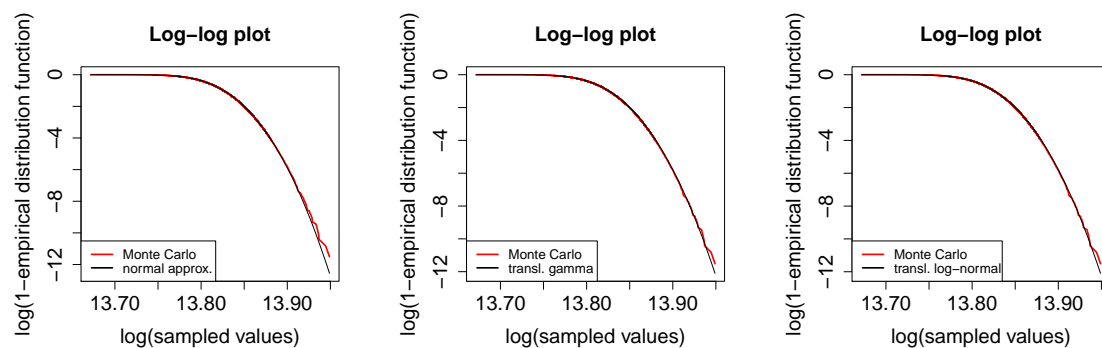


Figure 3: Log-log plot of the 100'000 Monte Carlo simulations of S compared to the normal (left), the translated gamma (middle) and the translated log-normal (right) approximation.

Listing 4: R code for Exercise 8.2 (a) (Normal approximation).

```

1 mu <- lambdav*shape/rate
2 sigma <- sqrt(lambdav*shape*(shape+1)/(rate^2))
3 par(mar=c(5.1, 4.4, 4.1, 2.1))
4 plot(claims[order(claims)], 1:n/(n+1), xlim=c(min(claims),max(claims)), type="l", col="red",
5      main="Empirical distribution function", xlab="Sampled values",
6      ylab="Empirical distribution function", cex.lab=1.5, cex.main=1.5, cex.axis=1.5, lwd=2)
7 lines(claims[order(claims)], pnorm((claims[order(claims)]),mu,sigma))
8 legend("bottomright", lty=1, lwd=2, col=c("red","black"),
9      legend=c("Monte Carlo","normal approx. "), cex=1)
10 plot(log(claims[order(claims)]), log(1-1:n/(n+1)), xlim=c(min(log(claims)),max(log(claims))),
11      ylim=c(min(log(1-n/(n+1))),log(1-pnorm((claims[order(claims)]),mu,sigma))),0), type="l",
12      col="red", main="Log-log plot", xlab="log(sampled values)",
13      ylab="log(1-empirical distribution function)", cex.lab=1.5, cex.main=1.5, cex.axis=1.5,
14      lwd=2)
15 lines(log(claims[order(claims)]), log(1-pnorm((claims[order(claims)]),mu,sigma)), col="black")
16 legend("bottomleft", lty=1, lwd=2, col=c("red","black"),
17      legend=c("Monte Carlo","normal approx. "), cex=1)
    
```

- (b) Replicating 10'000 Monte Carlo simulations 100 times already requires some time. This is also the reason why we chose 10'000 as maximum number of simulations and not 100'000 as in part (a). Note that every single time we use Monte Carlo simulations to derive quantities like for example the quantiles $q_{0.95}$ and $q_{0.99}$, we get different results. This is something one needs to be aware of, and it is in contrast to the normal, the translated gamma and the translated log-normal approximation. In Figure 4 we show the densities of the 100 quantiles $q_{0.95}$ (left) and $q_{0.99}$ (right) resulting from Listing 7 where we replicate the $n \in \{100, 1'000, 10'000\}$ Monte Carlo simulations 100 times. We see that increasing the number of simulations n for every replication, the uncertainty regarding the quantiles $q_{0.95}$ and $q_{0.99}$ is reduced.

Listing 5: R code for Exercise 8.2 (a) (Translated gamma approximation).

```

1  skews <- (lambdav*shape*(shape+1)*(shape+2)/rate^3)/(lambdav*shape*(shape+1)/rate^2)^(3/2)
2  shape2 <- 4/skews^2
3  rate2 <- sqrt(shape2/(lambdav*shape*(shape+1)/rate^2))
4  k <- lambdav*shape/rate-shape2/rate2
5  plot(claims[order(claims)], 1:n/(n+1), xlim=c(min(claims),max(claims)), type="l", col="red",
6       main="Empirical distribution function", xlab="Sampled values",
7       ylab="Empirical distribution function", cex.lab=1.5, cex.main=1.5, cex.axis=1.5, lwd=2)
8  lines(claims[order(claims)], pgamma((claims[order(claims)])-k,shape=shape2,rate=rate2))
9  legend("bottomright", lty=1, lwd=2, col=c("red","black"),
10        legend=c("Monte Carlo","transl. gamma  "), cex=1)
11  plot(log(claims[order(claims)]), log(1-1:n/(n+1)), xlim=c(min(log(claims)),max(log(claims))),
12       ylim=c(min(log(1-n/(n+1))),log(1-pgamma((claims[order(claims)])-k,shape=shape2,
13       rate=rate2))),0), type="l", col="red", main="Log-log plot", xlab="log(sampled values)",
14       ylab="log(1-empirical distribution function)", cex.lab=1.5, cex.main=1.5, cex.axis=1.5,
15       lwd=2)
16  lines(log(claims[order(claims)]), log(1-pgamma((claims[order(claims)])-k,shape=shape2,
17       rate=rate2)))
18  legend("bottomleft", lty=1, lwd=2, col=c("red","black"),
19        legend=c("Monte Carlo","transl. gamma  "), cex=1)
    
```

Listing 6: R code for Exercise 8.2 (a) (Translated log-normal approximation).

```

1  sigma.squared <- 0.00011444
2  mu2 <- 1/2*(log((exp(sigma.squared)-1)^(-1)*lambdav*shape*(shape+1)/rate^2)-sigma.squared)
3  k2 <- lambdav*shape/rate-exp(mu2+sigma.squared/2)
4  plot(claims[order(claims)], 1:n/(n+1), xlim=c(min(claims),max(claims)), type="l", col="red",
5       main="Empirical distribution function", xlab="Sampled values",
6       ylab="Empirical distribution function", cex.lab=1.5, cex.main=1.5, cex.axis=1.5, lwd=2)
7  lines(claims[order(claims)], pnorm(log((claims[order(claims)])-k2),mu2,sqrt(sigma.squared)))
8  legend("bottomright", lty=1, lwd=2, col=c("red","black"),
9        legend=c("Monte Carlo","transl. log-normal  "), cex=1)
10  plot(log(claims[order(claims)]), log(1-1:n/(n+1)), xlim=c(min(log(claims)),max(log(claims))),
11       ylim=c(min(log(1-n/(n+1))),log(1-pnorm(log((claims[order(claims)])-k2),mu2,
12       sqrt(sigma.squared))),0), type="l", col="red", main="Log-log plot",
13       xlab="log(sampled values)", ylab="log(1-empirical distribution function)", cex.lab=1.5,
14       cex.main=1.5, cex.axis=1.5, lwd=2)
15  lines(log(claims[order(claims)]), log(1-pnorm(log((claims[order(claims)])-k2),mu2,
16       sqrt(sigma.squared))))
17  legend("bottomleft", lty=1, lwd=2, col=c("red","black"),
18        legend=c("Monte Carlo","transl. log-normal  "), cex=1)
    
```

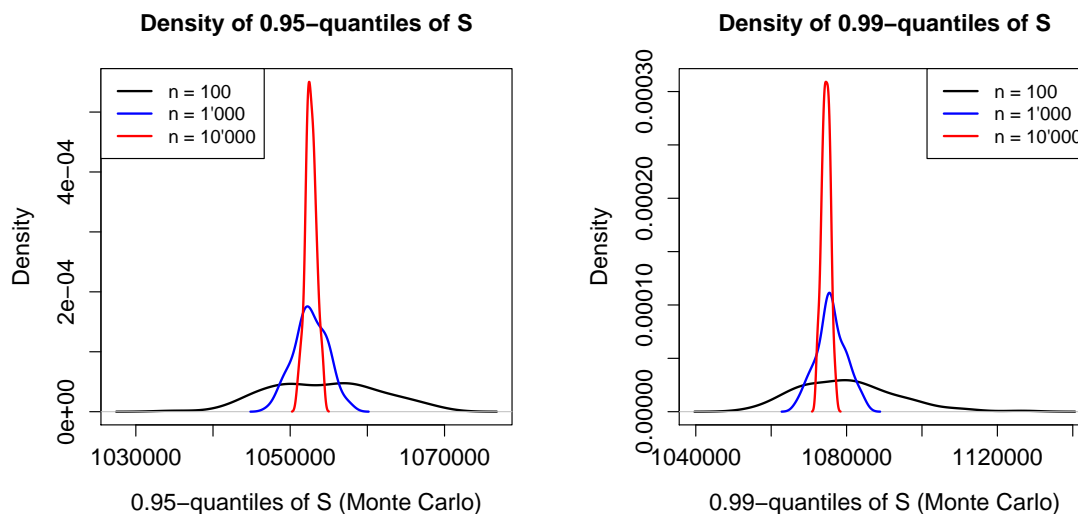


Figure 4: Densities of the 100 quantiles $q_{0.95}$ (left) and $q_{0.99}$ (right) resulting from replicating the $n \in \{100, 1'000, 10'000\}$ Monte Carlo simulations 100 times.

Listing 7: R code for Exercise 8.2 (b) (Quantiles).

```

1  ### Monte Carlo simulations
2  k <- 100
3  n <- c(100,1000,10000)
4  set.seed(100)
5  claims.1 <- array(compound.poisson.distribution(n=rep(1,k*n[1]), lambdav=1000, shape=100,
6                 rate=1/10), dim=c(n[1],k))
7  set.seed(200)
8  claims.2 <- array(compound.poisson.distribution(n=rep(1,k*n[2]), lambdav=1000, shape=100,
9                 rate=1/10), dim=c(n[2],k))
10 set.seed(300)
11 claims.3 <- array(compound.poisson.distribution(n=rep(1,k*n[3]), lambdav=1000, shape=100,
12                 rate=1/10), dim=c(n[3],k))
13
14 ### Function calculating alpha-quantiles of S on the basis of Monte Carlo simulations of S
15 quantiles.monte.carlo <- function(claims, alpha){
16   n <- nrow(claims)
17   claims.sorted <- apply(claims, 2, sort)
18   quantiles.alpha <- claims.sorted[floor(alpha*n)+1,]
19 }
20
21 ### 0.95-quantiles
22 range(quantiles.1 <- quantiles.monte.carlo(claims=claims.1, alpha=0.95))
23 range(quantiles.2 <- quantiles.monte.carlo(claims=claims.2, alpha=0.95))
24 range(quantiles.3 <- quantiles.monte.carlo(claims=claims.3, alpha=0.95))
25
26 ### Density
27 ymax <- max(density(quantiles.1)$y, density(quantiles.2)$y, density(quantiles.3)$y)
28 plot(density(quantiles.1), col="black", ylim=c(0,ymax), main="Density of 0.95-quantiles of S",
29       xlab="0.95-quantiles of S (Monte Carlo)", cex.lab=1.25, cex.main=1.25, cex.axis=1.25,
30       lwd=2)
31 lines(density(quantiles.2), col="blue", lwd=2)
32 lines(density(quantiles.3), col="red", lwd=2)
33 legend("topleft", col=c("black", "blue", "red"), lwd=2, lty=1,
34       legend=c("n = 100", "n = 1'000", "n = 10'000"))
35
36 ### 0.99-quantiles
37 range(quantiles.1 <- quantiles.monte.carlo(claims=claims.1, alpha=0.99))
38 range(quantiles.2 <- quantiles.monte.carlo(claims=claims.2, alpha=0.99))
39 range(quantiles.3 <- quantiles.monte.carlo(claims=claims.3, alpha=0.99))
40
41 ### Density
42 ymax <- max(density(quantiles.1)$y, density(quantiles.2)$y, density(quantiles.3)$y)
43 plot(density(quantiles.1), col="black", ylim=c(0,ymax), main="Density of 0.99-quantiles of S",
44       xlab="0.99-quantiles of S (Monte Carlo)", cex.lab=1.25, cex.main=1.25, cex.axis=1.25,
45       lwd=2)
46 lines(density(quantiles.2), col="blue", lwd=2)
47 lines(density(quantiles.3), col="red", lwd=2)
48 legend("topright", col=c("black", "blue", "red"), lwd=2, lty=1,
49       legend=c("n = 100", "n = 1'000", "n = 10'000"))

```

	$q_{0.95}$		$q_{0.99}$	
	smallest	largest	smallest	largest
Monte Carlo				
$n = 100$	1'035'018	1'069'209	1'053'719	1'126'533
$n = 1'000$	1'047'186	1'057'829	1'066'770	1'084'902
$n = 10'000$	1'050'955	1'054'282	1'072'045	1'077'195
Approximations				
normal		1'052'274		1'073'932
translated gamma		1'052'563		1'074'682
translated log-normal		1'052'562		1'074'684

Table 2: Smallest and largest observed values of the quantiles $q_{0.95}$ and $q_{0.99}$ among the 100 replications of the $n \in \{100, 1'000, 10'000\}$ Monte Carlo simulations together with the values of the quantiles $q_{0.95}$ and $q_{0.99}$ resulting from the normal, the translated gamma and the translated log-normal approximation.

One can reach the same conclusions from Table 2, where we give the smallest and the largest observed values of the quantiles $q_{0.95}$ and $q_{0.99}$ among the 100 replications of the $n \in \{100, 1'000, 10'000\}$ Monte Carlo simulations. Moreover, we also give the values of the quantiles $q_{0.95}$ and $q_{0.99}$ resulting from the normal, the translated gamma and the translated log-normal approximation, see Exercises 7.3 and 7.4. We see that the quantiles resulting from the approximations are always between the smallest and the largest observed value resulting from the Monte Carlo simulations. Of course, one can argue that we could choose the number of simulations n large enough such that the results do not vary considerably anymore. However, a too high number of simulations n will lead to an excessive computation time. This is especially true if one considers heavy tailed distributions. Therefore, one is often inclined to use other algorithms for compound distributions, such as the Panjer algorithm and fast Fourier transforms.

Solution 8.3 Fast Fourier Transform

Assume that \tilde{Y} follows the claim size distribution given on the exercise sheet. Let Y denote the discretized version of \tilde{Y} that takes values in \mathbb{N}_0 . More precisely, we shift the probability masses of \tilde{Y} to the right and define

$$\mathbb{P}[Y = 0] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{P}[Y = l] = \mathbb{P}[\tilde{Y} \leq l] - \mathbb{P}[\tilde{Y} \leq l - 1],$$

for all $l \in \mathbb{N}$. By a slight abuse of notation, we still write S for the compound Poisson distribution with discrete claim size distribution Y . In particular, also S takes values in \mathbb{N}_0 . We define

$$g_l = \mathbb{P}[Y = l] \quad \text{and} \quad f_l = \mathbb{P}[S = l],$$

for all $l \in \mathbb{N}_0$. We choose a threshold of $n = 2'000'000$, i.e. we determine the distribution function of S up to $n - 1$. Note that n is chosen sufficiently high such that we approximately have

$$\mathbb{P}[Y > n - 1] \approx 0. \tag{1}$$

We define $\mathcal{A} = \{0, \dots, n - 1\}$ and calculate the discrete Fourier transform $(\hat{g}_z)_{z \in \mathcal{A}}$ of $(g_l)_{l \in \mathcal{A}}$ by

$$\hat{g}_z = \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} g_l \exp \left\{ 2\pi i \frac{zl}{n} \right\}, \tag{2}$$

for all $z \in \mathcal{A}$. Due to (1), we approximately have

$$\hat{g}_z \approx \mathbb{E} \left[\exp \left\{ 2\pi i \frac{zY}{n} \right\} \right] = M_Y \left(2\pi i \frac{z}{n} \right),$$

for all $z \in \mathcal{A}$, where M_Y denotes the moment generating function of Y . Note that we use an extended version of the moment generating function also allowing for complex numbers. If M_S denotes the moment generating function of S , again extended to complex numbers, then, according to Proposition 2.11 of the lecture notes (version of December 17, 2020), we have

$$M_S \left(2\pi i \frac{z}{n} \right) = \exp \left\{ \lambda v \left[M_Y \left(2\pi i \frac{z}{n} \right) - 1 \right] \right\} \approx \exp \{ \lambda v (\hat{g}_z - 1) \}, \tag{3}$$

for all $z \in \mathcal{A}$. The left hand side of equation (3) can be written as

$$M_S \left(2\pi i \frac{z}{n} \right) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} f_l \exp \left\{ 2\pi i \frac{zl}{n} \right\} = \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} \left(f_l + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_{l+kn} \right) \exp \left\{ 2\pi i \frac{zl}{n} \right\},$$

for all $z \in \mathcal{A}$. Using the approximation

$$f_l \approx f_l + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_{l+kn}, \quad (4)$$

for all $l \in \mathcal{A}$, we compute the discrete Fourier transform $(\hat{f}_z)_{z \in \mathcal{A}}$ of $(f_l)_{l \in \mathcal{A}}$ by

$$\hat{f}_z = \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} f_l \exp \left\{ 2\pi i \frac{zl}{n} \right\} \approx M_S \left(2\pi i \frac{z}{n} \right) \approx \exp \{ \lambda v (\hat{g}_z - 1) \},$$

for all $z \in \mathcal{A}$. Applying the inversion formula of the discrete Fourier transform, we finally calculate

$$f_l = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{z=0}^{n-1} \hat{f}_z \exp \left\{ -2\pi i \frac{zl}{n} \right\}, \quad (5)$$

for all $l \in \mathcal{A}$. Note that due to the approximation in (4), instead of f_l we actually calculate

$$f_l + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_{l+kn} > f_l,$$

for all $l \in \mathcal{A}$. This error is called wrap around error (or aliasing error), and n should be chosen large enough in order to keep this wrap around error small.

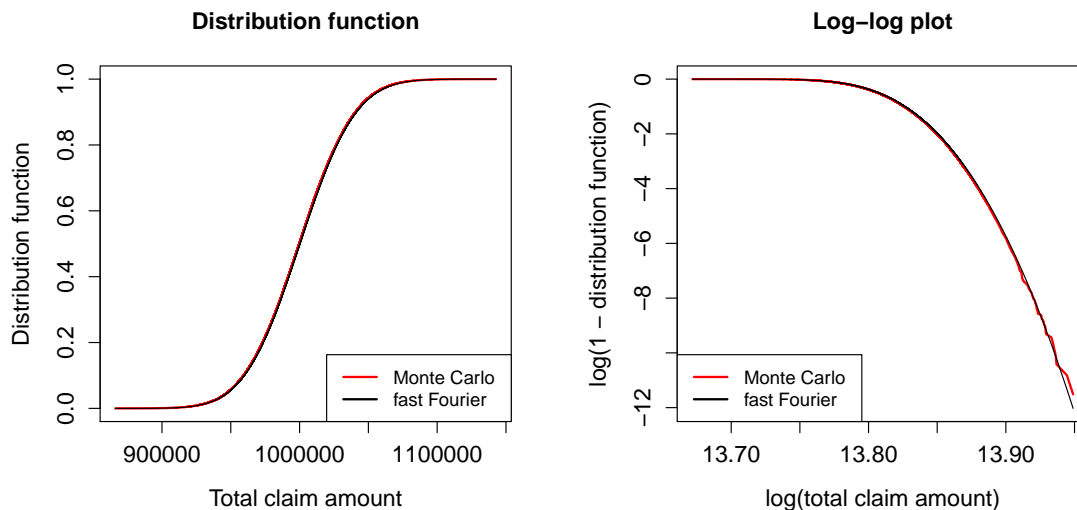


Figure 5: Comparison of the distribution function (left) and the log-log plot (right) of S resulting from the fast Fourier transform algorithm to the Monte Carlo simulations.

In R, the calculations in equations (2) and (5) can be done using the command `fft`. The corresponding R code is given in Listing 8. In Figure 5 we compare the distribution function (left) and the log-log plot (right) of S resulting from the fast Fourier transform algorithm to the Monte Carlo simulations of Exercise 8.2. We see that we get a very good fit. In particular, the threshold $n = 2'000'000$ seems to be high enough. For the 0.95-quantile $q_{0.95}$ and the 0.99-quantile $q_{0.99}$ we get

$$q_{0.95} = 1'053'089 \quad \text{and} \quad q_{0.99} = 1'075'215.$$

We see that we get values which are very close to the ones derived in Exercises 7.3 and 7.4, where we used the normal, the translated gamma and the translated log-normal approximation.

Listing 8: R code for Exercise 8.3.

```

1  ### Fast Fourier transform
2  n <- 2000000
3  lambdav <- 1000
4  claim.size <- c(0, pgamma(1:(n-1), shape=100, rate=1/10)-pgamma(0:(n-2), shape=100, rate=1/10))
5  claim.size.ft <- fft(claim.size)
6  total.claim.amount.ft <- exp(lambdav*(claim.size.ft-1))
7  total.claim.amount <- Re(fft(total.claim.amount.ft,inverse=TRUE)/length(total.claim.amount.ft))
8
9  ### Monte Carlo simulations from Exercise 8.2
10 compound.poisson.distribution <- Vectorize(function(n, lambdav, shape, rate){
11   number.of.claims <- rpois(n=n, lambda=lambdav)
12   sum(rgamma(n = number.of.claims, shape=shape, rate=rate))
13 },"n")
14 m <- 100000
15 set.seed(100)
16 claim.amounts <- compound.poisson.distribution(n=rep(1,m), lambdav=1000, shape=100, rate=1/10)
17
18 ### Calculate values of the distribution function of S using the fast Fourier transform
19 probabilities <- cumsum(total.claim.amount)[floor(claim.amounts[order(claim.amounts)])+1]
20
21 ### Check the fast Fourier transform result
22 par(mar=c(5.1, 4.4, 4.1, 2.1))
23 plot(claim.amounts[order(claim.amounts)], 1:m/(m+1),
24      xlim=c(min(claim.amounts),max(claim.amounts)), type="l", col="red",
25      main="Distribution function", xlab="Total claim amount", ylab="Distribution function",
26      cex.lab=1.25, cex.main=1.25, cex.axis=1.25, lwd=2)
27 lines(claim.amounts[order(claim.amounts)], probabilities, lwd=1)
28 legend("bottomright", lty=1, lwd=2, col=c("red","black"), legend=c("Monte Carlo","fast Fourier
29   "), cex=1)
30 plot(log(claim.amounts[order(claim.amounts)]), log(1-1:m/(m+1)),
31      xlim=c(min(log(claim.amounts)),max(log(claim.amounts))),
32      ylim=c(min(log(1-m/(m+1)),log(1-probabilities)),0), type="l", col="red",
33      main="Log-log plot", xlab="log(total claim amount)", ylab="log(1 - distribution function)",
34      cex.lab=1.25, cex.main=1.25, cex.axis=1.25, lwd=2)
35 lines(log(claim.amounts[order(claim.amounts)]), log(1-probabilities), col="black", lwd=1)
36 legend("bottomleft", lty=1, lwd=2, col=c("red","black"), legend=c("Monte Carlo","fast Fourier
37   "), cex=1)
38
39 ### Determine the 0.95- and the 0.99-quantiles
40 which(cumsum(total.claim.amount) > 0.95)[1]-1
41 which(cumsum(total.claim.amount) > 0.99)[1]-1

```

Solution 8.4 Panjer Distribution

If we write $p_k = \mathbb{P}[N = k]$, for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, then, by definition of the Panjer distribution, we have

$$p_k = p_{k-1} \left(a + \frac{b}{k} \right),$$

for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$. We can use this recursion to calculate $\mathbb{E}[N]$ and $\text{Var}(N)$. Note that the range of N is \mathbb{N} , if $a \geq 0$, and $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$, if $a < 0$.

First, we consider the case where $a < 0$, i.e. where the range of N is $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$. According to the proof of Lemma 4.7 of the lecture notes (version of December 17, 2020), we have

$$n = -\frac{a+b}{a}. \tag{6}$$

For the expectation of N we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}[N] &= \sum_{k=0}^n k p_k = \sum_{k=1}^n k p_k = \sum_{k=1}^n k p_{k-1} \left(a + \frac{b}{k} \right) = a \sum_{k=1}^n k p_{k-1} + b \sum_{k=1}^n p_{k-1} \\
 &= a \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (k+1) p_k + b \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} p_k = a \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k p_k + (a+b) \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} p_k = a (\mathbb{E}[N] - n p_n) + (a+b)(1 - p_n) \\
 &= a \mathbb{E}[N] + a + b + p_n (-an - a - b).
 \end{aligned}$$

Using (6), we get

$$-an - a - b = a \frac{a+b}{a} - a - b = 0. \quad (7)$$

Hence, the above expression for $\mathbb{E}[N]$ simplifies to

$$\mathbb{E}[N] = a\mathbb{E}[N] + a + b,$$

from which we can conclude that

$$\mathbb{E}[N] = \frac{a+b}{1-a}.$$

In order to get the variance of N , we first calculate the second moment of N :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[N^2] &= \sum_{k=0}^n k^2 p_k = \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 p_k = \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 p_{k-1} \left(a + \frac{b}{k} \right) = a \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 p_{k-1} + b \sum_{k=1}^n k p_{k-1} \\ &= a \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (k+1)^2 p_k + b \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (k+1) p_k = a \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k^2 p_k + (2a+b) \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k p_k + (a+b) \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} p_k \\ &= a(\mathbb{E}[N^2] - n^2 p_n) + (2a+b)(\mathbb{E}[N] - np_n) + (a+b)(1-p_n) \\ &= a\mathbb{E}[N^2] + (2a+b)\mathbb{E}[N] + a + b + p_n[-an^2 - (2a+b)n - a - b]. \end{aligned}$$

Using (6), we get

$$\begin{aligned} -an^2 - (2a+b)n - a - b &= -a \left(\frac{a+b}{a} \right)^2 + (2a+b) \frac{a+b}{a} - a - b \\ &= -\frac{a^2 + 2ab + b^2}{a} + \frac{2a^2 + 3ab + b^2}{a} - \frac{a^2 + ab}{a} \\ &= 0. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Hence, the above expression for $\mathbb{E}[N^2]$ simplifies to

$$\mathbb{E}[N^2] = a\mathbb{E}[N^2] + (2a+b)\mathbb{E}[N] + a + b,$$

from which we get

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[N^2] &= \frac{(2a+b)\mathbb{E}[N] + a + b}{1-a} = \frac{(2a+b)(a+b) + (a+b)(1-a)}{(1-a)^2} \\ &= \frac{2a^2 + 3ab + b^2 + a - a^2 + b - ab}{(1-a)^2} = \frac{(a+b)^2 + a + b}{(1-a)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, the variance of N then is

$$\text{Var}(N) = \mathbb{E}[N^2] - \mathbb{E}[N]^2 = \frac{(a+b)^2 + a + b}{(1-a)^2} - \frac{(a+b)^2}{(1-a)^2} = \frac{a+b}{(1-a)^2}.$$

In the case where $a \geq 0$, i.e. where the range of N is \mathbb{N} , we can perform analogous calculations with the only difference that the index of summation in all the sums involved goes up to ∞ instead of stopping at n . As a consequence, the calculations in (7) and in (8) aren't necessary anymore. The formulas for $\mathbb{E}[N]$ and $\text{Var}(N)$, however, remain the same.

The ratio of $\text{Var}(N)$ to $\mathbb{E}[N]$ is given by

$$\frac{\text{Var}(N)}{\mathbb{E}[N]} = \frac{a+b}{(1-a)^2} \frac{1-a}{a+b} = \frac{1}{1-a}.$$

Note that if $a < 0$, i.e. if N has a binomial distribution, we have $\text{Var}(N) < \mathbb{E}[N]$. If $a = 0$, i.e. if N has a Poisson distribution, we have $\text{Var}(N) = \mathbb{E}[N]$. Finally, in the case of $a > 0$, i.e. for a negative-binomial distribution, we have $\text{Var}(N) > \mathbb{E}[N]$.