#### DOI: 10.1111/mafi.12417

# ORIGINAL ARTICLE

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# Risk concentration and the mean-expected shortfall criterion

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## **Funding information**

Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada, Grant/Award Numbers: RGPAS-2018-522590, RGPIN-2018-03823

# **Abstract**

Expected shortfall (ES, also known as CVaR) is the most important coherent risk measure in finance, insurance, risk management, and engineering. Recently, Wang and Zitikis (2021) put forward four economic axioms for portfolio risk assessment and provide the first economic axiomatic foundation for the family of ES. In particular, the axiom of no reward for concentration (NRC) is arguably quite strong, which imposes an additive form of the risk measure on portfolios with a certain dependence structure. We move away from the axiom of NRC by introducing the notion of concentration aversion, which does not impose any specific form of the risk measure. It turns out that risk measures with concentration aversion are functions of ES and the expectation. Together with the other three standard axioms of monotonicity, translation invariance and lower semicontinuity, concentration aversion uniquely characterizes the family of ES. In addition, we establish an axiomatic foundation for the problem of mean-ES portfolio selection and new explicit formulas for convex and consistent risk measures. Finally, we provide an economic justification for concentration aversion via a few axioms on the attitude of a regulator towards dependence structures.

## **KEYWORDS**

 $concentration\ aversion,\ dependence,\ portfolio\ selection,\ risk\ measures,\ tail\ event$ 

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# 1 | INTRODUCTION

The quantification of market risk for pricing, portfolio selection, and risk management purposes has long been a point of interest to researchers and practitioners in finance. Since the early 1990s, Value-at-Risk (VaR) has been the leading tool for measuring market risk because of its conceptual simplicity and easy evaluation. It is well known that VaR has been criticized because of its fundamental deficiencies; for instance, it does not account for "tail risk" and its lack of subadditivity or convexity; see for example, Daníelsson et al. (2001). These limitations have prompted the implementation of an alternative measure of risk, the expected shortfall (ES), also known as CVaR, TVaR, and AVaR in various contexts.

As the dominating class of risk measures in financial practice, ES has many nice theoretical properties. In particular, ES satisfies the four axioms of coherence (Artzner et al., 1999), and it is also additive for comonotonic risks (Kusuoka, 2001), and thus it is a convex Choquet integral (Schmeidler, 1989; Yaari, 1987). In addition to these theoretic properties, ES admits a nice representation as the minimum of expected losses (Rockafellar & Uryasev, 2002), which allows for convenience in convex optimization. In the recent Fundamental Review of the Trading Book (BCBS, 2016, 2019), the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision proposed a shift from the 99% VaR to the 97.5% ES as the standard risk measure for internal models in market risk assessment. All the above reasons make ES arguably the most important risk measure in banking practice and insurance regulation.

The study of axiomatic characterization of risk measures provides guidelines for choosing among various choices of risk measures. Several sets of axioms have been established to characterize VaR, including those of Chambers (2009), Kou and Peng (2016), He and Peng (2018), and Liu and Wang (2021). Fewer scholars analyze the axiomatic foundation for ES. In some papers, ES is identified based on its joint property with the corresponding VaR; in particular, ES is the smallest law-invariant coherent risk measure dominating VaR (Delbaen, 2002), the only coherent distortion risk measure co-elicitable with VaR (Wang & Wei, 2020), and the only coherent Bayes risk measure with VaR being its Bayes estimator (Embrechts et al., 2021).

Different from the above literature relying on VaR to identify ES, Wang and Zitikis (2021) proposed four axioms, monotonicity, law invariance, prudence, and no reward for concentration (NRC), in the context of portfolio risk assessment, which jointly characterize the family of ES. The key axiom [NRC] means that a *concentrated* portfolio, whose components incur large losses simultaneously in a stress event *A* of regulatory interest, does not receive any capital reduction. This axiom reflects two important common features in portfolio risk assessment. The first is that regulators are concerned with tail events, which are rare events (i.e., have small probabilities) in which risky positions incur large losses, and the second concerns diversification and risk concentration. Mathematically, [NRC] is quite a strong property as it gives the additive form of the risk measure on concentrated portfolios. Hence, [NRC] does not apply in contexts where values of the underlying risk measures are not meant to be additive, such as risk rating or ranking decisions; nevertheless, ES can be used for rating or ranking credit risks, as in, for example, Guo et al. (2020).

The main purpose of this paper is the study of an alternative, more natural, property which does not impose any specific functional form and can replace [NRC]. This alternative property will be called *concentration aversion* (CA), whose desirability in regulation can be justified by the arguments of Wang and Zitikis (2021) who extensively discussed issues related to risk concentration and diversification benefit. Although reflecting similar economic considerations, none of [CA] and [NRC] implies the other. As [CA] is free of any particular functional form, it is invariant

under any strictly increasing transforms on the risk measure, and this invariance is not shared by [NRC]. In Section 2, some preliminaries about risk measures are collected, and the key property [CA] is formulated. We show that together with law invariance, [CA] is equivalent to a more mathematically tractable property [p-CA] in Proposition 2.4.

As the first main result of this paper, Theorem 3.3 in Section 3 says that the risk measures satisfying [p-CA] are precisely functions of ES and expectation. The proof of Theorem 3.3 is quite different from techniques used in Wang and Zitikis (2021), and it requires some novel mathematical tools including a recent advanced result from Wang and Wu (2020). We proceed to illustrate in Theorem 3.5 that [CA] characterizes the mean-ES criteria in portfolio selection, thus providing an axiomatic foundation for such optimization problems. The mean-risk portfolio selection problem has a long history since Markowitz (1952); see also Basak and Shapiro (2001), Rockafellar and Uryasev (2002), and the more recent Herdegen and Khan (2022).

In Section 4, we concentrate on monetary risk measures, the most popular type of risk measures; for a comprehensive treatment, see Föllmer and Schied (2016). It turns out that monetary risk measures satisfying [CA] admit a simple representation as a special type of mean-deviation risk measures (Theorem 4.1), where the deviation is measured by a transformed difference between ES and the mean. Quite surprisingly, if we further impose lower semi-continuity, then such a monetary risk measure has to be an ES (Theorem 4.4). Compared to the main result of Wang and Zitikis (2021), our new characterization enhances the axiomatic theory for ES as no particular additive form needs to be assumed ex ante. Moreover, we obtain characterizations for coherent, convex, or consistent risk measures (Mao & Wang, 2020) satisfying [CA], giving rise to many new explicit examples of convex and nonconvex consistent risk measures.

In the main part of the paper, the domain of risk measures of interest is chosen as the set of bounded random variables. Generalizations and technical remarks related extending the above results to larger spaces of random variables are discussed in Section 5. In particular, all our main results can be readily extended to  $L^q$  spaces for  $q \ge 1$  under a continuity assumption.

Finally, in Section 6, we provide an endogenous economic reasoning for CA via a few axioms on the attitude of a regulator towards bivariate dependence structures. We show in Theorems 6.2 and 6.7 that the four natural requirements of nondiversifiability, dependence monotonicity, convexity, and maximality jointly characterize the dependence structures modeling risk concentration in this paper. This result provides a theoretical support to [CA], as well as [NRC] of Wang and Zitikis (2021), in the context of regulatory risk measures. To the best of our knowledge, there is no similar study in the literature on axiomatizing sets of dangerous dependence structures.

#### RISK CONCENTRATION AND CONCENTRATION AVERSION 2

Throughout this paper, we work with an atomless probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ . All equalities and inequalities of functionals on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  are under  $\mathbb{P}$  almost surely ( $\mathbb{P}$ -a.s.) sense. A risk measure  $\rho$  is a mapping from  $\mathcal{X}$  to  $(-\infty, \infty]$ , where  $\mathcal{X}$  is a convex cone of random variables representing losses faced by financial institutions. For  $q \in (0, \infty)$ , denote by  $L^q = L^q(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  the set of all random variables X with  $\mathbb{E}[|X|^q] < \infty$  where  $\mathbb{E}$  is the expectation under  $\mathbb{P}$ . Furthermore,  $L^{\infty} = L^{\infty}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  is the space of all essentially bounded random variables, and  $L^0 = L^0(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is denoted by the space of all random variables. Positive values of random variables in  $\mathcal X$  represent one-period losses. We write  $X \stackrel{d}{=} Y$  if two random variables X and Y have the same law. We first collect the key concepts of tail events and risk concentration as in Wang and Zitikis (2021).

**Definition 2.1** (Tail events and risk concentration). Let *X* be a random variable and  $p \in (0, 1)$ .

- (i) A *tail event* of *X* is an event  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  with  $0 < \mathbb{P}(A) < 1$  such that  $X(\omega) \geqslant X(\omega')$  holds for a.s. all  $\omega \in A$  and  $\omega' \in A^c$ , where  $A^c$  stands for the complement of *A*.
- (ii) A *p-tail event* of *X* is a tail event of *X* with probability 1 p.
- (iii) A random vector  $(X_1, ..., X_n)$  is *p-concentrated* if its components share a common *p*-tail event.
- (iv) A random vector  $(X_1, ..., X_n)$  is *comonotonic* if there exists a random variable Z and increasing functions  $f_1, ..., f_n$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $X_i = f_i(Z)$  a.s. for every i = 1, ..., n.

The terminology that a p-tail event has probability 1-p stems from the regulatory language where, for instance, a tail event with probability 1% corresponds to the calculation of a 99% VaR. A random vector  $(X_1, ..., X_n)$  is p-concentrated for all  $p \in (0,1)$  if and only if it is comonotonic; see Theorem 4 of Wang and Zitikis (2021). Hence, p-concentration can be seen as a weaker notion of positive dependence than comonotonicity, which is a popular notion in the axiomatic characterization of risk functionals and preferences; see for example, Yaari (1987) and Schmeidler (1989). For more details and a real-data example on p-concentration, see Wang and Zitikis (2021).

Next, we define the two important risk measures in banking and insurance practice. The VaR at level  $p \in (0,1)$  is the functional VaR<sub>p</sub>:  $L^0 \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$\operatorname{VaR}_{p}(X) = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} : \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) \geqslant p\},\$$

which precisely is the left p-quantile of X, and the ES at level  $p \in (0,1)$  is the functional  $\mathrm{ES}_p$ :  $L^1 \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$ES_p(X) = \frac{1}{1-p} \int_p^1 VaR_s(X) ds.$$

In this paper, terms such as increasing or decreasing functions are in the nonstrict sense. A few axioms and properties of a risk measure  $\rho$  on  $\mathcal{X}$  are collected below, where all random variables are tacitly assumed to be in the space  $\mathcal{X}$ .

- [M ] Monotonicity:  $\rho(X) \leq \rho(Y)$  whenever  $X \leq Y$  (pointwise).
- [TI ] Translation invariance:  $\rho(X + c) = \rho(X) + c$  for all  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- [LI ] Law invariance:  $\rho(X) = \rho(Y)$  whenever  $X \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} Y$ .
- [P] Lower semicontinuity:  $\liminf_{n\to\infty} \rho(X_n) \geqslant \rho(X)$  if  $X_n \to X$  (pointwise).
- [NRC] No reward for concentration: There exists an event  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  such that  $\rho(X + Y) = \rho(X) + \rho(Y)$  holds for all risks X and Y sharing the tail event A.
- [p-TA ] p-tail additivity with  $p \in (0,1)$ :  $\rho(X+Y) = \rho(X) + \rho(Y)$  for all X and Y sharing a p-tail event.

Wang and Zitikis (2021) proposed [M], [LI], [P], and [NRC] as four axioms, and showed that they together characterize the class of ES up to scaling; see their Theorem 1 and Endnote  $14.^2$  Axioms [M], [TI], and [LI] are standard in the literature of monetary risk measures. Axiom [P] is motivated by the statistical consideration of robustness (Hampel, 1971). It reflects the idea that if the loss X is statistically modeled using a truthful approximation (e.g., via a consistent distribution

estimator), then the approximated risk model should not underreport the capital requirement as the approximation error tends to zero. Therefore, Axiom [P] is also a natural requirement for a reasonable risk measure used in practice, as argued by Wang and Zitikis (2021). The inequality in [M] and convergence in [P] are formulated in a pointwise sense, making these axioms weaker and the corresponding characterization results stronger. Nevertheless, as discussed in Remark 1 of Wang and Zitikis (2021), one can replace " $X \leq Y$  (pointwise)" in [M] by " $X \leq Y$  P-a.s." or " $X \leq_{\rm st} Y^3$ ", and replace pointwise convergence in [P] by in probability, in distribution, or a.s. convergence. All results in this paper would still hold with the above modified versions.

Since Axiom [P] is relatively new in the literature, we discuss it in some more detail. Cont et al. (2010) showed that Hampel's notion of robustness for law-invariant risk measure is equivalent to continuity with respect to convergence in distribution. For law-invariant risk measures, [P] is equivalent to lower semi-continuity with respect to convergence in distribution, and hence it is half of Hampel's robustness. Moreover, it is the most relevant half of Hampel's robustness: Risk estimation can be asymptotically conservative or accurate, but it cannot be asymptotically anti-conservative. As shown by Wang and Zitikis (2021), ES satisfies lower semicontinuity with respect to convergence in distribution, but not continuity (as already shown by Cont et al. (2010)). Axiom [P] will be essential in Theorem 4.4 where ES is characterized among a large class of monetary risk measures, and it is not needed in our other results, except for Proposition 5.3 and Theorem 6.7, which are extensions of Theorem 4.4.

As discussed above, [NRC] intuitively means that a concentrated portfolio, whose components incur large losses simultaneously in the stress event A, does not receive any diversification benefit. For a law-invariant risk measure, the property [NRC] is equivalent to [p-TA] for some  $p \in (0,1)$ ; see Proposition 4 of Wang and Zitikis (2021). Thus, it suffices to work with [p-TA] when analyzing the property [NRC] of law-invariant risk measures. As [NRC] imposes an additive form for the risk measure evaluated on concentrated portfolios, it may be seen as a quite strong property mathematically, and it cannot be used in a context, such as rating or ranking risks, where values of risk measures or preference functionals are not interpreted as additive units. Therefore, finding an alternative property, without the additive form, that may replace [NRC] to characterize ES (and preferences induced by ES) becomes a natural problem.  $^5$ 

To address this problem, we propose the property *concentration aversion* (CA), in a way similar to [NRC] but without imposing additivity. Instead of assuming that the risk measure is additive for concentrated portfolios, the new property of [CA] requires that the risk measure (or decision maker) assigns a larger or equal value for concentrated portfolios, compared to a portfolio that is not concentrated and otherwise identical.

**Definition 2.2.** A risk measure  $\rho$  satisfies *concentration aversion* if there exists an event  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  with  $\mathbb{P}(A) \in (0,1)$  such that  $\rho(X+Y) \leq \rho(X'+Y')$  if  $X \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} X'$ ,  $Y \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} Y'$ , and X' and Y' share the tail event A. This property is denoted by [CA].

The event A in [CA] should be interpreted as a stress event of interest to the regulator. We will show in Proposition 2.4 that the specification of A does not matter in characterization results on law-invariant risk measures, and only the probability of A is relevant. A similar observation can also be found in Wang and Zitikis (2021). The property [CA] has a straightforward preference interpretation; that is, with marginal distributions fixed, the decision maker prefers nonconcentrated portfolios over concentrated ones. Similarly to [NRC], the desirability of [CA] for regulatory risk measures depends on whether one agrees that p-concentration represents a

dangerous dependence structure of regulatory concern. This issue has been discussed by Wang and Zitikis (2021) in detail; see also BCBS (2019) for evidence and considerations in regulatory practice. In Section 6, we will provide a first axiomatic justification of [CA] from a few natural properties on the set of adverse dependence structures, and thus showing that [CA] (or [NRC]) can be motivated endogenously.

None of [CA] and [NRC] implies the other one, although they are closely related. For instance,  $X \mapsto \exp(\mathbb{E}[X])$  satisfies [CA] but not [NRC], whereas  $X \mapsto -\mathrm{ES}_p(X)$  satisfies [NRC] but not [CA]. Many characterization axioms in the literature, including [p-TA] and [NRC], compare the value of a risk measure applied to a portfolio with a combined value of the risk measure applied to individual risks. For instance, subadditivity means that a merger does not create extra risk (Artzner et al., 1999), convexity means diversification does not increase risk level (Föllmer & Schied, 2002), and comonotonic additivity means that a comonotonic portfolio does not receive any risk reduction (Kusuoka, 2001; Marinacci & Montrucchio, 2004). In contrast, the property [CA] is defined by comparing two portfolios, not comparing values of the specific risk measure; thus this property is free of the specific functional form. For instance, if  $\rho$  satisfies [CA], then so is  $f \circ \rho$  for any increasing function f; such a feature is not shared by the above properties in the risk measure literature, although it widely appears in the literature of decision theory.

Similar to the translation between [NRC] and [p-TA], the property [CA] can also be translated to a mathematical property that is easier to analyze. This property, called p-concentration aversion [p-CA], will be the central property analyzed in this paper.

**Definition 2.3.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$ . A risk measure  $\rho$  satisfies p-concentration aversion if  $\rho(X+Y) \leq \rho(X'+Y')$  for all (X,Y) and p-concentrated (X',Y') satisfying  $X \stackrel{d}{=} X'$  and  $Y \stackrel{d}{=} Y'$ . This property is denoted by [p-CA].

We first verify that [CA] can be replaced by [p-CA] for some  $p \in (0,1)$  in our subsequent analysis.

**Proposition 2.4.** For a risk measure  $\rho$  on  $\mathcal{X}$ , the following are equivalent.

- (i)  $\rho$  satisfies [LI] and [CA].
- (ii)  $\rho$  satisfies [p-CA] for some  $p \in (0,1)$ .

*Proof.* "(ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (i)": We first show that [p-CA] implies [LI]. Let Y = Y' = 0. Take identical distributed X and X', and note that (X', Y') is p-concentrated since Y' is a constant. Property [p-CA] implies that  $\rho(X) = \rho(X + Y) \leqslant \rho(X' + Y') = \rho(X')$ , and exchanging the positions of (X, Y) and (X', Y'), we also have  $\rho(X') = \rho(X' + Y') \leqslant \rho(X + Y) = \rho(X)$ . Therefore,  $\rho$  is law invariant. To verify [CA], take any event A with probability 1 - p, and it is straightforward that  $\rho$  satisfies [CA] with A being the stress event.

"(i)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii)": Suppose that  $\rho$  satisfies [CA] with A being the stress event, and let  $p=1-\mathbb{P}(A)$ . Let  $X,Y\in\mathcal{X}$  be two random variables, which share a tail event B of probability 1-p. It suffices to show that for any  $\widetilde{X},\widetilde{Y}\in\mathcal{X}$  with  $\widetilde{X}\stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=}X$  and  $\widetilde{Y}\stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=}Y$ , we have  $\rho(\widetilde{X}+\widetilde{Y})\leqslant\rho(X+Y)$ . Similar to the proof of Proposition 4 in Wang and Zitikis (2021), we construct two random variables  $X',Y'\in\mathcal{X}$  such that X' and Y' share the same tail event A, and (X',Y') and (X,Y) are identically distributed.

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Using [LI], we have  $\rho(X' + Y') = \rho(X + Y)$ . It then follows from [CA],  $\widetilde{X} \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} X'$  and  $\widetilde{Y} \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} Y'$  that

$$\rho(\widetilde{X} + \widetilde{Y}) \le \rho(X' + Y') = \rho(X + Y),$$

which completes the proof.

It is immediate from Theorem 5 of Wang and Zitikis (2021) that  $ES_p$  satisfies [p-CA]. Moreover, the mean  $\mathbb{E}$  and convex combinations of  $(\mathbb{E}, \mathrm{ES}_p)$  such as  $\lambda \mathbb{E} + (1 - \lambda)\mathrm{ES}_p$  for  $\lambda \in (0, 1)$  also satisfy [p-CA]. For applications in regulatory risk assessment, the value of p should be close to 1, indicating an emphasis on tail events with large losses that happen with a small probability. In BCBS (2019), the choice of p in ES<sub>p</sub> is 0.975.

In the following sections, we will formally study risk measures with the property of [p-CA]; equivalently, they are law invariant risk measures satisfying [CA].

*Remark* 2.5. The property [p-CA] is defined for an arbitrary but fixed  $p \in (0,1)$ . If we allow p to take value 0, then [p-CA] in Definition 2.3 degenerates to the property that  $\rho(X+Y) = \rho(X'+Y')$ for any  $X \stackrel{d}{=} X'$  and  $Y \stackrel{d}{=} Y'$ . Such a property is called dependence neutrality by Wang and Wu (2020), who showed that this property is only satisfied by a transformation of the mean.

# CONCENTRATION AVERSION CHARACTERIZES MEAN-ES **CRITERIA**

In this section, we present our first main result that the property [p-CA] characterizes the class of functionals that are transformations of ES<sub>p</sub> and the mean. In this and the next sections, we assume that  $\rho$  is a risk measure on  $\mathcal{X} = L^{\infty}$ , which is the standard choice in the risk measure literature (see e.g., Föllmer & Schied, 2016). The extension of  $\mathcal{X}$  to more general spaces will be discussed in Section 5.

#### 3.1 Two technical lemmas

We first collect two lemmas that will become useful tools in the proof of our main result. Denote by  $F_X$  the distribution function of a random variable X. Let  $F_X^{-1}$  be the left quantile function of X, that is.

$$F_X^{-1}(p) = \text{VaR}_p(X) = \inf\{x : F_X(x) \ge p\}.$$

Noting that the probability space is atomless, there exists a uniform random variable U on [0,1]such that  $F_X^{-1}(U) = X$  a.s.; see for example, Lemma A.32 of Föllmer and Schied (2016). Denote by ess-inf X and ess-sup X the essential infimum and essential supremum of a random variable X, respectively. Moreover, define

$$L(F_X) = \text{ess-sup}X - \text{ess-inf}X = F_X^{-1}(1-) - F_X^{-1}(0+),$$

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and let  $T(F_X)$  be the below discusses the and Wu (2020) is hi variables whose diff

and let  $T(F_X)$  be the distribution of  $F_X^{-1}(U)/2 + F_X^{-1}(1-U)/2$  for  $U \sim U(0,1)$ . The first lemma below discusses the relationship between  $L(F_X)$  and  $L(T(F_X))$ . The second lemma of Wang and Wu (2020) is highly nontrivial, which gives the existence of identically distributed random variables whose difference is a prespecified random variable with mean 0.

**Lemma 3.1.** We have  $L(F_X) \geqslant 2L(T(F_X))$  for any random variable  $X \in L^{\infty}$ .

*Proof.* Write  $Y = F_X^{-1}(U)/2 + F_X^{-1}(1-U)/2$ . It is easy to verify that

$$\frac{F_X^{-1}(0+) + F_X^{-1}(0.5)}{2} \leqslant Y \leqslant \frac{F_X^{-1}(0.5) + F_X^{-1}(1-)}{2}.$$

Hence,

$${\rm ess\text{-}inf} X \leqslant \frac{F_X^{-1}(0+) + F_X^{-1}(0.5)}{2} \leqslant {\rm ess\text{-}inf} Y \leqslant {\rm ess\text{-}sup} Y \leqslant \frac{F_X^{-1}(0.5) + F_X^{-1}(1-)}{2} \leqslant {\rm ess\text{-}sup} X.$$

As a consequence, we obtain

$$L(T(F_X)) \leqslant \frac{\text{ess-sup}X - \text{ess-inf}X}{2} = \frac{L(F_X)}{2},$$

thus showing the lemma.

**Lemma 3.2** Lemma 1 of Wang and Wu (2020). For a random variable X with  $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$ , there exist identically distributed random variables Y and Y' such that  $Y - Y' \stackrel{d}{=} X$  and  $L(Y) = L(Y') \leq L(X)$ .

# 3.2 | The main characterization result

We are now ready to present our main result in this section on the characterization of functionals satisfying [p-CA]. In what follows, we denote by  $\mathbb{H}$  the half-space  $\{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \ge y\}$ . The proof of Theorem 3.3 requires sophisticated constructions of many random variables, utilizing both Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2.

**Theorem 3.3.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$  and  $\rho: L^{\infty} \to (-\infty,\infty]$ . The following two statements hold.

- (i)  $\rho$  satisfies [p-CA] if and only if it has the form  $f(ES_p, \mathbb{E})$ , where  $f: \mathbb{H} \to (-\infty, \infty]$  is increasing in its first argument.
- (ii)  $\rho$  satisfies [M] and [p-CA] if and only if it has the form  $f(ES_p, \mathbb{E})$ , where  $f: \mathbb{H} \to (-\infty, \infty]$  is increasing in both arguments.

*Proof.* (i) The sufficiency statement follows from the fact that  $\mathrm{ES}_p$  takes its largest possible value for a p-concentrated portfolio among all portfolio vectors with given marginal distributions. To be specific, by Theorem 5 of Wang and Zitikis (2021),  $(X_1, X_2)$  is p-concentrated if and only if  $(X_1, X_2)$  maximizes the  $\mathrm{ES}_p$  aggregation; that is, for all (X', Y') and p-concentrated (X, Y) satisfying  $X \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} X'$  and  $Y \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} Y'$ , one has  $\mathrm{ES}_p(X' + Y') \leqslant \mathrm{ES}_p(X + Y)$  and  $\mathbb{E}[X' + Y'] = \mathbb{E}[X + Y]$ . Hence, if p is

of the form  $f(ES_p, \mathbb{E})$  and f is increasing in its first argument, we have  $\rho(X' + Y') \leq \rho(X + Y)$ , which implies that  $\rho$  satisfies [p-CA].

We now prove the necessity statement. First, it is clear that [p-CA] implies that  $\rho(X+Y)=$  $\rho(X_1+Y_1)$  if (X,Y) and  $(X_1,Y_1)$  are both p-concentrated and  $X\stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} X_1\in L^\infty$ ,  $Y\stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} Y_1\in L^\infty$ . For any  $Z\in L^\infty$ , denote by  $m=\mathrm{VaR}_p(Z)=F_Z^{-1}(p)$ , and by a and b two constants such that

$$a = \mathrm{ES}_p(Z) = \frac{1}{1-p} \int_p^1 F_Z^{-1}(t) \mathrm{d}t, \ \ b = \mathrm{ES}_p^-(Z) := \frac{1}{p} \int_0^p F_Z^{-1}(t) \mathrm{d}t.$$

Note that  $\mathbb{E}[Z] = (1-p)a + pb$ . We aim to prove  $\rho(Z) = \rho(Z^*)$  where  $Z^* \sim (1-p)\delta_a + p\delta_b$ , which justifies that  $\rho(Z)$  is determined only by values of  $\mathrm{ES}_n(Z)$  and  $\mathbb{E}[Z]$ .

There is nothing to show if a = b, which implies that Z is a constant and thus  $Z = Z^*$  a.s. We will assume a > b in what follows.

Denote by G, H the distribution functions of  $F_Z^{-1}(U_1)$  and  $F_Z^{-1}(U_2)$ , respectively, where  $U_1 \sim$  $U[p,1], U_2 \sim U[0,p]$ . Then we write  $F_Z = (1-p)G + pH$  with  $Support(G) \subseteq [m, ess-sup(F_Z)]$ and Support $(H) \subseteq [ess-inf(F_Z), m]$ . Take  $U \sim U[0, 1]$  and define

$$X = Y = X_1 = \frac{F_Z^{-1}(U)}{2} \text{ and } Y_1 = \begin{cases} \frac{F_Z^{-1}(p-U)}{2} & \text{if } U < p, \\ \frac{F_Z^{-1}(1+p-U)}{2} & \text{if } U > p. \end{cases}$$

We can verify that  $(X, Y, X_1, Y_1)$  is p-concentrated with common p-tail event  $\{U > p\}, X \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} X_1$ and  $Y \stackrel{d}{=} Y_1$ . Moreover, by letting  $Z_1 = X_1 + Y_1$ , we have

$$X + Y = F_Z^{-1}(U) \stackrel{d}{=} Z$$
 and  $F_{Z_1} = (1 - p)T(G) + pT(H)$ .

Note that  $\mathrm{ES}_p(Z_1) = \mathrm{ES}_p(Z)$  and  $\mathbb{E}[Z_1] = \mathbb{E}[Z]$ . Properties [p-CA] and [LI] lead to  $\rho(Z) = \rho(Z_1)$ . By Lemma 3.1, we further obtain

$$\operatorname{ess-sup}(Z_1) - F_{Z_1}^{-1}(p+) = L(T(G)) \leqslant \frac{L(G)}{2} = \frac{1}{2}(\operatorname{ess-sup}(Z) - F_Z^{-1}(p+)),$$

and

$$F_{Z_1}^{-1}(p) - \text{ess-inf}(Z_1) = L(T(H)) \leqslant \frac{L(H)}{2} = \frac{1}{2}(F_Z^{-1}(p) - \text{ess-inf}(Z)).$$

We repeat the above argument to construct  $Z_2$  with  $Z_1$  replacing the position of Z. Take any  $\varepsilon \in$ (0,(a-b)/4). For large enough n (more precisely,  $n \ge \log_2(L(F_Z)/\varepsilon)$ ), we have

$$\operatorname{ess-sup}(Z_n) - F_{Z_n}^{-1}(p+) < \varepsilon \text{ and } F_{Z_n}^{-1}(p) - \operatorname{ess-inf}(Z_n) < \varepsilon.$$

Combining with  $\mathrm{ES}_p(Z_n) = a$  and  $\mathrm{ES}_p^-(Z_n) = b$ , it then follows that

$$\mathbb{P}(a - \varepsilon < Z_n < a + \varepsilon) = 1 - p \text{ and } \mathbb{P}(b - \varepsilon < Z_n < b + \varepsilon) = p.$$

Note that the above construction preserves the value of  $\rho$ , that is,

$$\rho(Z) = \rho(Z_1) = \rho(Z_2) = \dots = \rho(Z_n).$$

Denote by  $G_n$  and  $H_n$  the distribution functions of  $F_{Z_n}^{-1}(U_1)$  and  $F_{Z_n}^{-1}(U_2)$ , respectively. It follows that  $F_{Z_n}=(1-p)G_n+pH_n$ . Moreover, the mean of  $G_n$  is a and the mean of  $H_n$  is b, and

$$\operatorname{Support}(G_n) \subseteq (a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon) \text{ and } \operatorname{Support}(H_n) \subseteq (b - \varepsilon, b + \varepsilon).$$

Note that in an atomless probability, there exists a random vector with any specified distribution (e.g., Lemma D.1 of Vovk and Wang (2021)). We take a random vector  $(\mathbb{1}_A, V_1, \dots, V_4)$  such that A is an event independent of  $(V_1, V_2, V_3, V_4)$  satisfying  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1 - p$ , and  $(V_1, \dots, V_4)$ , whose existence is justified by Lemma 3.2, satisfies

$$V_1 \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} V_2, \ V_1 - V_2 + a \sim G_n \ \mathrm{and} \ \mathrm{Support}(V_1) = \mathrm{Support}(V_2) \subseteq [-\varepsilon, \varepsilon],$$

$$V_3 \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} V_4, \ V_3 - V_4 + b \sim H_n \ \mathrm{and} \ \mathrm{Support}(V_3) = \mathrm{Support}(V_4) \subseteq [-\varepsilon, \varepsilon].$$

Define

$$\begin{split} X &= \mathbb{1}_A \Big( V_1 + \frac{a}{2} \Big) + \mathbb{1}_{A^c} \Big( V_3 + \frac{b}{2} \Big), \ \ Y &= \mathbb{1}_A \Big( -V_2 + \frac{a}{2} \Big) + \mathbb{1}_{A^c} \Big( -V_4 + \frac{b}{2} \Big), \\ X^* &= \mathbb{1}_A \Big( V_1 + \frac{a}{2} \Big) + \mathbb{1}_{A^c} \Big( V_3 + \frac{b}{2} \Big), \ \ Y^* &= \mathbb{1}_A \Big( -V_1 + \frac{a}{2} \Big) + \mathbb{1}_{A^c} \Big( -V_3 + \frac{b}{2} \Big). \end{split}$$

Since  $|V_1|, |V_2|, |V_3|, |V_4| \le \varepsilon < (b-a)/4$ , for any  $\omega \in A$  and  $\omega' \in A^c$ , we have

$$X(\omega) = V_1(\omega) + \frac{a}{2} > \frac{a}{2} - \varepsilon > \frac{b}{2} + \varepsilon > V_3(\omega') + \frac{b}{2} = X(\omega').$$

Similarly, we have  $Y(\omega) > Y(\omega')$ ,  $Y^*(\omega) > Y^*(\omega')$  and  $X^*(\omega) > X^*(\omega')$ . Hence,  $(X, Y, X^*, Y^*)$  is p-concentrated with common p-tail event A, and  $X = X^*$ ,  $Y \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} Y^*$ ,  $X + Y \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} Z_n$ . Therefore,

$$\rho(Z) = \rho(Z_n) = \rho(X+Y) = \rho(X^*+Y^*) = \rho(\mathbb{1}_A \times a + \mathbb{1}_{A^c} \times b) = \rho(Z^*),$$

thus showing the desirable statement that the value of  $\rho(X)$  only depends on  $\mathrm{ES}_p(X)$  and  $\mathbb{E}[X]$ , that is,  $\rho$  has the form  $f(\mathrm{ES}_p,\mathbb{E})$ .

It remains to prove that the function  $x\mapsto f(x,y)$  is increasing for each fixed  $y\in\mathbb{R}$ . Suppose  $0< p\leqslant 1/2$ , and let  $X\sim p\delta_{-(1-p)a}+(1-p)\delta_{pa}$  and  $Y\sim (1-p)\delta_{-pb+y}+p\delta_{(1-p)b+y}$  with  $0\leqslant b\leqslant a$ . For  $U\sim U(0,1)$ , take  $X_1=X_2=F_X^{-1}(U),\ Y_1=F_Y^{-1}(U)$ , and  $Y_2=F_Y^{-1}(1-U)$ . By straightforward calculation, we obtain

$$\mathbb{E}[X_1 + Y_1] = \mathbb{E}[X_2 + Y_2] = y, \quad \text{ES}_p(X_1 + Y_1) = p(a - b) + \frac{pb}{1 - p}$$
$$+y, \quad \text{ES}_p(X_2 + Y_2) = p(a - b) + y.$$

Note that  $(X_1, Y_1)$  is *p*-concentrated and  $X_1 \stackrel{d}{=} X_2, Y_1 \stackrel{d}{=} Y_2$ . Hence, by using [*p*-CA], we obtain

$$f\left(p(a-b) + \frac{pb}{1-p} + y, y\right) = \rho(X_1 + Y_1) \geqslant \rho(X_2 + Y_2) = f(p(a-b) + y, y).$$

Since  $a - b \ge 0$  and  $b \ge 0$  can be arbitrarily chosen, we have that  $x \mapsto f(x, y)$  is increasing for each y. Using similar arguments, increasing monotonicity of  $x \mapsto f(x, y)$  also holds for 1/2 . Hence, we complete the proof of (i).

(ii) The sufficiency statement is straightforward. To show the necessity statement, based on the result in (i), it remains to show that [M] implies the increasing monotonicity of the function  $y\mapsto f(x,y)$ . Take  $A\in\mathcal{F}$  with probability 1-p. Define two random variables X and Y such that  $X(\omega)=Y(\omega)=x$  for  $\omega\in A$ , and  $X(\omega)=x_1$ ,  $Y(\omega)=x_2$  for  $\omega\in A^c$ , where  $x_1\leqslant x_2\leqslant x$ . Obviously, we have  $X\leqslant Y$ , and it follows that

$$\begin{split} f(x, (1-p)x + px_1) &= f(\mathrm{ES}_p(X), \mathbb{E}[X]) \\ &= \rho(X) \leqslant \rho(Y) = f(\mathrm{ES}_p(Y), \mathbb{E}[Y]) = f(x, (1-p)x + px_2). \end{split}$$

Hence, we obtain the increasing monotonicity of  $y \mapsto f(x, y)$  since  $x_1 \le x_2 \le x$  can be arbitrarily chosen.

*Remark* 3.4. The functional  $ES_p^-$  is used in the proof of Theorem 3.3, but not in its statement. There is a linear relationship between  $ES_p$ ,  $ES_p^-$ , and  $\mathbb{E}$ , that is,

$$p\mathrm{ES}_p^-(X) + (1-p)\mathrm{ES}_p(X) = \mathbb{E}[X].$$

Therefore, the form  $f(ES_p, \mathbb{E})$  of the risk measure in Theorem 3.3 can also be represented as  $f_1(ES_p^-, \mathbb{E})$  or  $f_2(ES_p, ES_p^-)$  with different conditions on  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ .

# 3.3 | Mean-ES portfolio selection

There is a large literature on mean-risk portfolio selection since Markowitz (1952) who measured risk by using variance. In the more recent literature, risk is often measured by a risk measure, such as VaR (Basak & Shapiro, 2001; Gaivoronski & Pflug, 2005), ES (Embrechts et al., 2022; Rockafellar & Uryasev, 2000; Rockafellar and Uryasev, 2002), or expectiles (Bellini et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2021). For a recent work on mean- $\rho$  optimization where  $\rho$  is a coherent risk measure, see Herdegen and Khan (2022).

Remarkably, Theorem 3.3 gives rise to an axiomatic foundation for the mean-ES portfolio selection. Consider a classical optimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{a} \in A} \mathcal{V}(g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{a})) \tag{1}$$

where A is a set of possible actions,  $\mathcal{V}: \mathcal{X} \to (-\infty, \infty]$  is an objective functional,  $\mathbf{X}$  is the underlying d-dimensional risk vector, and  $g: \mathbb{R}^d \times A \to \mathbb{R}$  is a function representing the portfolio value. Constraints on the optimization problem can be incorporated into either A or  $\mathcal{V}$ . For instance, one may set  $\mathcal{V}$  to be  $\infty$  for positions that violate certain constraints, as we will see below.

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We say that the optimization problem (1) is a mean- $\rho$  optimization for some risk measure  $\rho$ , if  $\mathcal{V}$  is determined by  $\mathbb{E}$  and  $\rho$  and increasing in both. There are two classic versions of mean- $\rho$ optimization problems:

(a) Maximizing expected return with a target risk  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ , that is

$$\max_{\mathbf{a} \in A} \mathbb{E}[-\mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X}] \text{ subject to } \rho(\mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X}) \leqslant r,$$
 (2)

where X is the vector of losses (negative returns) from individual assets and A is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ; recall that  $-\mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{X}$  represents the future portfolio wealth. By choosing

$$\mathcal{V}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{1}_{\{\rho(X) \le r\}} + \infty \mathbb{1}_{\{\rho(X) > r\}} \text{ and } g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X}$$

with the convention  $\infty \times 0 = 0$ , Equation (2) becomes Equation (1), which is clearly a mean- $\rho$ optimization.

(b) Minimizing risk with a target expected return  $u \in \mathbb{R}$ , that is,

$$\min_{\mathbf{a} \in A} \rho(\mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X}) \text{ subject to } \mathbb{E}[-\mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X}] \geqslant u.$$
 (3)

This time, by choosing

$$\mathcal{V}(X) = \rho(X)\mathbb{1}_{\{\mathbb{E}[X] \le -u\}} + \infty\mathbb{1}_{\{\mathbb{E}[X] > -u\}} \text{ and } g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X},$$

we arrive again at Equation (1).

Using Theorem 3.3, we obtain a characterization of mean-ES (i.e., mean-ES $_p$  for some  $p \in (0,1)$ ) optimization problems, which include the classical problems (2) and (3) with  $\rho = ES_p$ .

**Theorem 3.5.** An optimization problem (1) is a mean-ES optimization if and only if its objective  $\mathcal{V}$ satisfies [M] and [p-CA] for some  $p \in (0,1)$ .

Theorem 3.5 illustrates that a preference for dependence (i.e., [p-CA]) can help to pin down the particular form of optimization problems, in addition to characterizing risk measures. In the next section, we continue to explore the relationship between concentration aversion and characterizing risk measures.

#### MONETARY RISK MEASURES SATISFYING [CA] 4

In this section, we again assume that  $\rho$  is a risk measure on  $\mathcal{X} = L^{\infty}$ , and further investigate monetary risk measures satisfying [p-CA]. A monetary risk measure is a risk measure satisfying [M] and [TI]; see Föllmer and Schied (2016). It is well known that monetary risk measures are one-to-one corresponding to acceptance sets. An acceptance set A is a subset of  $\mathcal{X}$ , which is generated by some monetary risk measure  $\rho$  via  $\mathcal{A} = \{X \in \mathcal{X} : \rho(X) \leq 0\}$ . Also note that a monetary risk measure  $\rho$ is finite on  $L^{\infty}$  as long as it is finite at some  $X \in L^{\infty}$ . Therefore, we can safely assume  $\rho: L^{\infty} \to \mathbb{R}$ in this section.

#### Concentration-averse monetary risk measures 4.1

Let us first recall the definition of second-order stochastic dominance (SSD). We say that X is second-order stochastically dominated by Y, denoted by  $X \leq_{SSD} Y$ , if  $\mathbb{E}[u(X)] \leq \mathbb{E}[u(Y)]$  for all increasing convex functions u. We collect two properties from Mao and Wang (2020).

[SC] SSD-consistency:  $\rho(X) \leqslant \rho(Y)$  whenever  $X \leq_{\text{SSD}} Y$ .

[DC] Diversification consistency:  $\rho(X+Y) \leq \rho(X^c+Y^c)$  whenever  $X \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} X^c$ ,  $Y \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} Y^c$  and  $(X^c, Y^c)$  is comonotonic.

The property [SC] is often called *strong risk aversion* for a preference functional (Hadar & Russell, 1969; Rothschild & Stiglitz, 1970), while [DC] is called comovement aversion (Wang & Wu, 2020). By using a risk measure satisfying [SC], a financial institution makes decisions that are consistent with the common notion of risk aversion and, in particular, favors a risk with small variability over one with a large variability. Mao and Wang (2020) showed that, for a monetary risk measure, [SC] and [DC] are equivalent, and they called monetary risk measures satisfying [SC] consistent risk measure, which have a representation based on ES; see their Theorem 3.1. Since p-concentration is weaker than comonotonicity, [p-CA] implies [DC], and hence a monetary risk measure satisfying [p-CA] is automatically a consistent risk measure. In the following theorem, a representation of such a risk measure is established. This result leads to a class of risk measures (5) that is new to the literature. In what follows, we say that a real-valued function g satisfies the 1-Lipschitz condition if

$$|g(x) - g(y)| \le |x - y|$$
 for  $x, y$  in the domain of  $g$ . (4)

**Theorem 4.1.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$  and  $\rho$  be a risk measure on  $L^{\infty}$ . Then,  $\rho$  satisfies [M], [TI], [p-CA], and  $\rho(0) = 0$  if and only if it has the form

$$\rho(X) = g(\mathrm{ES}_p(X) - \mathbb{E}[X]) + \mathbb{E}[X], \quad X \in L^{\infty}, \tag{5}$$

for some increasing function  $g:[0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$  with g(0)=0 satisfying the 1-Lipschitz condition. In particular, such  $\rho$  is a consistent risk measure.

*Proof.* Let us first prove sufficiency. Obviously,  $\rho$  of the form (5) satisfies [TI] and  $\rho(0) = 0$ . By Theorem 3.3, we obtain that  $\rho$  satisfies [p-CA]. So it remains to verify that  $\rho$  is monotone. Suppose  $X \leq Y$ , and define  $a_1 = \mathrm{ES}_p(X)$ ,  $b_1 = \mathbb{E}[X]$ ,  $a_2 = \mathrm{ES}_p(Y)$ , and  $b_2 = \mathbb{E}[Y]$ . Obviously, we have  $a_1 \leq P$  $a_2, b_1 \leq b_2$  and

$$\rho(X) = g(a_1 - b_1) + b_1, \quad \rho(Y) = g(a_2 - b_2) + b_2.$$

If  $a_2 - a_1 \geqslant b_2 - b_1$ , we have

$$\rho(X) \le \rho(X) + (b_2 - b_1) = g(a_1 - b_1) + b_2$$
$$= g((a_1 + b_2 - b_1) - b_2) + b_2 \le g(a_2 - b_2) + b_2 = \rho(Y),$$

where the second inequality follows from the increasing monotonicity of g. If  $a_2 - a_1 < b_2 - b_1$ , we have

$$\rho(X) \le \rho(X) + (a_2 - a_1)$$

$$= g(a_2 - (b_1 + a_2 - a_1)) + (b_1 + a_2 - a_1) \le \rho(a_2 - b_2) + b_2 = \rho(Y),$$

where the second inequality follows from the 1-Lipschitz condition of g. Hence, we complete the proof of sufficiency. For the other direction, it follows from the results in Theorem 3.3 that  $\rho$  has the form  $f(ES_p, \mathbb{E})$  for some bivariate function f. Define a function  $g:[0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$  such that g(x)=f(x,0) for  $x\geqslant 0$ . It is clear that  $g(0)=f(0,0)=\rho(0)=0$ . Note that  $f(\cdot,y):[y,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$  is increasing for all  $y\in\mathbb{R}$  (see Theorem 3.3). It follows that g is increasing. Using [TI], we obtain

$$\rho(X) = \rho(X - \mathbb{E}[X]) + \mathbb{E}[X]$$

$$= f(\mathrm{ES}_p(X) - \mathbb{E}[X], 0) + \mathbb{E}[X] = g(\mathrm{ES}_p(X) - \mathbb{E}[X]) + \mathbb{E}[X].$$

Finally, applying Theorem 3.3 (ii), we know that the function  $f(x, \cdot)$ :  $(-\infty, x] \to \mathbb{R}$  is increasing for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Hence, we have

$$g(x - y) + y = f(x, y) \le f(x, y') = g(x - y') + y'$$
 for all  $y < y' \le x$ ,

which implies that g is 1-Lipschitz. Hence, we complete the proof.

The risk measure  $\rho$  with form (5) is the sum of the mean and  $g(\mathrm{ES}_p - \mathbb{E})$ . Note that  $\mathrm{ES}_p - \mathbb{E}$  is both a generalized deviation measure according to Rockafellar et al. (2006) and a coherent measure of variability according to Furman et al. (2017). Hence,  $g(\mathrm{ES}_p - \mathbb{E})$  is a transformed deviation or variability measure, and a monetary risk measure satisfying [p-CA] can be seen as a mean-deviation functional.

We continue to characterize the classes of convex,<sup>7</sup> coherent,<sup>8</sup> and consistent risk measures that satisfy [p-CA]. These three classes of risk measures are all monetary risk measure, and thus they can be represented as the form in Theorem 4.1. Note that for  $\rho$  satisfying [p-CA], there is a one-to-one correspondence between  $\rho$  and g in Equation (5), and hence the above classes can be identified based on properties of g. The gap between convex risk measure and consistent risk measure is established clearly in the following proposition. In particular, convexity of g is equivalent to convexity of  $\rho$ .

**Proposition 4.2.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$  and  $\rho$  be a risk measure on  $L^{\infty}$  satisfying [p-CA] and  $\rho(0) = 0$ .

- (i)  $\rho$  is a consistent risk measure if and only if  $\rho = g(ES_p \mathbb{E}) + \mathbb{E}$  for some increasing and 1-Lipschitz function  $g: [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$  with g(0) = 0.
- (ii)  $\rho$  is a convex risk measure if and only if  $\rho = g(ES_p \mathbb{E}) + \mathbb{E}$  for some increasing, convex and 1-Lipschitz function  $g: [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$  with g(0) = 0.
- (iii)  $\rho$  is a coherent risk measure if and only if  $\rho = \alpha ES_p + (1 \alpha)\mathbb{E}$  for some  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ .

*Proof.* (i) is implied by Theorem 4.1. To see (ii), applying Theorem 4.1, it is sufficient to prove that convexity of the function g in Equation (5) is equivalent to convexity of  $\rho$ . Note that g is an increasing function. If g is convex, then  $\rho$  is a convex risk measure because expectation is linear and  $ES_p$  is a convex risk measure. If g is nonconvex, then there exist  $0 \le x < y$  and  $\lambda \in (0,1)$ 

such that  $g(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) > \lambda g(x) + (1 - \lambda)g(y)$ . Suppose (X, Y) is p-concentrated, and satisfies  $\mathrm{ES}_p(X) - \mathbb{E}[X] = x$  and  $\mathrm{ES}_p(Y) - \mathbb{E}[Y] = y$ . Thus, we have

$$\begin{split} \rho(\lambda X + (1-\lambda)Y) &= g(\mathrm{ES}_p(\lambda X + (1-\lambda)Y) - \mathbb{E}[\lambda X + (1-\lambda)Y]) + \mathbb{E}[\lambda X + (1-\lambda)Y] \\ &= g(\lambda(\mathrm{ES}_p(X) - \mathbb{E}[X]) + (1-\lambda)(\mathrm{ES}_p(Y) - \mathbb{E}[Y])) + \lambda \mathbb{E}[X] + (1-\lambda)\mathbb{E}[Y] \\ &= g(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) + \lambda \mathbb{E}[X] + (1-\lambda)\mathbb{E}[Y] \\ &> \lambda g(x) + (1-\lambda)g(y) + \lambda \mathbb{E}[X] + (1-\lambda)\mathbb{E}[Y] \\ &= \lambda (g(\mathrm{ES}_p(X) - \mathbb{E}[X]) + \mathbb{E}[X]) + (1-\lambda)(g(\mathrm{ES}_p(Y) - \mathbb{E}[Y]) + \mathbb{E}[Y]) \\ &= \lambda \rho(X) + (1-\lambda)\rho(Y), \end{split}$$

which implies that  $\rho$  is nonconvex. (iii) Sufficiency is straightforward. To show necessity, let X be such that  $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$  and  $\mathrm{ES}_p(X) = x > 0$ . By Theorem 4.1, coherence of  $\rho$  implies that for all  $\lambda > 0$ ,

$$g(\lambda x) = \rho(\lambda X) = \lambda \rho(X) = \lambda g(x).$$

This means that g is linear on  $(0, \infty)$ . Noting that g is 1-Lipschitz with g(0) = 0, we have  $g(x) = \alpha x$  for some  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ . Hence, we complete the proof of (iii).

Since SSD-consistency is strictly weaker than convexity for a law-invariant risk measure, the class of consistent risk measures generalizes that of law-invariant convex risk measures. However, explicit formulas for nonconvex consistent risk measures are rare in the literature; indeed, all examples in Mao and Wang (2020) involve taking an infimum over convex risk measures. Proposition 4.2 leads to many examples of consistent risk measures with explicit formulas, which are outside the classic framework of convex risk measures.

**Example 4.3.** We give two examples of new risk measures from Proposition 4.2. First, take the convex and 1-Lipschitz function  $g: x \mapsto x - \log(1+x)$ . The corresponding risk measure is given by  $\rho = \mathrm{ES}_p - \log(1+\mathrm{ES}_p - \mathbb{E})$ , which is a convex risk measure by Proposition 4.2. Second, take the concave and 1-Lipschitz function  $g: x \mapsto \log(1+x)$ . The corresponding risk measure is given by  $\rho = \mathbb{E} + \log(1+\mathrm{ES}_p - \mathbb{E})$ , which is a consistent risk measure but not convex by Proposition 4.2.

# 4.2 | A new characterization of the expected shortfall

Next, we add lower semicontinuity [P] to the requirements in Theorem 4.1 and obtain a new characterization of ES. Remarkably, although Theorem 4.1 allows for many choices of risk measures satisfying [p-CA], lower semicontinuity is enough to force the function g in Equation (5) to collapse to the identity. Hence, for this characterization of ES, we do not need to assume coherence or convexity.

**Theorem 4.4.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$  and  $\rho$  be a risk measure on  $L^{\infty}$ . Then  $\rho$  satisfies [M], [TI], [P], [p-CA], and  $\rho(0) = 0$  if and only if it is  $ES_p$ .

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*Proof.* Sufficiency follows from Proposition 1 and Theorem 5 of Wang and Zitikis (2021). To see necessity, we first apply the result in Theorem 3.3 that  $\rho$  has the form  $f(\mathrm{ES}_p, \mathbb{E})$ , and the function  $y\mapsto f(x,y)$  is increasing on  $(-\infty,x]$  for all  $x\in\mathbb{R}$ . Next, we will verify that the value of f is independent of its second argument. On the one hand, we have  $f(x,x)\geqslant f(x,y)$  for all  $x\geqslant y$ . On the other hand, define a sequence of random variables  $\{X_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $\mathbb{P}(X_n=x)=1-1/n$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(X_n=x-n(x-y))=1/n$ , and  $X_n\to x$  a.s. By the property [P], we have

$$f(x,y) = \liminf_{n \to \infty} f(\mathrm{ES}_p(X_n), \mathbb{E}[X_n]) \geqslant f(x,x).$$

Therefore, we conclude that f(x, x) = f(x, y) for all  $x \ge y$ , and this means  $\rho(X) = g(ES_p(X))$  for some function g. Finally, using [TI] and  $\rho(0) = 0$ , one can conclude that g is the identity.

We can equivalently express Theorem 4.4 in terms of the acceptance set as in the next proposition. A proof is straightforward from the definition of an acceptance set.

**Proposition 4.5.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$ . An acceptance set A satisfies

- (i) (X,Y) is p-concentrated and  $X+Y\in\mathcal{A}\Longrightarrow X'+Y'\in\mathcal{A}$  for all X',Y' with  $X'\stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=}X,Y'\stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=}Y$ ,
- (ii)  $X_n \in A$  for each n = 1, 2, ... and  $X_n \to X$  pointwise  $\Longrightarrow X \in A$ , and
- (iii)  $\sup\{c \in \mathbb{R} : c \in \mathcal{A}\} = 0$ ,

if and only if A is the acceptance set of  $ES_D$ .

# 5 | GENERALIZATION TO LARGER SPACES

In this section, we generalize the characterization results in Sections 3 and 4 to larger  $L^q$  spaces than  $L^{\infty}$ . The risk measure  $\rho: L^q \to \mathbb{R}$  will be assumed to take real values.

# 5.1 | Generalization to $L^q$ for $q \geqslant 1$

We endow the natural norm on  $L^q$ ,  $q \in [1, \infty)$ , that is,  $||X||_q = (\mathbb{E}[|X|^q])^{1/q}$  for  $X \in L^q$ , and continuity is defined with respect to  $||\cdot||_q$ . Furthermore, we recall the notation  $\mathbb{H}$  as the half-space  $\{(x,y)\in\mathbb{R}^2:x\geqslant y\}$ .

**Proposition 5.1.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$ ,  $q \ge 1$  and  $\rho : L^q \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous risk measure. Then,

- (i)  $\rho$  satisfies [p-CA] if and only if it has the form  $f(ES_p, \mathbb{E})$ , where  $f: \mathbb{H} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous bivariate function, which is increasing in its first argument.
- (ii)  $\rho$  satisfies [M] and [p-CA] if and only if it has the form  $f(ES_p, \mathbb{E})$ , where  $f: \mathbb{H} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous bivariate function, which is increasing in both arguments.

*Proof.* Sufficiency in both (i) and (ii) is trivial. To see necessity, noting that for any  $X \in L^q$ , there exists a sequence  $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq L^\infty$  converges to X with respect to the norm  $\|\cdot\|_q$ . By the continuity of  $\rho$ , the statements in Theorem 3.3 are all valid. Thus, it remains to prove that f is continuous on  $\mathbb{H}$ . For  $(x_0, y_0) \in \mathbb{H}$ , let  $\{(x_n, y_n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{H}$  be a sequence converges to  $(x_0, y_0)$ . Let  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  such that

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 $\mathbb{P}(A) = p$ . Define a sequence of random variables

$$X_n(\omega) = \frac{y_n - (1-p)x_n}{p}$$
 for  $\omega \in A$ , and  $X_n(\omega) = x_n$  for  $\omega \in A^c$ ,

and let

$$X(\omega) = \frac{y_0 - (1 - p)x_0}{p}$$
 for  $\omega \in A$ , and  $X(\omega) = x_0$  for  $\omega \in A^c$ .

Obviously,  $\mathrm{ES}_p(X_n) = x_n$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[X_n] = y_n$  and  $X_n \to X$  in  $L^q$  with  $\mathrm{ES}_p(X) = x_0$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[X] = y_0$ . Hence, we have

$$f(x_n, y_n) = f(ES_p(X_n), E[X_n]) = \rho(X_n) \to \rho(X) = f(ES_p(X), E[X]) = f(x_0, y_0).$$

This completes the proof.

Similarly, Theorems 4.1 and 4.4 can be generalized to  $L^q$  for  $q \ge 1$ .

**Proposition 5.2.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$ ,  $q \ge 1$  and  $\rho: L^q \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous risk measure. Then  $\rho$  satisfies [M], [TI], [p-CA], and  $\rho(0) = 0$  if and only if it has the form  $\rho = g(ES_p - \mathbb{E}) + \mathbb{E}$  for some increasing and 1-Lipschitz function  $g: [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$  with g(0) = 0. In particular, such  $\rho$  is a consistent risk measure.

**Proposition 5.3.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$ ,  $q \ge 1$  and  $\rho : L^q \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous risk measure. Then  $\rho$  satisfies [M], [TI], [P], [p-CA], and  $\rho(0) = 0$  if and only if it is  $ES_p$ .

# 5.2 | Impossibility results on $L^q$ for $q \in [0,1)$

In this section, we let  $q \in [0,1)$  and consider the larger spaces  $L^q \supset L^1$  as the domain of the risk measure  $\rho$ . It is shown in Theorem 2 of Wang and Zitikis (2021) that the only real-valued risk measure on  $L^q$  satisfying [M], [LI], [P], and [NRC] is the constant risk measure  $\rho = 0$ . A natural question arises: Is there a nonconstant risk measure  $\rho : L^q \to \mathbb{R}$  satisfying [p-CA]? We shall first see in the following example that [p-CA] on  $L^q$  does not necessarily lead to a constant risk measure.

**Example 5.4.** Let f(x, y) be a bounded real function on  $\mathbb{H} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \ge y\}$ , which is increasing in both x, y and M > 0 be such that  $|f| \le M$ . Define

$$\rho(X) = \begin{cases} f(\mathrm{ES}_p(X), \mathbb{E}[X]), & X \in L^1, \\ -M, & \mathbb{E}[X_-] = \infty, \ \mathbb{E}[X_+] < \infty, \\ M, & \mathbb{E}[X_+] = \infty, \end{cases}$$

where  $X_{+} = \max\{X, 0\}$  and  $X_{-} = \max\{-X, 0\}$ . One can verify that  $\rho$  satisfies [M] and [p-CA].

As illustrated by Example 5.4, in contrast to [NRC], we can construct a class of nontrivial risk measures bounded on  $L^0$  that satisfies [p-CA]. Nevertheless, the following proposition illustrates that it is pointless to consider monotone risk measures  $\rho: L^q \to \mathbb{R}$  satisfying [p-CA] if  $\rho$ 

is unbounded on the set of constants. As a consequence, we conclude that the domain  $L^1$  is the most natural, and essentially the largest, choice for any real-valued risk measures satisfying [M], [TI], and [p-CA].

**Proposition 5.5.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$  and  $q \in [0,1)$ . There is no such  $\rho : L^q \to \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies [M], [p-CA], and  $\lim_{c\to\infty} \rho(c) = \infty$ .

*Proof.* Assume that such  $\rho$  exists. Take a nonnegative  $X \in L^q \setminus L^1$ , and let  $X_n = \min\{X, n\} \in L^\infty$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Obviously, we have  $X_n \uparrow X$ . By Theorem 3.3,  $\rho$  has the form  $f(ES_p, \mathbb{E})$  on  $L^\infty$ . It then follows from [M] and the condition  $\lim_{c \to \infty} \rho(c) = \infty$  that  $\lim_{y \to \infty} f(x, y) = \infty$ . Note that  $\mathbb{E}[X_n] \to \infty$ . Thus, we obtain

$$\rho(X) \geqslant \liminf \rho(X_n) = \liminf f(ES_p(X_n), \mathbb{E}[X_n]) = \infty,$$

a contradiction.

Since a monetary risk measure  $\rho$  necessarily satisfies  $\lim_{c\to\infty} \rho(c) = \infty$ , we conclude from Proposition 5.5 that for  $q \in [0,1)$ , there is no monetary risk measure  $\rho: L^q \to \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies [p-CA].

# 6 | AN ECONOMIC REASONING FOR CONCENTRATION AVERSION

For the key concept of concentration aversion in this paper, it is assumed in Definition 2.2 that there exists a tail event A of regulatory concern. Such a tail event A is exogenous to the property [CA]; similarly, the structure of p-concentration is exogenous to the property [p-CA]. For a solid economic foundation of using [CA], it would be more compelling to justify the structure of p-concentration from endogenous reasoning. Addressing this issue is the objective of this section. We will show that, if a regulator is concerned about dangerous dependence structures satisfying a few axioms, then [CA] must hold for the regulator's risk measure.

Assume  $\mathcal{X}=L^\infty$  in this section, and denote by  $L_c^\infty\subseteq L^\infty$  the set of all continuously distributed random variables in  $L^\infty$ . We focus on continuous distributions because we will work with dependence structures, which will be modeled by copulas. An n-copula is a joint distribution function on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with standard uniform marginals. Sklar's theorem implies that the joint distribution F of any random vector  $\mathbf{X}$  can be expressed by a copula C of  $\mathbf{X}$  through  $F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = C(F_1(x_1), \dots, F_n(x_n))$  where  $F_1, \dots, F_n$  are the marginals of F. The copula C is unique if  $F_1, \dots, F_n$  are continuous. We denote by  $C_{\mathbf{X}}$  the copula of  $\mathbf{X}$  if it is unique, and  $C_n$  the set of n-copulas. We refer to Joe (2014) for a general treatment of copulas.

Suppose that a regulator is concerned about random losses that are dependent in an adverse (dangerous) way. The interpretation of dangerousness of a dependence structure is modeled by a set  $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_2$ . We will specify a suitable  $\mathcal{D}$  later, but a primary example is

$$\mathcal{D}_p = \{ C \in \mathcal{C}_2 : C(p, p) = p \}, \quad p \in (0, 1).$$
 (6)

By Theorem 3 of Wang and Zitikis (2021), a copula of (X,Y) is in  $\mathcal{D}_p$  if and only if (X,Y) is p-concentrated; hence,  $\mathcal{D}_p$  is the set of bivariate copulas for p-concentrated random vectors. Since an adverse dependence structure bears more risk, the regulatory risk measure  $\rho: L^\infty \to \mathbb{R}$  should satisfy D-aversion, that is,  $\rho(X+Y) \le \rho(Z+W)$  for all  $X,Y,Z,W \in L^\infty$  satisfying  $X \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} Z,Y \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} W$ ,

and a copula of (Z, W) is in  $\mathcal{D}$ . For the special case of  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_p$  for some  $p \in (0, 1)$ ,  $\mathcal{D}_p$ -aversion is precisely [p-CA].

In what follows, we discuss reasonable choices of  $\mathcal{D}$  for the regulator. A common idea of diversification originates from the Law of Large Numbers (LLN), or its refined versions, the Central Limit Theorems. A dependence structure of risks is arguably quite dangerous if there is no effect of LLN; that is, the average risk does not vanish even if the number of risks in the pool tends to infinity. Inspired by this observation, we define nondiversifiability via violation of LLN. For a copula  $C \in C_2$ , we say that a sequence  $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is sequentially C-coupled if  $X_n \stackrel{d}{=} X_{n+1}$  and C is the copula of  $(X_n, X_{n+1})$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Note that the dependence of  $(X_n, X_k)$  for |n-k| > 1 is unspecified and it typically has some flexibility. We say that  $C \in C_2$  is nondiversifiable if each sequentially C-coupled sequence  $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $L_c^{\infty}$  breaks LLN, that is,

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i}-\mu \not\stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\to} 0 \quad \text{as } n\to\infty, \tag{7}$$

where  $\mu$  is the mean of  $X_1$ ; otherwise C is *diversifiable*. A simple example of a nondiversifiable copula is the comonotonic copula  $C^+$ , defined via  $C^+(u,v) = \min(u,v)$ . For any sequentially  $C^+$ -coupled sequence  $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  in  $L_c^{\infty}$ , due to comotonicity, we have  $X_n = X_{n+1}$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i}-\mu=X_{1}-\mu \stackrel{p}{\neq}0 \quad \text{as } n\to\infty.$$
 (8)

On the other hand, the independent copula  $C^{\perp}$ , defined via  $C^{\perp}(u,v) = uv$ , is clearly diversifiable due to LLN.

Another important consideration is that positive dependence is more dangerous than negative dependence. Recall that for two bivariate copulas C and C', the point-wise order  $C' \geqslant C$ , called the concordance order (see e.g., Müller & Stoyan, 2002), compares the level of positive dependence. In particular, if  $X \stackrel{d}{=} Z$  and  $Y \stackrel{d}{=} W$  and  $C_{X,Y} \geqslant C_{Z,W}$ , then  $Z + W \leq_{SSD} X + Y$  (see e.g., Wang & Wu, 2020), and thus X + Y bears more risk than Z + W in a commonly agreed sense of riskiness. The comonotonic copula  $C^+$  attains the maximum in concordance order.

Finally, a combination of dangerous scenarios, in the form of a probability mixture, is still dangerous, because such a mixture represents randomly picking a dangerous scenario.

Translating the above considerations into properties of  $\mathcal{D}$ , we define a *bivariate concentration class*, which is a subset  $\mathcal{D}$  of  $\mathcal{C}_2$  satisfying the following three properties [ND], [DM], and [Cx].

- [ND ] Nondiversifiability: Each  $C \in \mathcal{D}$  is nondiversifiable.
- [DM] Dependence monotonicity: If  $C \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $C \leqslant C' \in \mathcal{C}_2$ , then  $C' \in \mathcal{D}$ .
  - [Cx ] Convexity: If  $C_n \in \mathcal{D}$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \lambda_n C_n \in \mathcal{D}$  for any non-negative numbers  $\lambda_n$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \lambda_n = 1$ .

The first property, [ND], simply means that each dependence structure in  $\mathcal{D}$  breaks LLN. The second property, [DM], says that if C is considered dangerous and C' is more positively dependent than C, then C' is also considered as dangerous. Convexity [Cx] means combining dangerous scenarios leads to a dangerous scenario. The three properties are arguably quite natural for a concept of concentration of interest to a regulator.

We first verify a few important examples of bivariate concentration classes.

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**Proposition 6.1.** The sets  $\mathcal{D}_p$  for  $p \in (0,1)$  and the singleton  $\{C^+\}$  are bivariate concentration classes.

*Proof.* We first verify the statement for  $\{C^+\}$ . A singleton is obviously convex, and thus [Cx] holds. By Equation (8),  $\{C^+\}$  satisfies [ND]. Since  $C^+$  is the maximum in concordance order,  $\{C^+\}$  satisfies [DM]. Next, we show that  $\mathcal{D}_p$  for  $p \in (0,1)$  satisfies [Cx], [ND], and [DM]. The property [Cx] follows directly from Equation (6). Note that  $C'(p, p) \leq C^+(p, p) = p$  for all  $C' \in C_2$ . Using Equation (6),  $C' \ge C \in \mathcal{D}_p$  implies C'(p, p) = C(p, p) = p, and thus  $C' \in \mathcal{D}_p$ . This shows that  $\mathcal{D}_p$ satisfies [DM]. To show [ND], take  $C \in \mathcal{D}_p$  and construct any sequentially C-coupled sequence  $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ . Since  $(X_n,X_{n+1})$  is p-concentrated, by Corollary A.1 of Wang and Zitikis (2021),  $X_n$  and  $X_{n+1}$  share the same a.s. unique p-tail event  $A = \{X_n > x_p\} = \{X_{n+1} > x_p\}$  where  $x_p = \text{VaR}_p(X_1)$ . Applying this argument to  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we know that  $X_1, X_2, ...$  share the same tail event A, which does not depend on n. Write  $\widetilde{X}_n = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . We note that  $\widetilde{X}_n \mathbb{1}_A$  does not converge to  $\mathbb{E}[X_1] \mathbb{1}_A$  since

$$\mathbb{E}\big[\widetilde{X}_n \mid A\big] = \mathbb{E}[X_1 \mid A] = \mathrm{ES}_p(X_1) > \mathbb{E}[X_1]$$

and  $(\widetilde{X}_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is uniformly integrable. Therefore,

$$\widetilde{X}_n = \widetilde{X}_n \mathbb{1}_A + \widetilde{X}_n \mathbb{1}_{A^c} \stackrel{p}{\not\to} \mathbb{E}[X_1],$$

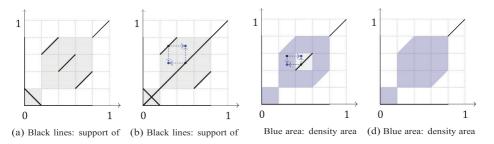
and thus  $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is nondiversifiable. This shows that  $\mathcal{D}_p$  satisfies [ND]. Therefore,  $\mathcal{D}_p$  is a bivariate concentration class. 

If both  $\mathcal{D}$  and  $\mathcal{D}'$  are bivariate concentration classes, then so is  $\mathcal{D} \cap \mathcal{D}'$ . Using this relation, we can construct bivariate concentration classes other than the ones in Proposition 6.1. The next result, which is the most technical result in this section, shows that a bivariate concentration class may not contain anything more than those in  $\mathcal{D}_p$  for some  $p \in (0,1)$ .

**Proposition 6.2.** A copula  $C \in C_2$  is in a bivariate concentration class if and only if  $C \in D_p$  for *some* p ∈ (0, 1).

*Proof.* The "if" statement follows directly from Proposition 6.1. Below we will show the "only if" statement. We first present some technical preparations. For any copula C and  $p \in (0,1)$ , denote by  $t_C(p)$  the essential infimum of the distribution of V given  $U \ge p$  where  $(U, V) \sim C$ , and by  $s_C(p)$ , the essential supremum of the distribution of V given  $U \leq p$ . Since  $\mathbb{P}(U \geq p) = 1 - p$ , the essential infimum of the distribution of V given  $U \ge p$  is at most p, which is the case when  $\{U \ge p\}$ is a p-tail event of V. Therefore,  $t_C(p) \le p$  and similarly,  $s_C(p) \ge p$  for  $p \in (0,1)$ . Moreover, both  $t_C$  and  $s_C$  are increasing curves on (0,1). See Figure 1a for an illustration, where the gray area  $B_C$ is the area between the curves  $t_C$  and  $s_C$ .

To proceed, we need the following lemma, which may be of interest in dependence theory by its own right. Below, by saying that a copula C has positive density on a region, we meant that the Lebesgue measure is absolutely continuous with respect to the measure associated with C on this region. Such C has a positive absolutely continuous part on the region, and may also include a nonabsolutely continuous part (thus it may not be absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure).



**FIGURE 1** Intuition behind Lemma 6.3; here, C is a  $5 \times 5$  checkerboard copula. [Color figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

**Lemma 6.3.** For any  $C \in C_2$ , there exists a copula  $\widetilde{C} \ge C$  such that  $\widetilde{C}$  has positive density on the region  $B_C := \{(u,v) \in [0,1]^2 : t_C(u) < v < s_C(u)\}$ .

The proof of Lemma 6.3 requires some delicate constructions of copulas, and it is put in Appendix A. Here, we briefly explain the intuition behind the proof. For any given copula C supported in a subset of  $B_C$  possibly with no density (see Figure 1a), we first mix it with the comonotonic copula  $C^+$ , so that the resulting copula  $C' \ge C$  has a support that includes the diagonal line in [0,1] (see Figure 1b). Second, we run a continuum of concordance-increasing (CI) transfers of Tchen (1980) (see Figure 1b,c) on C' to obtain another copula  $\widehat{C} \ge C'$ , which has positive density on a subset of  $B_C$ . Finally, we run another continuum of CI transfers on  $\widehat{C}$  to arrive at a copula  $\widetilde{C} \ge \widehat{C}$ , which has positive density on  $B_C$  (see Figure 1c,d).

We continue to prove Proposition 6.2. Let  $\mathcal{D}$  be a bivariate concentration class and take  $C \in \mathcal{D}$ . Suppose for the purpose of contradiction that there does not exist  $p \in (0,1)$  such that C(p,p) = p. Note that if  $s_C(p) = p$ , then  $C(p,p) = \mathbb{P}(U \le p, V \le p) = \mathbb{P}(U \le p) = p$ . Similarly, if  $t_C(p) = p$ , then C(p,p) = p. Hence, our assumption on C implies that  $t_C(p) for all <math>p \in (0,1)$ .

Take  $\widetilde{C}$  as the one in Lemma 6.3. Since  $\mathcal{D}$  is a bivariate concentration class and  $\widetilde{C} \geqslant C$ , we have  $\widetilde{C} \in \mathcal{D}$ . Let

$$\widetilde{C}_{2|1}(v|u) = \frac{\partial \widetilde{C}}{\partial u}(u,v)$$
, if the partial derivative exists. (9)

It is known that  $\widetilde{C}_{2|1}$  is a conditional distribution of V given U, where  $(U,V) \sim \widetilde{C}$ ; see Joe (2014, Section 2.1.3). As a consequence,  $\widetilde{C}_{2|1}$  exists almost everywhere and takes value in [0,1]. Let  $\widetilde{C}_{2|1}^{-1}(v|u)$  be the corresponding conditional v-quantile of V given U=u for  $u,v\in(0,1)$ ; we omit "almost everywhere."

Take a sequence  $(U_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  of iid random variables uniformly distributed on [0,1]. We will construct a Markov process  $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  as follows. Let

$$X_1 = U_1 \text{ and } X_{n+1} = \widetilde{C}_{2|1}^{-1}(U_{n+1}|X_n) \text{ for } n \geqslant 1.$$
 (10)

By construction,  $(X_n, X_{n+1})$  has the distribution  $\widetilde{C}$  for each n; see Joe (2014, Section 6.9). Moreover,  $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is obviously Markov and stationary. Since  $t_C(u) < u < s_C(u)$  for all  $u \in (0,1)$  and  $\widetilde{C}$  has positive density on  $B_C$ , we know that each state in (0,1) is reachable from any state in (0,1). This means that the Markov process  $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is irreducible (Definition 4.1 of Tierney (1996)). Since an irreducible and stationary Markov process satisfies LLN (see Theorem 4.3 of Tierney (1996)), we

have  $n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^n X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} \mathbb{E}[X_1]$ . This shows that  $\widetilde{C}$  is diversifiable, contradicting  $\widetilde{C} \in \mathcal{D}$ . Therefore, we conclude that C(p,p)=p for some  $p\in(0,1)$ , leading to the desired "only if" statement.

Remark 6.4. We comment on two technical points. First, convexity [Cx] is not needed in the proof of the "only if" direction in Proposition 6.2. Therefore, a copula C is in any set satisfying [ND] and [DM] if and only if  $C \in \mathcal{D}_p$  for some  $p \in (0,1)$ . Second, to show that  $\widetilde{C}$  is diversifiable in the above proof, we constructed the Markov process  $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in Equation (10) with uniform marginal distributions. A strictly increasing transform on  $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  does not matter as the resulting Markov process is always irreducible. Hence, we may alternatively define nondiversifiability of a copula by requiring Equation (7) to hold only for the sequentially  $\widetilde{C}$ -coupled process with Markov dependence (10) and a uniform marginal distribution (or another continuous marginal distribution), and our results in Propositions 6.1 and 6.2 remain valid.

Proposition 6.2 leads to a characterization of  $\mathcal{D}_p$  as an important subclass of bivariate concentration classes. A bivariate concentration class  $\mathcal{D}$  is *maximal* if there does not exist another bivariate concentration class  $\mathcal{D}' \neq \mathcal{D}$  containing  $\mathcal{D}$ .

**Theorem 6.5.** The set  $D \subseteq C_2$  is a maximal bivariate concentration class if and only if  $D = D_p$  for some  $p \in (0,1)$ .

*Proof.* We first show the "if" statement. To show that  $\mathcal{D}_p$  is maximal, suppose that a bivariate concentration class  $\mathcal{D}$  satisfies  $\mathcal{D}_p \subseteq \mathcal{D}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  contains a copula  $C \notin \mathcal{D}_p$ . This means C(p,p) < p since  $C(p,p) \leqslant p$  is satisfied by any copula. Take another copula  $C' \in \mathcal{D}_p$  satisfying C'(u,u) < u for all  $u \in (0,1) \setminus \{p\}$ . Such a copula can be obtained by, for instance, mixing a Lebesgue measure on  $[0,p]^2$  and a Lebesgue measure on  $[p,1]^2$ . Let  $C^* = C/2 + C'/2$ , which is in  $\mathcal{D}$  since  $\mathcal{D}$  is convex. We have  $C^*(u,u) < u$  for all  $u \in (0,1)$ , and hence  $C^*$  is not in any  $\mathcal{D}_u$ . By Proposition 6.2,  $C^*$  is not in any bivariate concentration class, a contradiction to  $C^* \in \mathcal{D}$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{D}_p$  is maximal. Below, we show the "only if" statement. Let  $\mathcal{D}$  be a bivariate concentration class. If there exists  $p \in (0,1)$  such that C(p,p) = p for all  $C \in \mathcal{D}$ , then we have  $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_p$ , and the maximality of  $\mathcal{D}$  implies  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_p$ .

Next, we suppose that there does not exist  $p \in (0,1)$  such that C(p,p) = p for all  $C \in \mathcal{D}$ . We will show that this case is not possible by contradiction. Take any  $\varepsilon \in (0,1/2)$ . For each  $p \in [\varepsilon,1-\varepsilon]$ , our assumption implies that there exists a copula  $C^p \in \mathcal{D}$  such that  $C^p(p,p) < p$ . Note that  $C^p(u,u)$  is continuous in u since all copula functions are Lipchitz continuous. As a consequence, there exists an open interval  $I_p$  with  $p \in I_p$  such that  $C^p(u,u) < u$  for all  $u \in I_p$ . Clearly,  $\{I_p : p \in [\varepsilon,1-\varepsilon]\}$  is an open cover of  $[\varepsilon,1-\varepsilon]$ . Since  $[\varepsilon,1-\varepsilon]$  is compact, there exists a finite subcover, denoted by  $\{I_{p_i}: i=1,\ldots,n\}$ , which satisfies  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n I_{p_i} \supseteq [\varepsilon,1-\varepsilon]$ . Write  $C^{[\varepsilon]} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n C^{p_i}$ . We have  $C^{[\varepsilon]} \in \mathcal{D}$  since  $\mathcal{D}$  is convex. Moreover,  $C^{[\varepsilon]}$  satisfies  $C^{[\varepsilon]}(u,u) < u$  for all  $u \in [\varepsilon,1-\varepsilon]$ .

Define  $C^* = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^{-k} C^{[3^{-k}]}$ . Convexity of  $\mathcal{D}$  for countable sums implies  $C^* \in \mathcal{D}$ . On the other hand,  $C^*(u,u) < u$  for all  $u \in (0,1)$  by construction. Using Proposition 6.2, we know that  $C^*$  is not in a bivariate concentration class. This yields a contradiction.

*Remark* 6.6. In our formulation of [Cx], convexity of  $\mathcal{D}$  is required to hold for countable sums. This property is used in the last step of the proof of Theorem 6.5 to yield that  $C^*$  is in  $\mathcal{D}$ . The current proof techniques do not work if we require convexity of  $\mathcal{D}$  only for finite sums.

To conclude the paper, we put Theorems 4.4 and 6.5 together to arrive at a complete endogenous reasoning for a regulator to use ES.

**Theorem 6.7.** A monetary risk measure  $\rho$  on  $L^{\infty}$  satisfies lower semicontinuity,  $\rho(0) = 0$ , and Daversion for a maximal bivariate concentration class  $\mathcal{D}$  if and only if  $\rho = \mathrm{ES}_p$  for some  $p \in (0,1)$ .

*Proof.* This result follows from combining Theorems 4.4 and 6.5, and noting that  $\mathcal{D}_p$ -aversion is equivalent to [p-CA].

To interpret Theorem 6.7, we make the following economic assumptions on the regulator's preference towards dependence structures in risk aggregation. First, the regulator believes that breaking LLN is dangerous ([ND]); second, the regulator believes that more positive dependence is more dangerous ([DM]); third, the regulator believes that a mixture of dangerous structures is dangerous ([Cx]); fourth, the regulator chooses to use a largest possible set to model such dangerous structures (maximality). If all four assumptions are met, then, by Theorem 6.5, the regulator needs to use a risk measure that satisfies concentration aversion. With some other standard properties in Theorem 4.4, we further arrive at the class of ES. Certainly, the desirability of the four assumptions on the regulator's dependence preference can be debated, and, based on the main results of this paper, such debates can directly translate to critical arguments for or against the use of ES in financial regulation.

Remark 6.8. If maximality is removed from the consideration of the regulator, then we can allow for other bivariate concentration classes. The simplest such example is the singleton  $\mathcal{D}^+ := \{C^+\}$ , which is clearly also the smallest bivariate concentration class. As shown by Mao and Wang (2020), a monetary risk measure is  $\mathcal{D}^+$ -averse if and only if it is SSD-consistent. Therefore, by Theorem 6.7, the maximality of the bivariate concentration class  $\mathcal{D}$  pins down the class of ES among all lower-semicontinuous consistent risk measures. This shows that, among a general class of risk measures, ES has the largest spectrum of dangerous dependence. In other words, if maximality of D is desirable, then ES is the only suitable class; if maximality is relaxed to somewhere between the largest and the smallest, then the regulator has more choices of SSD-consistent risk measures. A larger set of dangerous dependence narrows down the corresponding choices of regulatory risk measures, from all SSD-consistent ones to ES.

# **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

The authors thank the Editor, an Associate Editor, two anonymous referees, Nazem Khan and Yi Shen for helpful comments on an early version of the paper. The authors would like to thank Martin Herdegen for raising the question of whether the NRC axiom of Wang and Zitikis (2021) can be replaced by an alternative natural property without imposing an equality. Ruodu Wang acknowledges financial support from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (RGPIN-2018-03823, RGPAS-2018-522590).

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## **ENDNOTES**

- <sup>1</sup>The property [p-TA] is called p-additivity by Wang and Zitikis (2021).
- <sup>2</sup>Lower semicontinuity is called *prudence* by Wang and Zitikis (2021) and hence the abbreviation [P].
- <sup>3</sup>The partial order  $X \leq_{st} Y$  means  $\mathbb{P}(X \leq t) \geqslant \mathbb{P}(Y \leq t)$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- <sup>4</sup>Continuity with respect to convergence in distribution is an equivalent formulation of robustness as shown by Hampel (1971). A related property in the literature of convex risk measures is the Fatou property, meaning that  $\liminf_{n\to\infty} \rho(X_n) \geqslant \rho(X)$  whenever  $\{X_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a bounded sequence in  $\mathcal{X}$  converging to X (pointwise). Clearly, [P] is stronger than the Fatou property, and we will see in Theorem 4.4 that [P] is used to the characterization of ES. The Fatou property is essential to a dual representation of convex risk measures, and we do not assume convexity in most results in our paper.
- <sup>5</sup>We thank Martin Herdegen for raising this question during a seminar at the University of Warwick in October 2020.
- <sup>6</sup>SSD is also known as increasing convex order in probability theory and stop-loss order in actuarial science.
- <sup>7</sup>A convex risk measure is a monetary risk measure, which also satisfies *convexity*:  $\rho(\lambda X + (1 \lambda)Y) \leq \lambda \rho(X) + (1 \lambda)\rho(Y)$  for all  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ .
- <sup>8</sup> A coherent risk measure is a convex risk measure, which also satisfies *positive homogeneity*:  $\rho(\lambda X) = \lambda \rho(X)$  for all  $\lambda \in (0, \infty)$  and  $X \in \mathcal{X}$ .
- <sup>9</sup>We thank an anonymous referee for bringing this question up.
- <sup>10</sup> If we insist using copulas for continuously distributed random variables, we may alternatively require  $\rho(X+Y) \le \rho(Z+W)$  to hold only for  $X,Y,Z,W \in L_c^{\infty}$  and (Z,W) with a unique copula in  $\mathcal{D}_p$ . This property is slightly weaker than [p-CA], but they are equivalent if  $\rho$  is monotone and lower semicontinuous with respect to a.s. convergence.

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How to cite this article: Han, X., Wang, B., Wang, R., & Wu, Q. (2024). Risk concentration and the mean-expected shortfall criterion. Mathematical Finance, 34, 819-846. https://doi.org/10.1111/mafi.12417

# APPENDIX A: PROOF OF LEMMA 6.3

*Proof of Lemma* 6.3. Let  $C' = C/2 + C^+/2$ . Note that  $C^+ \ge C$ , and hence  $C' \ge C$ . Moreover, since  $t_{C^+} = s_{C^+}$  is the identity on (0,1), we have  $t_{C'} = \min(t_C, t_{C^+}) = t_C$  and  $s_{C'} = \max(s_C, s_{C^+}) = s_C$ . See Figure 1a,b for an illustration of C and C'. It suffices to show that there exists  $\widetilde{C} \geqslant C'$  such that  $\widetilde{C}$  has positive density on  $B_C$ .

Below, for simplicity, we will use the notation C for C' above. (Alternatively, we can directly assume that the measure  $C^+$  is absolutely continuous with respect to the measure C, and the above argument guarantees that this assumption is without loss of generality.)

Take  $(U,V) \sim C$  and  $(U',V') \sim C$  such that (U,V) and (U',V') are independent. Construct a random variable  $\widetilde{V}$  by

$$\widetilde{V} = V \mathbb{1}_{A^c} + V' \mathbb{1}_A$$
, where  $A = \{U > U', \ V < V'\} \cup \{U < U', \ V > V'\}$ . (A.1)

Note that since (U, V) and (U', V') are iid, we have, for  $v \in (0, 1)$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(V' \leq v, A) = \mathbb{P}(V' \leq v, U > U', V < V') + \mathbb{P}(V' \leq v, U < U', V > V')$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(V \leq v, U' > U, V' < V) + \mathbb{P}(V \leq v, U' < U, V' > V) = \mathbb{P}(V \leq v, A).$$

Hence,

$$\mathbb{P}(\widetilde{V} \leqslant v) = \mathbb{P}(V \leqslant v, A^c) + \mathbb{P}(V' \leqslant v, A) = \mathbb{P}(V \leqslant v, A^c) + \mathbb{P}(V \leqslant v, A) = \mathbb{P}(V \leqslant v) = v$$

implying that  $\widetilde{V}$  is uniformly distributed on [0,1]. As a consequence, the distribution of  $(U,\widetilde{V})$  is a copula, and we denote it by  $\widehat{C}$ .

We first verify  $\hat{C} \ge C$ . Using the fact that (U, V) and (U', V') are iid, we get, for  $(u, v) \in [0, 1]^2$ ,

$$\begin{split} & \mathbb{P}((U,V') \leqslant (u,v), \ U < U', \ V > V') - \mathbb{P}((U,V) \leqslant (u,v), \ U < U', \ V > V') \\ & = \mathbb{P}(U \leqslant u, \ V' \leqslant v < V, \ U < U') \\ & = \mathbb{P}(U' \leqslant u, \ V \leqslant v < V', \ U' < U) \\ & \geqslant \mathbb{P}(U \leqslant u, \ V \leqslant v < V', \ U > U') \\ & = \mathbb{P}((U,V) \leqslant (u,v), \ U > U', \ V < V') - \mathbb{P}((U,V') \leqslant (u,v), \ U > U', \ V < V'). \end{split}$$

As a consequence,

$$\mathbb{P}((U,V')\leqslant (u,v),\,A)\geqslant \mathbb{P}((U,V)\leqslant (u,v),\,A),$$

and hence

$$\mathbb{P}((U,\widetilde{V}) \leqslant (u,v)) = \mathbb{P}((U,V) \leqslant (u,v), A^c) + \mathbb{P}((U,V') \leqslant (u,v), A) \geqslant \mathbb{P}((U,V) \leqslant (u,v)),$$

which gives the order  $\widehat{C}(u,v) \ge C(u,v)$ . Intuitively, this is because  $\widehat{C}$  is obtained from C via a continuum of CI transfers (see Figure 1b).

Finally, we verify the statement on the positive density on  $B_C$ . For  $(s, t) \in [0, 1]^2$ ,

$$\begin{split} \widehat{C}(s,t) &= \mathbb{E} \big[ \mathbb{P} \big( (U,\widetilde{V}) \leqslant (s,t) \mid U,V \big) \big] \\ &= \int_{[0,1]^2} \mathbb{P} \big( (U,\widetilde{V}) \leqslant (s,t) \mid (U,V) = (u,v) \big) \mathrm{d}C(u,v) \\ &= \int_{[0,s] \times [0,1]} \mathbb{P} \big( \widetilde{V} \leqslant t \mid (U,V) = (u,v) \big) \mathrm{d}C(u,v) \end{split}$$

Write  $t \wedge v = \min(t, v)$ . We have  $\widehat{C} = F + G$  where

$$F(s,t) = \int_{[0,s]\times[0,1]} \left( \mathbb{P}\left(V' \leqslant t \wedge v, \ U' > u \right) + \mathbb{P}\left(v < V' \leqslant t, \ U' < u \right) \right) dC(u,v),$$

and

$$G(s,t) = \int_{[0,s]\times[0,t]} \left( \mathbb{P}\left(U' \leqslant u, \ V' \leqslant v\right) + \mathbb{P}\left(U' \geqslant u, \ V' \geqslant v\right) \right) dC(u,v).$$

Note that F and G are the distribution functions of two Borel measures on  $[0,1]^2$ . Below we will show that F has a positive density on a subset of  $B_C$  (this is shown in Figure 1c), and then we use another construction to obtain positive density on  $B_C$ .

Since V' is uniform on [0,1], we know  $\mathbb{P}(V' \leq t \wedge v) = t \wedge v$ , and hence

$$F(s,t) = \int_{[0,s]\times[0,1]} \left(t \wedge v - \mathbb{P}\left(V' \leqslant t \wedge v, \ U' < u\right) + \mathbb{P}\left(v < V' \leqslant t, \ U' < u\right)\right) dC(u,v)$$

$$= \int_{[0,s]\times[0,1]} \left(t \wedge v + C(u,t) - 2C(u,t \wedge v)\right) dC(u,v).$$

Using (see Section 2.12 of Joe (2014))

$$C_{2|1}(v|u) = \frac{\partial C}{\partial u}(u,v)$$
 and  $C_{1|2}(u|v) = \frac{\partial C}{\partial v}(u,v)$  almost everywhere, (A.2)

we get

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial s}(s,t) = \int_{[0,1]} (t \wedge v + C(s,t) - 2C(s,t \wedge v)) C_{2|1}(\mathrm{d}v|s).$$

Exchanging the order of the derivative and the integral (guaranteed by the dominated convergence theorem), we get

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial s \partial t}(s,t) &= \int_{[0,1]} \left( \left( 1 - C_{1|2}(s|t) \right) \mathbb{I}_{\{t < v\}} + C_{1|2}(s|t) \mathbb{I}_{\{t > v\}} \right) C_{2|1}(\mathrm{d}v|s) \\ &= \left( 1 - C_{1|2}(s|t) \right) \left( 1 - C_{2|1}(t|s) \right) + C_{1|2}(s|t) C_{2|1}(t|s). \end{split}$$

Therefore, we have  $\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial s \partial t}(s,t) > 0$  as soon as  $(C_{1|2}(s|t), C_{2|1}(t|s))$  is not (0,1) or (1,0). Equivalently,  $\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial s \partial t}(s,t) > 0$  if the support of C includes either (s',t) to the left of (s,t) and (s,t') below (s,t), or (s',t) to the right of (s,t) and (s,t') above (s,t). Since the support of C includes the diagonal line, F has positive density on the set

$$B_C^* = \{(s,t) : t_C^*(s) \le t \le s_C^*(s)\},$$

where  $t_C^*(s)$  is the essential infimum of  $C_{2|1}(\cdot|s)$  and  $s_C^*(s)$  is the essential supremum of  $C_{2|1}(\cdot|s)$ . Since  $\widehat{C} = F + G$ , we obtain that  $\widehat{C}$  has positive density on  $B_C^*$ , possibly plus a nonabsolutely continuous component coming from G.

Generally, the set  $B_C^*$  may be different from the set  $B_C$ . To obtain a positive density on  $B_C$ , we apply the above procedure again with  $\widehat{C}$  in place of C, starting from Equation (A.1). This time, we arrive at a new copula  $\widetilde{C} \geqslant \widehat{C}$  such that  $\widetilde{C}$  has positive density on  $B_{\widehat{C}}^*$  (this is shown in Figure 1d). We claim  $B_C \subseteq B_{\widehat{C}}^*$ . To show this, take  $(s,t) \in B_C$ . Assume  $t \geqslant s$ , and the case s < t is symmetric. By definition of  $B_C$ , there exists (s',t') in the support of C such that  $s' \leqslant s$  and  $t' \leqslant t$ . This implies that  $(s',t) \in B_C^*$ . Since  $\widehat{C}$  has positive density on  $B_C^*$ , we know that (s',t) and (s,s) are both in the support of  $\widehat{C}$ . This further implies  $(s,t) \in B_{\widehat{C}}^*$ , and hence  $B_C \subseteq B_{\widehat{C}}^*$ . Therefore, we conclude that  $\widehat{C}$  has positive density on  $B_C$ .