GUIDELINES ON RISK MANAGEMENT PRACTICES IN
STATISTICAL ORGANISATIONS

FIRST DRAFT

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FOREWORD

These Guidelines are intended to help the implementation of a Risk Management system in Statistical Organisations.

In order to identify a practice that accounts for the National Statistical Offices particular features, the first step of analysis has concerned the collection of actual cases of implementation of risk management systems at international level. In 2015 two surveys have been carried out in order to analyze to what extent Risk management systems are adopted among the NSO’s members of the UNECE – as well as among countries and international organizations not belonging to the UNECE and yet participating in the Commission’s activities.

Data collected through the first survey has been pre-analyzed according to a theoretical paradigm – named “The template” – shared through a research paper during the “Workshop on modernization of Statistical production and services”, held in Geneva on 19 -20 November 2014. The template takes into account the most relevant and useful standards such as Enterprise Risk Management Conceptual Framework (ERM): Internal Control – Integrated Control, developed by the Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of the Treadway Commission (Co.S.O.) and ISO 31000:2009 (Risk Management – Principles and guidelines).

The countries involved in the second survey have been selected according to the following criteria: long-term positioning within the most developed areas; representativeness related to the geographical area (EU/not EU countries); compliance with acquired standards and practices.

From a methodological point of view, it should be highlighted that the selection carried out is not based on a performance ranking. Actually, it aims at focusing on the most relevant features required for a high-quality Risk management practice, because information from the respondents will contribute to define a global framework inferred from each system already developed and spread.

The Guidelines don’t aim at detecting a best practice according to the risk management international standards, but the practice or practices most adjustable to the NSOs’ organizational context with a view to reproducibility¹. Their goal is therefore to provide a

¹ The notion of reproducibility refers to a Standard features’ transferability regardless of any difference in the organizational context; that implies emulation, that is, the possibility for other organizations to opt for the same model. "Reproducibility" can be explained through both Portability, that is, the above-mentioned transferability, and
both theoretical and practical tool helping the NSOs modernization process, given that a risk management system implementation contributes to focus on control in statistical quality.

This draft consists of two sections, whose index complies with Risk Management standard ISO31000/2009:

- Section 1 investigates the Risk Management system;
- Section 2 focuses on the risk management process.

The Sections 1 and 2 include **Question Mark boxes** that consistently report some answers to the questions contained in the first and the second survey.

Each paragraph includes key words (“tags”) to make topic findings easier within the Guidelines.

The Guidelines also comprise:

- **The Annexes** which shows a more practical approach to the different domains of Risk Management, describing two categories of examples:
  - Focus points on Risk Management core topics;
  - Case-studies, shortly reporting some NSOs' significant experiences on particular features of the Risk Management systems;

- **The References**, concerning the main sources of the Guidelines;

- **The Glossary**, with the definition of the main relevant terms of the Guidelines.

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Adaptability, that is, the power to be used in different contexts without any further actions or tools: in other words, the owner to be customizable.
SECTION 1: RISK MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORK

Risk management Mandate & strategy
Establishing Risk management policy
Integrated approach with Statistical Quality Management

Risk Organizational culture
Training
Delivering roles and responsibilities

Settling Risk Management System
Risk Management Resources
Monitoring & Reporting
Risk Management Process

Monitoring and review of the framework
Establishing reporting mechanism

See Section 2
1. Settling the Risk Management System

A Risk management framework (system)\(^2\) provides the infrastructure for delivering, maintaining and governing risk management throughout the organization. As a part of this framework, an organization should set up:

a. A Risk Management Mandate that is the board statement setting direction and priorities for Risk management, and through which “who does what” is given proper authorization as well as all the necessary resources to play his/her role. This is the main expression of the Risk Governance, through which the organization’s board engages stakeholders in locating the different responsibilities for managing risks.

b. A Risk strategy, that points out how risk management supports the organization’s overall strategy and related objectives. It takes into consideration the external and internal context, focusing in particular on key stakeholders demands.

c. A Risk policy provides a clear and concise outline of the organization’s requirements for risk management within the organization’s overall approach to governance. It includes the risk appetite statement, the HR training program to support Risk Management process as well as a definition of risk assessment criteria.

d. An integrated risk approach supports quality management in improving statistical data integrity and quality, through identification, analysis and treatment of risks inherent to statistical and over-arching processes.

1.1 Risk Management Mandate and Strategy

TAGS: Philosophy; Mandate; Scope; Plan.

A Risk Management Strategy includes definition of risk management scope and plan as well as the discussion of Risk Management philosophy.

I. Risk Philosophy

A Risk management philosophy is the set of shared beliefs and attitudes characterizing how risk is considered in any organizational activities. It affects how risk management

\(^2\) The AS/NZS 4360:2004 standard uses the following definition of Risk Management framework: “set of elements of an organization’s management system concerned with managing risk”. Within this draft the clauses “RM framework” and “RM system” are being used as synonyms.
components are applied, including how risks are identified, the kinds of risks accepted, and how they are managed.

When the risk management philosophy is not developed, understood, and embraced by the staff very well, an uneven application of risk management across business units, functions, or departments is likely. Even when the philosophy is well developed, nonetheless cultural differences among units resulting in variation in enterprise risk management application may be found.

Therefore, risk philosophy, risk appetite and risk strategy should be always kept aligned, as one reflects the other. To this purpose it’s necessary to “measure” risk perception by the management staff – as some managers may be prepared to take more risk while others are more conservative – as well as the risk maturity of organizational context, since this latter could be more or less resilient in facing risk.

II. Mandate

A mandate in Risk management expresses itself through an official statement/document that clearly indicates the Risk Management strategy and objectives, the people accountable for them at any level, also authorizing such people to use proper resources for achieving the objectives assigned.

Defining and communicating this statement testifies an organization’s commitment to implement a Risk management system.

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**Box 1 - An example of mandate among NSIs**

“Minimizing any significant risks, arising during activities and services, through the application of effective risk management principles and practices. The organization will bear an acceptable level of risk, but only after weighing up the likelihood, consequences and cost of an adverse event occurring against the availability of resources to eliminate or manage the risk”.

*Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics – Accountable Authority Instructions*

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III. Risk Management scope

Dealing with the scope within a Risk Management strategy means that all staff is made aware of the relevance of risk in achieving the objectives assigned as well as specific training for such staff is envisaged. It also means that a common approach to risk management is shared across the organization, including a common risk language.
IV. Risk Plan

To implement a Risk Management system a Risk Plan is needed such that needs to include:

• Risk Management objectives (strategic as well as operational ones);
• Risk Management activities to be undertaken within a proper timeframe to help the organization achieve its strategic objectives;
• Resources required, including people, knowledge and budget;

How the Risk Management strategy progress will be monitored, reviewed and reported.

As regards the activities to be undertaken, several of them are crucial whether resulting from an extended program or from a “quick” one through a “prototypal release” of the Risk Management System. The resources that an organization will invest in implementing such a System are also crucial to determine the quality and progress of results.

1.2 Establishing Risk Management policy

TAGS: Risk appetite; Risk Profile; Top Management; Commitment; Stakeholder.

To achieve consistency in Risk Management activities across the organization, the Risk Management policy should contain a high level overview and description of the Risk Management process.

The main features of the policy are:

• Definition of Corporate Risk Appetite: the Board and senior managers set up the risk tolerance level through identifying general boundaries against unacceptable exposure to risk. The corporate risk appetite is then used to shape tolerance levels down the organization (see below);
• Implementation of a Risk Management standardized process at all levels, to ensure that risk management is an inherent part of how core-business is run (see chapter 4);
• Top Management involvement in Risk Management framework design (see below);
• Stakeholders’ empowerment (see below and see also Section 2, ch. 1);
• Definition of risk criteria (see Section 2, ch. 3);
• Definition of a hierarchy of risks (see Section 2, ch. 3);
• Implementation of a Risk Management unit/office (see ch. 2);
• Definition of HR training policy to support Risk Management process (see ch. 2);
• Establishing a communication system (see Section 2, ch. 1);
• Establishing a reporting system (see ch. 4).

I. Risk Appetite and Risk Profile

The concept of risk appetite may be looked at in different ways depending on whether the risk (as a sign of uncertainty) under consideration is a threat or an opportunity.

When considering threats the concept of risk appetite points at a level of exposure which is deemed tolerable and justifiable should the risk be actualized. In this respect risk appetite is about the (financial or otherwise) cost of constraining risk against the cost of exposure should this latter become a reality, in order to find an acceptable balance.

When considering opportunity risk appetite concerns how much the organization is actually willing to risk in order to obtain the related benefits. That is, it concerns the (financial or otherwise) value of potential benefits against the losses which might be incurred (some losses may be incurred with or without obtaining such benefits). Indeed, certain kinds of risk are unavoidable and it is not within reach of the organization to completely put them under control – for example, the risk arising from terrorist activity. In these cases the organization needs to make contingency plans.

In both cases, risk appetite will best be expressed as a series of boundaries, properly authorized by the Board, which provide any level of the organization with clear guidance on the amount of risk to be undertaken. Risk appetite is not necessarily static; in particular, the organization’s Board is entitled to vary the amount of risk to be dealt with under the circumstances. It is worth observing that risk appetite can be determined either qualitatively or quantitatively, so it may be expressed in terms of range rather than exact amount.

Risk appetite is usually defined qualitatively, such as high, moderate, or low. Even if qualitative measures may be less precise, they still provide valuable guidance in assessing proper levels of risk taking.

Another consideration when developing risk appetite concerns evaluation of risk capacity, that is referred to the maximum potential impact from a risk event that an organization can withstand. Risk capacity is usually established in terms of capital, liquid assets or borrowing capacity. Risk appetite cannot exceed an entity’s risk capacity, and in fact, in most cases, appetite is set well below capacity.

Last but not least, an entity should consider its stakeholders’ overall desire for risk. Even if
none of the previous considerations significantly limit an organization's risk appetite, stakeholders may have conservative return expectations and a very low appetite for risk-taking that would directly impact on setting risk appetite by the board and management.

**II. Risk Management Commitment**

Risk management design should be mostly contributed to by top management with the assistance of middle/low management and technical staff (for example, through mixed working groups). Especially during the start-up phase any organizational level should be involved in order to collect inputs and needs (for example, through ad hoc interviews). Employees best know the most typical and recurring risks in their area and should be both encouraged and engaged to regularly give information about them.

Risk management goals should be not only clearly defined and communicated by Top management but also discussed within each of NSOs units. Each unit should have a contact person entitled to coordinate all the Risk management activities in cooperation with his/her colleagues, including the head of unit.

**III. Stakeholders’ empowerment**

It is really important to establish and maintain proper risk frameworks that ensure cooperation with stakeholders in achieving common objectives (e.g. the public's trust in the quality of Official Statistics; protection of confidentiality related to respondent data, etc.). Actually, an organization should regularly circulate information as well as keep dialoguing about risk management with internal and external stakeholders, in order to ensure that everybody understands the basis on which decisions are made and the reasons why particular actions are required.

To this purpose, the organization needs to:

- periodically review interfaces;
- check whether communication is correctly understood and all communication channels are effective;
- set up clear communication protocols in order to ensure there is a common understanding of the respective responsibilities;
- implement a consultative team approach to help properly define the internal and external context and ensure risks are identified effectively; to put different areas of expertise together when analyzing risks; to ensure different views are properly considered in evaluating risks; to assure appropriate change management during risk treatment;
• develop communication plan for both internal and external stakeholders at the earliest stage of the Risk Management process;
• encourage, acknowledge and appreciate unsolicited views;
• provide periodic feedback to show how well what was promised or projected has been actually performed.

For further information see Section 2, chapter 1.

1.3 Adopting an integrated risk approach connected to Statistical Quality Management

TAGS: Approach; Statistical risk; Quality framework.

Risk Management is essential to achieve the organization’s strategic outcome and such fulfilment can only be reached by ensuring that risk is included as a routine in all significant decision-making. This means that Risk Management should be part of the organization’s culture, that is, embedded in every organizational process, both production and supporting ones.

That requires an agreed approach, integrated with corporate strategy, outlining exposures, issues and potential problem areas: an integrated risk management should result in a system that is a part of the regular organizational performance review, where the organization not only looks at performance and events, but identifies, in a systematic way, important gaps, variations and exposures in order to get ahead of (mitigate) their possible impact.

From a practical point of view:

a. Risk management should not be seen as a separate system existing independently from the way in which the organization manages itself, makes decisions, allocates resources and holds people accountable.

b. Risk management cannot take place at some levels if that means excluding other ones.

c. Risk management cannot take place in few parts of the organization only.

According to the holistic approach, risks should be viewed and assessed at any level in the organization. They should be a major consideration in approving the investment proposal as well as integrate tools for project management and performance monitoring. Accordingly, they should be integrated into key accountability documents and internal strategic and
The most advanced statistical institutions (NSOs) have developed integrated models based on enterprise-wide perspective of risk, adopting standardized terms and concepts to promote effective implementation across the organization.

In these systems all aspects of internal control are developed through a risk-based approach built on the following criteria:

a. Policy positions reflect the risk appetite of senior management and are developed to guide the behavior of empowered staff in managing risks faced in performing their assignments.

b. Governance arrangements ensure transparency in decision making as well as accountability by promoting strong leadership, sound management and effective planning and review.

c. Planning and Reporting provide great opportunities to document goals and related risks.

d. Assurance activities are a part of Internal audit aiming at verifying that Risk management within an organization is run consistently with international standards and established practice; still, such activities have to be targeted on the comparative importance assigned to the objectives by the organization.

Such NSOs have adopted an integrated risk management framework by identifying – in addition to general risk management – a specialized risk management which addresses persistent risks (for example, fraud, work health and safety, ITC security and disclosure risk).

They also put a strong focus on managing statistical risk defined as the possibility that one or more of the production process components fail to meet the quality standard established, so resulting in a lower statistical output quality or integrity. Given that statistical risks are unavoidably managed at all levels (strategic, operational and project ones) within a NSO, it is worth noting that even when they are managed separately they should eventually be integrated into an organizational risk framework.

Considering the strong connection between quality and risk, risks can be treated by applying quality management especially at operational level.

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3 Internal audit should be carried out by an independent organization’s unit playing an advisory role and providing independent assurance and assistance to the Chief Statistician (see Section 2, chapter 5).

4 The Institution managing all these persistent risks is the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), which has also developed a quality improvement framework of the statistical chain based on risk management (see Annex).

5 A) Quality is defined as the extent to which characteristics of an object meets the requirements (ISO 9001:2015). Risk is defined as the effect of uncertainty on objectives (ISO 31000). Objectives can be regarded as high level requirements. B) Traditionally, quality is focused on product quality and customer satisfaction (ISO 9001). However, the definition of quality can be applied to other objects such as processes, input as well as the institution as a whole.
Indeed, risk management and quality management are similar:

- Quality management usually defines requirements and assesses whether and when they are met (through review, audit, etc.). If requirements are not met correction actions are implemented;

- Risk management identifies threats (risk sources) that can affect objectives. If risk level is too high mitigating measures are implemented.

Even though a lot of general quality frameworks exist in literature, applications of quality continuous improvement approaches among NSOs are still limited.

In implementing their framework for statistical business process quality improvement, NSOs should pay particular attention to:

- extract from the existing models key elements and possible relations for a general quality framework of statistical processes/chain;

- adopt a common vocabulary for quality and risk management.

Independently of the standard adopted, a first step in implementing a quality framework is to design process flow map(s), in order to identify the points where to measure products and process quality.

Process mapping can help to understand how a system works and identifies how a system interacts with other systems and processes\(^6\).

Another key step is to identify the statistics quality demands by users with respect to the process under consideration\(^7\). Quality demands should encompass both quality criteria and demands related to risks. A process is in control when quality criteria are met and risks are acceptable.

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\(^6\) NSOs could use the Generic Statistical Business Process Model (GSBPM) as a guide to map the activities of statistical processes. This grants that all steps of a statistical process are included for monitoring purposes. For example the "Collect" phase of the GSBPM includes any activities related to obtaining data. Considering the recent adoption of the Generic Activity Model for Statistical Organizations (GAMSO) which extends and complements GSBPM by adding other activities which are needed to support statistical production, it would be useful to introduce this standard in order to support implementation of an entire risk management system. For details on process mapping, see Section 2 Ch. 2.

\(^7\) BLUE-ETS Project : SP1-Cooperation-Collaborative Project /Small or medium-scale focused research project/FP7-SSH-2009-A/Grant Agreement Number 244767/ Deliverable 7.3
2. Risk Management Resources

TAGS: HR allocation; Internal stakeholders; Organizational changes; Organizational climate; Organizational culture; Risk Management Training; Skills and competencies.

2.1 Risk organizational culture

Risk management initiatives can promote employees’ sense of belonging to a group as well as their own significance within the organization. People cooperate to set up a risk management system, an asset management, to define the cross-organizational measures, and so on. Moreover, risk management provides a systematic standard mechanism of internal control that obliges all staff to come together from different areas to discuss, identify issues and solve problems – that is, it intensifies interactions. Risk management system also provides a good basis for creating and maintaining quality culture and positive working atmosphere through making staff feel as a co-author of a huge work done by the organization.

Human capital is recognized as one of the key elements for obtaining organizational success and some uncertainties which give rise to risks can actually come from the organization’s internal environment. For example, the way in which top management reacts to the results of monitoring may affect the behavior of employees; the organization should be quite clear about the uncertainty coming from relying on a single human-dependent control to make a large modification to risk, and should properly reward efforts by individuals. Consistently, when designing the framework and implementing all aspects of the risk management process, specific actions are needed in order to integrate such human and cultural factors.

Change, and culture change in particular, is a weakness in risk management: process is not the problem, but people’s perception of it. Therefore, two important lessons learned from implementing risk management by some NSOs that other ones should take into account when developing their own processes, are: embedding clear risk based thinking at the highest level of the organization, while ensuring its cascading down to lower management and employees; presenting the risk based thinking not as something totally new to reduce resistance and showing it as an important feature of any change process.

Job profiles (outlining role, performance expectations and development objectives), should

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9 ISO/TR 31004:2013(E) reports common types of error related to human and cultural characteristics: a) failure to detect and respond to early warnings; b) indifference to the views of others or to a lack of knowledge; c) bias due to simplified information processing strategies to address complex issues; d) failure to recognize complexity.
be identified for staff assigned to run risk management matters, and specific descriptions on specific issues should be included in the General Risk Manager’s and Risk officers’ job profiles.

With reference to control actions, an organization should establish, among others, **preventive human capital controls** to reduce the likelihood and/or impact of adverse and critical events like noncompliance and misconduct\(^\text{10}\). Consequently, the organization should enhance and/or revise the prioritized risk matrix and, as needed, the risk optimization plan to reflect implemented human capital incentives, according to current residual risk analysis and performance against planned residual risk analysis.

**QUESTION MARK BOX**

Q. Have job profiles been identified for the staff assigned to run Risk Management matters?

R1. “Specific descriptions on Risk Management issues are included in the job descriptions of Risk officers and head of units”

Source: Romania, *In-Depth survey on Risk management practices*

R2. “Yes, done. There is a job description for the General Risk Manager. The Risk Manager of Statistics Austria holds a certificate of a Senior Risk Manager with regard to ÖNORM EN ISO 31000 and ONR 49003 (Austrian Economic Chamber, WiFi-Zertifizierungsstelle)”

Source: Austria, *In-Depth survey on Risk management practices*

R3. “All staff have a Development and Performance Agreement (DPA) which outlines their role, performance expectations and development objectives. Roles in relation to risk will be articulated in broad planning and in the individual DPAs but it may not be reflected in a title. In addition, roles in relation to managing specific risks are identified in the risk management documentation”

Source: Australia, *In-Depth survey on Risk management practices*

### 2.2 Training

To effectively implement a risk management system, an organization should allocate **appropriate resources, suitable human capital** as well as ensure that those who are accountable can fulfil their role by providing them with the **training and skills** needed. All staff should be aware of the relevance of risk to achieve the objectives assigned and training to support staff in risk management should be available. Awareness and ongoing support enables individuals to know what is expected and reduces the likelihood of errors.

An organization should identify the presence and effectiveness of current actions and controls in order to deal with threats and opportunities. That includes use of education and

\(^{10}\) At this end, as an example of potential sub practices, an organization can also: define which duties should be segregated to prevent critical events; develop awards and other incentives for contributions by individuals or units that result in reduced residual risk or compliance failures, enforcement actions or other positive challenges to the organization.
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awareness programs. The organizations should also conduct a structured needs assessment identifying risk and training needs (e.g. general control system, specific training on risk management systems, internal control standards, dedicated tools, statistical quality modules, etc.) as well as establish appropriate training and support for responsible personnel. Finally, they determine which kind of awareness, education and support practices should be put in place for each policy and target audience.

It is advisable to start training with a program devoted to managers and employees assigned to run risk management matters at different levels; it would be best if kick-off training activity focuses first on higher-risk areas. It is also important to carry out training initiatives regularly, in accordance with risk management system development, as well as concurrently with significant organizational changes.

RM training needs to be integrated into existing job training, both if risk management is considered a tool for improvement and for the sake of economic efficiency. Using a suitable level of technology and develop e-learning tools to reach a broader target audience are advisable to disseminate education and awareness. The organizations should also plan ad hoc sessions dealing with topics and issues specifically related both to quality and risk management, and in connection with broad organizational change processes requiring careful and effective management of the transitional phase, they should envisage specific training initiatives and/or ad hoc events aimed to describe how risk management does represent a change strategic lever.

QUESTION MARK BOX

Q. Please point out the frequency of the specific training initiatives delivered from the start of the Risk Management system, regardless of their kind:

R. “Yearly training on Risk Management and Internal Control System (ICS) in the framework of workshops (RM, ICS) with an external expert. A presentation of the Risk Management system is provided to all new staff members within Statistics Austria’s general training programme (half-yearly).”

Source: Austria, In-Depth survey on Risk management practices

2.3 Delivering roles and responsibilities

TAGS: Roles; Responsibilities; Accountabilities

Risk management should work at any organizational level as well as through participation by the entire staff, according to respective roles and functions.

The Chief Statistician is responsible for ensuring the setup of an effective risk management system throughout the organization;
The Risk Committee/Board Entity is an oversight entity ruling Risk Management System together with other strategic matters. The Committee/Board sets risk appetite in cooperation with senior management and communicates it throughout the organization. The Committee/Board is responsible for: monitoring compliance with the organization’s risk policy; monitoring the adequacy of controls; monitoring changes to the organization’s risk profile considered as a part of the organization’s strategy and planning processes; assisting the senior management in selecting the key risks; periodically reviewing the Risk Management reporting system as well as the adequacy of Risk Management resources; escalating and reporting material risk issues to the Chief Statistician for consideration.

The Risk Manager works under the guidance of the Committee/Board, is either skilled or even certified in Risk Management and supported by staff consistent with the size of the organization (see below Risk Management unit). The Risk Manager is responsible for: cooperating with Top Management in identifying high risk areas related to strategic or business processes; cooperating with Top Management in defining treatment actions related to key risks; supervising the Risk Management process. Its role should also include: promoting a consistent use of risk management and ownership of risk at all levels within the organization; building a risk-aware culture throughout the organization, including proper education and training; developing, implementing and reviewing risk management; coordinating the other advisory functions on specific aspects of risk management; coordinating responses when risks impact more than one area; managing quality within risk management; reporting, escalating and communicating risk management issues to key stakeholders.

Top Management is responsible for: ensuring that there is a fit-for-purpose and up-to-date risk management framework and process in place and that risk management is adequately resourced and financed; providing strategic direction on the appropriate consideration of risk in decisions, also setting risk appetite and associated authority; approving the risk management policy and disseminating culture on managing risk; ensuring that key risks facing the organization are properly assessed and managed; providing direction and receiving feedback on the effectiveness of risk management and compliance with the risk management policy.

The Head of Department/Divisions/Units must actively manage risks that are part of daily work through complying with the enterprise risk management framework. In particular, such offices: establish risk management objectives and formulate key risk indicators; clarify risk management strategy and risk appetite to the staff; implement the risk management process; manage the risks that fall within their areas of responsibility; cooperate in identifying key risks; monitor risk management action programs; regularly report to senior management any news or changes to existing risks, or failures of existing control measures.
All staff must take risks into account when making decisions and is responsible for an effective management of risks including identification of them. All staff is also responsible for understanding and implementing risk management policies and processes.

Internal Audit (see details in Section 2, ch. 5) is responsible for reporting to the Board on the adequacy of risk management processes within the organization, giving assurance on: their design and how they are working; the effectiveness of controls and response actions to key risks; reliability and suitability in assessment of risks. The achievement of the Internal audit mandate is performed by a governance independent office that directly reports to the Chief statistician.

The Risk Management Unit is coordinated by the Risk Manager and is responsible for: collecting the Risk Identification Form filled by the structures (directorates, divisions, units) under the responsibility of the related risk owner; analyzing the Form and proposing preliminary treatment actions, escalating risk if it exceeds the unit’s level of authority; validating or not the closing solution; setting tasks, risk-indicators, targets and deadlines for proposed actions; preparing documentation for escalated risks and submitting it to appropriate management level (in particular for the cross-cutting actions); monitoring the implementation of control actions, to evaluate the results and propose corrective actions; filling-in the Risk Register; filing risk documents; preparing risk documentation and submitting it to the Risk Manager; preparing Risk Management meetings.

Description of tasks, deadlines and responsibilities for all the Risk Management process actors must be included in a procedure to be made known throughout the organization at least.

3. Risk Management Process (see Section 2)

The Risk Management process is one of the framework elements and derives from the Risk Management policy, because it expresses such a policy from an operational point of view. As an integral part of Risk Management framework, the Risk Management process is a systematic application of management policies, procedures and practices to the tasks of communicating, establishing the context, assessing, monitoring and reviewing risks.

It comprises the following activities:
1) Communication and Consultation;
2) Context analysis;
3) Risk Assessment:
   a. Identification;
   b. Analysis and Measurement;
   c. Weighting;
4) Risk treatment;
5) Monitoring and Review.

The process should also concern the Risk Based Audit and the Information system support all the phases.

Section 2 in this paper contains an analysis of each process phase.

4. Monitoring and Reporting

4.1 Monitoring & Review of the framework

TAGS: System deviations; Risk Management plan; Context Changes; Feedback.

In order to ensure that Risk Management system is effective and continue to support organizational performance, an organization should:

1. *periodically measure progress against and deviation from the Risk Management policy and plan*: the framework and processes should be fit-for purpose and aligned to the objectives/priorities of the organization and relevant stakeholders should receive adequate reporting to enable them to pass their role and responsibilities on the governance structure;

2. *periodically review whether the Risk Management framework, policy and plan are still appropriate, given the organization's external and internal context*: the organization should ensure that changes to the context, or changes to other factors affecting the suitability or cost of risk management, are identified and addressed;

3. *periodically review of the Risk Management process*: the risks management resources should be quantitatively adequate and people across the organization should have enough risk management skills, knowledge and competence, in line with the risk role they are required to perform on a daily basis;

4. *periodically report on the results of monitoring to the board*: based on the results from monitoring and review, decisions should be made to improve the organization's management of risk and its culture, ensuring that the organization is able to learn from risk events.
4.2 Establishing reporting mechanisms

TAGS: Reporting system; Executive & Operative reporting; Stakeholders’ report; Accountability.

An organization should ensure that information about risk derived from the risk management process is adequately reported and used as a basis for decision making at all relevant levels. To this purpose, clear reporting line mechanisms and strong inter-department knowledge sharing should be established in order to encourage accountability of risk and to ensure reports are delivered in an accurate, consistent and timely manner. Moreover, the risk management policy (please see chapter 1) should clearly state the way risk management performance will be reported.

In this respect, inadequate risk reporting\textsuperscript{11} can lead to a failure in fully integrating identified risks into strategic and operational decisions. Aiming at ensuring that risk management is effective and continues to support organizational performance, the organization should report on progress against the risk management plan by proving how well the risk management policy is being followed. More specifically:

1. the results from risk monitoring and review should be recorded as well as internally and externally reported, if appropriate;
2. development in implementing risk treatment plans provides a performance measure: the results should be incorporated into the organization’s overall performance management, measurement and internal and external reporting activities;
3. enhanced risk management comprises continual communications with external and internal stakeholders (please see Section 2, chapter 1), including comprehensive and frequent reporting of risk management performance, as a part of good governance.

The quality and success of risk reporting depend on the following factors:

- target audience;
- input and processes;
- frequency;
- content;
- format;
- dissemination channels.

Determining the target audience is important because it affects other risk reporting

\textsuperscript{11} ISO Guide 73:2009 defines risk reporting as a form of communication intended to inform particular internal or external stakeholders by providing information regarding the current state of risk and its management.
decisions. Whenever a disclosure is asked by a regulatory requirement, the organization must comply and provide appropriate disclosure. On the other hand, voluntary disclosures should be subject to cost-benefit analysis of audiences’ needs and the kind of disclosure (type and detail of risk). Reporting organizational risks should operate on multiple levels to address the needs of diverse audiences, each with their own specific needs, requirements, expectations, agendas and levels of expertise. In this regard, there are two areas of risk reporting:

a) reporting to **internal audiences**.

b) reporting to **external audiences**.

The reporting of risks is essential for internal decision makers to integrate risk evaluations into their operational and investment strategy, review of performance and compensation/reward decisions. External risk reporting has rapidly developed in the last years: corporate governance reports focus attention on internal control too and a review of risks is generally included in the annual reports. Both internal and external audiences can be further divided into two subgroups: on the one hand, some audiences (i.e., boards of directors; regulators among external audiences) must be informed about the organizational risks and risk management processes because of regulation or recommendations. Voluntary disclosure to other internal audiences (i.e., employees) and external stakeholders (i.e., media, citizens’ associations) is recommended because of anticipated benefits to an improved decision-making.

‘**Inputs**’ and ‘**processes**’ are also critical. The most important **inputs** are represented by:

I. the various risks an organization is facing;

II. the stakeholder risk reporting requirements and expectations;

III. the organization existing risk management governance that provides the context for establishing risk reporting processes;

IV. the organizational resources (such as individuals with the necessary skills and experience, financial resources, and access to required information).

How to decide which risks to report, and in what detail, must be discussed according to risk reporting frequency.

**a) Internal reporting**

The organization should establish internal reporting mechanisms in order to support and encourage accountability and ownership of risk. These mechanisms should ensure that: key components of the risk management framework, its effectiveness and the outcomes and any subsequent modifications, are properly disseminated; relevant information derived from the application of risk management is available at appropriate levels and times; there are
processes for consultation with internal stakeholders (please see SECTION 2, Ch. 1). These mechanisms should, where appropriate, include processes to consolidate risk information from a variety of sources, and may need to consider the sensitivity of the information. Internal risk reports can be either real-time or periodic.

The main purpose of **periodic internal risk reports** is to provide **aggregate information** about various relevant organizational risks, with trend indicators and periodic comparisons highlighting changes in risks. Periodic internal risk reporting contributes to strategic oversight and decision-making as well as improved operational business decisions. Risk information may be organized around specific key risk categories rather than around phases of the risk management process. Residual risk reporting involves comparing gross risk (the assessment of risk before controls or risk responses are applied) and net risk (the assessment of risk, taking into account any controls or risk responses applied) to enable a review of risk response effectiveness and alternative management options. **Risk reporting to the board and committees should be made at least quarterly.**

Internal audiences will be interested not only in disclosure of specific risks, but also in the risk management process. A well established and properly managed process will assure internal audiences about the reliability of risk reports: organizations must therefore include information on the quality of their risk management process, particularly in their periodic risk reports.

Comprehensive and frequent internal reporting on both significant risks and risk management performance and process, substantially contributes to effective governance. In this respect, different levels within an organization who need different information from the risk management process require different report types:

- **Executive reporting.** The board of directors has the highest oversight responsibility for developing and implementing the organization’s mission, values, and strategy, and must carefully review corporate processes of risk identification, monitoring, and management. The board also originates risk philosophy, risk appetite, and risk tolerances. Specific reviews of financial objectives, plans and other significant material transactions also typically fall within a board’s responsibility. These responsibilities require broad and transparent reporting on the various organizational risks (strategic, operational, reporting and compliance risks). Appropriate communication **to the board** includes reporting on:
  - progress against organizational objectives and related risks;
  - effectiveness of the ongoing monitoring processes on risk and control matters, including reporting any significant failings or weaknesses.

Risks can crystallize quickly and the board should ensure that there are clear
processes for bringing significant issues to its attention more rapidly when required, and agree triggers for getting that. The board should also specify the nature, source, format and frequency of the information it requires and monitor the information it receives, ensuring that information quality is enough to allow effective decision-making.

- **Operative Reporting.** The risk management system should include procedures for immediately reporting to **appropriate levels of management** any significant control failings or weaknesses that are identified, together with details of corrective actions being undertaken. **Individuals** should systematically and promptly report to low and middle level management any perceived new risks or failures of existing control measures. **Middle level management** should systematically and promptly report to senior management any perceived new risks or failures of existing control measures: actually, without proper internal reporting on organizational risks, managers cannot make optimal tactical decisions. **Senior management** needs relevant and reliable risk reports on a real-time and periodic basis for effective control: an example is represented by the risk matrix, a table in which rows show the risks and columns show their likelihood of occurrence and their impact.

- **Review / Audit report.** Internal audit reports are a key source of information on the organization’s performance and control environment. The output of a review or an audit will be a report summarizing findings and providing conclusions of the assessment against pre-determined criteria. This report may provide recommendations for system improvements based on what the reviewers have observed. An annual report on the overall state of the organization’s internal controls should be also provided (please see SECTION 2, Ch. 5).

### QUESTION MARK BOX

Q. In your Organization, the Risk Management reporting is about:

R. “Management goals, results of risk Workshops, identification and measurement high priority risks, monitoring of risk treatment actions. Monitoring of the implementation of strategic goals is also part of the Risk Management reporting. The Risk Management reports are provided to the Management, risk owners, staff involved and to the Economic Council”.

Source: Austria, *In-Depth Survey on Risk management practices*

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**b) External reporting**

Organizations see increasing pressure for greater transparency, mandated or voluntary, and
a better alignment of externally reported information with the internally reported one. Stakeholders expect intensified corporate risk dissemination and awareness of the critical role of proper risk management. In view of this, an organization should provide accurate, timely and quality reports to meet the external stakeholders’ needs. Specifically, it should periodically conduct a review of the effectiveness of the risk management system and report to stakeholders on that as well as it has been carried out a robust assessment of the principal risks, describing them and explaining how they are being managed or mitigated.

The organizations may consider preparing different, customized risk reports for different external stakeholders. Besides, although internal risk reports aim exclusively at internal audiences, from a broader perspective, external risk reporting, including corporate annual reports, may include both external users and interested internal groups.

**QUESTION MARK BOX**

Q. If a specific Risk Management report with external stakeholders is envisaged, please describe its content:

R. “General description of the Risk Management system (in relation with initiatives within SSE and UNECE); Objectives related to Risk Management process; Main risks identified, treatment actions; Monitoring results, outcomes; Escalated risks, proposed course of action; Improvement of the Risk Management system, next steps”.

Source: Romania, *In-Depth Survey on Risk management practices*

Q. Please specify the frequency of the Risk Management report that is addressed to the external stakeholders:

R1. “On demand”.

Source: Canada, *In-Depth Survey on Risk management practices*

R2. “Yearly”.

Source: Romania, Australia, *In-Depth Survey on Risk management practices*

R3. “Quarterly, Yearly”.

Source: Lithuania, *In-Depth Survey on Risk management practices*
SECTION 2: Risk Management Process
1. Communication & Consultation

**TAGS:** Stakeholders’ involvement; Internal communication; External communication; Information flow; Communication tools.

An organization should ensure that everybody within its staff, according to their role, knows the organization’s risk strategy, risk priorities and related accountabilities. Board responsibilities, among other things, include ensuring sound internal information and communication processes and taking responsibility for external dissemination on risk management and internal control. ‘Communication and consultation’ is not a distinct stage in the management of risk, it runs through the whole process. ‘Communication and consultation’ is important since stakeholders make judgments about risk based on their own perceptions, which should be identified, recorded and integrated into the decision making process.

Consultation with stakeholders therefore needs careful planning because it can build or destroy trust. To strengthen trust in the process results and obtain endorsement for a treatment plan, stakeholders should be involved in all aspects of risk management, including design of communication and consultation process (please see the following sections: Par. 1.1, Par. 1.2).

To this purpose, a plan to disseminate and to account for risk management should involve:

- engaging internal and appropriate external stakeholders ensuring truthful, relevant, accurate and effective exchange of information, taking into account confidential and personal integrity aspects;
- external reporting to comply with legal, regulatory, and governance requirements (please see SECTION 1, Ch. 4);
- providing feedback on communication, consultation and reporting mechanisms.

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12 ISO Guide 73:2009 defines ‘communication and consultation’ as continual and iterative processes regarding the management of risk, that an organization conducts to provide, share or obtain information and to engage in dialogue with stakeholders. Consultation is considered a two-way process of informed communication between an organization and its stakeholders on an issue prior to making a decision or determining a direction.

13 Records of communication and consultation will depend on factors such as the scale and the sensitivity of the activity.
**1.1 Internal Communication**

Two-way communication with the internal audiences (i.e. board of directors; audit / internal control steering committees, if any; all management levels; employees; integrated supply chain partners / other partners, according to an open organization vision) should be considered as a resource to improve the risk management process. Facilitating risk management policy implementation and general engagement in the different process phases is crucial to the entire system effectiveness. Open communication helps decision making processes use risk management information. Moreover, it helps in getting the corporate risks come out and suggests the cross-organizational actions to be implemented in cooperation with the different divisions.

To this purpose, the organization should establish internal communication flows in order to support accountability and ownership of risk along with widespread involvement. These mechanisms ensure that key components of the risk management framework, as well as any subsequent modifications, are properly communicated and submitted for consultation. Internal communication and consultation mechanisms include methodology and the tools through which an organization ensures that everybody within the organization understands, according to his/her role:

- what the risk strategy consists of;
- which the risk priorities are;
- how the accountabilities are assigned and how the related responsibilities fit into the risk framework (who does what).

Identification of new risks or changes in risks already assessed also depends on maintaining a good communication network that is made as such by relevant contacts and sources of

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14 Risks/criticalities gathered into categories according to their strategic significance, and monitored and treated as a priority.
information. If this is not achieved, risk priorities may not be consistently addressed. A consultative team approach may therefore be useful to help properly define the context in order to ensure risks are identified effectively, to bring different areas of expertise together in analyzing risks, to **ensure different views are appropriately considered** in evaluating risks and to make appropriate change management during risk treatment.

Risk management goals should be discussed within each organization unit or project\(^{15}\) and clearly communicated (for example through the ‘Risk appetite’ statement). All staff, both management and non-management employees and necessary internal stakeholders, should be consulted during the risk management process. Risk identification and response should result from a cooperative effort involving key elements from every project or process, as well as feedback from management on the Integrated Risk Management process\(^{16}\). Moreover, in concrete statistical areas, cross-institutional commissions and working groups can play an important role.

To summarize, the internal communication:

- assists in embedding the desired behaviors throughout the organization;
- engages staff in risk management activities;
- enhances risk management process transparency and encourages accountability and ownership of risk;
- facilitates cooperation among the offices/units in defining cross-cutting initiatives e common understanding of concepts, rules for action and integration of risk management in statistical processes, as a basis to prioritize control actions for continuous improvement.

Consequently, an **Internal Communication Plan** should include:

- establishing a team responsible for communicating about managing risk;
- raising awareness about managing risks and the risk management process throughout the organization.

Plans/policy papers, methodological documents and information resulting from the Risk management system should be **disseminated and made available to all employees**. As for the specific communication **channels**, here follows some examples: internal events (e.g. workshops, seminars)\(^{17}\), broadcast e-mails, broadcast voice mails, databases supporting

\(^{15}\) As an example, a risk matrix can be elaborated, as a teamwork task - under the direction by who is responsible for any major statistical and/or organizational project - and the results should be communicated to every participant in the project, in order that they may be aware of their respective duties.

\(^{16}\) Usually on a yearly basis.

\(^{17}\) Especially during the start-up phase, meetings with all the organizational divisions involved should be organized with the purpose of discussing various topical issues in more detail and providing every staff member with the opportunity to express its own opinion and to participate in the decision-making process.
specific risk issues, letters from the board, e-mail discussion groups, Intranet sites capturing information regarding enterprise risk management for easy access by personnel, Web info sessions, conference calls, posters or signs reinforcing key aspects of enterprise risk management, face-to-face discussion, newsletters from the Chief risk officer, field debriefing sessions, Knowledge sharing systems (i.e. wiki, SharePoint sites).

**QUESTION MARK BOX**

Q. Risk management goals are clearly communicated within your organization.

R. “Strongly Agree. The procedures and other documents related to the Risk Management process could be disseminated within the body in charge of monitoring, coordination and methodological guidance of the internal / managerial control system development of the NIS. It should be composed of top management from all statistical domains”.

Source: Romania, *In-Depth survey on Risk management practices*

**1.2 External Communication**

An organization should periodically inform and consult its external stakeholders:

a. about how risks are managed;

b. to deal with stakeholders’ expectations about what the organization can actually deliver;

c. to assure them that the organization will deliver the way they expect.

Effective external communication and consultation ensures that stakeholders understand the basis on which decisions are made.

Actually the ‘Risk profile’ should be developed through a comprehensive process including review of risk information and reflecting recommendations from several sources. It is important that organizations consider each of their significant relationships with partners, contractors and third parties and ensure that appropriate communication and understanding about respective risk priorities are achieved. Communication to external stakeholders about risk issues is crucial: misunderstanding on respective risk priorities can cause serious problems.

A regular and well-made Risk Management Stakeholder Relationship Plan should take into account and effectively set its critical components: dissemination strategy and channels.

Particularly, presentations from senior leaders show support and set expectations for staff in relation to risk, so positively grounding a risk culture.
With reference to the first element, the corporate site is particularly useful for external real-time risk communication. With respect to external periodic risk communication, parts of annual reports or quarterly reports (electronic and/or hard-copy version), are generally viewed as the main channels. Possible communication tools to share information with external stakeholders and to promote dialogue are as follows:

1. corporate site;
2. publications and papers;
3. annual meetings;
4. other external events (e.g. conferences, scientific meetings, workshops, seminars, days of study);
5. corporate newsletters;
6. messages integrated into ongoing corporate communications.

Whatever method is practiced, the communication goal should be to provide external audiences with a sound basis to make comprehensive assessments of reported data (please see section 1, chapter 8).

Above all, a model of risk communication should integrate, instead of fragment, the risk-related information that an organization uses for external disclosure. The challenge is to inform the average member of the external audiences, while being fair and balanced in covering all critical perspectives.

QUESTION MARK BOX

Q. If risks are identified with internal and/or external stakeholders please indicate what kind of consultation is used.

R. “Users of statistics, respondents and other national producers of official statistics should have possibility to make suggestions, comments, complains. Single contact point is established”

Source: Lithuania, Survey on Risk management practices
2. Context analysis

2.1 Establishing the context

To ensure proper accuracy and quality, a detailed detection of context in which the risk management process is to take place should be done.

Establishing the external context ensures that stakeholders and their objectives are considered when developing risk management criteria and that externally generated threats and opportunities are properly taken into account.

Evaluating the organization’s external context may include, but is not limited to:

- the legal, regulatory, environment whether international, national, regional or local;
- the financial, technological, economic environment;
- competitive environment analysis;
- key drivers and trends having impact on the organization’s objectives;
- relationships with, as well as perceptions and values from, external stakeholders.

As risk management takes place in the context of the organization’s goals and objectives, so affecting the setup of criteria for the risk assessment process, it’s necessary to understand the internal context.

To this purpose, organizational analysis and process mapping are two supporting tools. Organizational analysis takes into consideration:

- governance, organizational structure;
- policies, objectives, and the strategies set to achieve them;

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18 Persons or organizations that can either affect or be affected by or perceive themselves to be affected by any decision or activity.
• resources and knowledge (e.g., capital, time, people, processes, systems and technologies);
• information systems;
• relationships with, as well as perceptions and values from, internal stakeholders and the organization’s culture;
• standards, guidelines and models adopted by the organization.

Through process mapping all processes are broken down, analyzed and represented while identifying inputs, information flows, roles and accountabilities and outputs for each of them.

### 2.2 Process mapping

Risk management system implementation requires a deep and documented process analysis concerning the whole organization: it must increasingly involve all activities while distinguishing among core and cross-cutting, down to operational activities in detail. Process mapping should allow an organization to carry out ‘Risk identification’ phase (please see chapter 3) describing objectives, staff, activities, responsibilities, organizational units, outputs, deadlines, sequence and links/interactions among the sub-processes and related documented procedures.

Consequently, ‘Risk analysis’ phase (please see chapter 3) is also effective when including identification of all key processes containing potential exposure to some consequence. To this purpose, it should involve process analysis, directing special attention to key cross-organizational dependencies and significant control nodes, for example: where data originate, where they are stored, how they are converted to useful information and who uses such information.

Process mapping activity entails different steps:

- identifying all routine activities within the scope of the specific process analyzed;
- grouping the activities into key sub-processes;
- determining the sequence of events and links between the sub-processes.

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19 ISO 9000:2000 defines the ‘process’ as a set of interrelated or interacting activities which transforms inputs (financial, people, technology, facilities, information) into outputs. Inputs to a process are generally outputs from other processes. Processes in an organization are planned and carried out under controlled conditions in order to add value. ISO 8042:1994 defines the ‘process’ as a set of inter-related resources and activities which transforms inputs into outputs. Resources may include personnel, facilities, equipment, technology and methodology.
To ensure process maps accurately reflect what actually happens, organizations may combine different methods (see appendix), so an organization should choose the kind of ‘Process Modelling & Mapping’ suitable for its specific goals. The map can be a simple macro-flowchart only showing enough information to understand the general process flow, or it might be detailed to show every single action and decision point.

What follows is a description of different mappings.

- **Macro-level process map.** This is a very deep level as well as rather rare mapping that outlines the operational routes of an organization.

- **Top-Down or High-level process map.** It shows end-to-end processes across the above operational areas. It is quick and easy to draw, but may not provide the necessary details to build understanding or realize improvements. It is good to show the major clusters of activity in a process.

- **Cross-functional process map.** It shows roles, inputs, outputs and steps required to complete a specific process within an operational area. Cross-functional process mapping provides enough information for improvement efforts and uses flowcharts to show the relationship between a business process and the functional units (such as departments) responsible for such a process. These charts emphasize where people or groups fit into the process sequence and how they relate to one another throughout the process. Cross-functional charts are excellent tools to show how a process flows across organizational boundaries.

- **Detailed Process Flowchart.** It details systems, instructions and procedures required to complete steps in processes at level three (Cross-functional process map) and shows inputs, outputs, related steps and decision points. Because of the level of detail such a mapping can be resource-intensive to create, nonetheless it can offer the greatest improvement potential since it shows decisions and subsequent actions, so providing excellent training and reference materials. Flowcharts may be maps or graphical representations.

The process owner should be in charge of process mapping, while process analysis should be made by other roles (either within or without the organization) in order not to be influenced by one’s own working method.

Lastly, reference to the maps, procedural information and the maps themselves need to be stored in a consistent structure called **Process Library**. Responsibility for Process Library needs to be clear just like any process itself needs an owner.
3. Risk Assessment

**TAGS:** Risk identification; Risk analysis; Risk weighting; Techniques; Roles & accountabilities

Organizational context analysis affects the methodology used to assess risks, since it affects the choice of assessment criteria. The first activity within the risk assessment process is to develop a common set of assessment criteria to be deployed across business units, corporate functions, and large capital projects. Risks and opportunities are typically assessed according to their both impact and likelihood.

Some risks are dynamic and require ongoing assessment, other ones are more static but their periodical reassessment goes together an ongoing monitoring that triggers an alert should circumstances change.

Risk assessment phase includes three steps:

1. identification;
2. analysis & measurement;
3. weighting (risk prioritization)
3.1 Risk Identification

**TAGS:** Risk Definition; Risk Criteria; Risk Identification; Different approaches; Risk Hierarchy; Techniques; Stakeholder’s involvement; Roles & accountabilities.

Risk generally is the uncertainty inherently related to consequence – either positive i.e. opportunity or negative i.e. threat – of actions and events. It is measured through a combination of likelihood and impact, including perceived relevance. “Inherent risk” is the exposure arising from a specific risk before any action has been taken to manage it, while “residual risk” is the exposure arising from a specific risk after any action has been taken to manage it and in case such an action has proved effective.

An organization defines the criteria to be used to evaluate risk significance. Such criteria should reflect both the stakeholders’ risk perception based on a set of values/concerns and the organization’s values, objectives and resources. Some criteria can be imposed by, or derived from, legal and regulatory requirements. Risk criteria should be consistent with the organization’s risk management policy defined in the Risk Management framework.

Defining risk criteria involves deciding on:

1. the nature and kind of consequences to be included and how they will be measured;
2. the way probabilities are to be expressed;
3. how a level of risk is going to be determined;
4. the criteria on determining when a risk needs treatment;
5. the criteria on deciding when a risk is acceptable and/or tolerable;
6. whether and how combinations of risks will be taken into account.

Risk identification means analyzing several issues:

- **source/root cause event:** any activity having a potential to increase a specific risk, whether or not such an activity is under the control of the organization;
- **areas of impact:** it deals with categorization/prioritization of consequences;
- **enablers:** the organizational features helping a risk-event to occur;
- **events:** occurrence of a particular set of circumstances; and
- **their potential consequences:** potential outcome of an event. A wide range of risk consequences should be considered, including cascade and cumulative effects.

The above-said issues can create, enhance, prevent, degrade, accelerate or delay the ability of either the whole organization or part of it to achieve its own objectives.
I. Identification approaches

The coordination of Risk Management process phases is centralized: the Risk Office analyzes and draws up information related to each process phase and goes along with strategic planning as well as the board, which it has to directly report to.

The Risk Committee, with the Risk Manager playing the role of coordinator, sets up the criteria to select the most relevant information coming from the Risk Management information system (selective approach). Significant risks as far as either impact or strategic level are concerned are reported by the office supporting the Risk manager on a regular, specific and exception basis. The Risk manager gives directions on translating strategies into risk management objectives and monitors their achievement by divisions/offices and managers within their own competence. The Risk manager therefore finalizes the information received by adapting it to the organizational context down to any single office (top-down perspective), in order to correct possible deviations from strategic priorities.

Risk registers making involves, on the one hand, a folding of organizational risks (corporate as well as project and operational ones), on the other hand, a setting up of specific risk registers (work health and safety, fraud, IT security, environment, etc.).

As for the involvement of management & stakeholders, three kinds of approach can be followed in identifying risks:

- **Top down-approach**: the decision-making process is centralized at governance level. This approach can show two modes: a) Full top-down mode, that is, the business units’ risks are listed at department level, meaning that heads of unit cannot add risks themselves at unit level. There is no need of risk escalation, except for department level. b) Prevailing top-down mode, that is, a corporate risk register is directly created from a detailed operational risk register.

- **Bottom-up approach**: the decision-making process is done at management level. Operational risks are identified by any staff member while performing his or her daily work (e.g., in order to encourage the staff to be more active in defining non-conformities, an opportunity to register them online has been provided).

- **Mixed approach**: the board entity states the criteria (top-down) by which the heads of unit identify and manage risks (bottom-up). Risks may be viewed and assessed throughout the organization at any level (e.g., Group, Program, Office, Project, etc.). In order to set the Framework, the hierarchy of risks on which attention is focused corresponds to the enterprise, operational and project levels.

Such approaches are not mutually exclusive, and a combination of approaches to the risk
identification process is desirable to achieve effective integration of risk management at any level within the organization.

The figure below outlines Risk Management process according to the above mentioned Top-down perspective; it also highlights the information flows related to decision-making process according to the different roles involved.

Risk Management Process according to the Top-Down approach

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In order to identify risks the adoption of a suitable tool (= method) is needed. Here follows two of the most commonly used methods:

- **Commissioning a risk review**: A designated team (either in-house or from outside) considers all the operations and activities related to the organization’s objectives and
identifies the associated risks. Such a team should conduct interviews with key staff at all organizational levels in order to build a risk profile for the whole range of activities (but it is important for this approach not to undermine line management’s awareness of their own responsibilities in managing the risks that are relevant to their objectives);

- **Risk self-assessment:** Each level and part of the organization is invited to review its activities and to contribute its diagnosis for the risks it faces. This may be done through paper documentation (with a framework for diagnosis set out through questionnaires), but is often more effectively conducted through a workshop approach with facilitators helping groups of staff to work out the risks affecting their objectives. A particular strength of this approach is that ownership of risk is better established when the owners themselves identify the risks.

**QUESTION MARK BOX**

Q. With reference to the approach adopted, please detail the methodology being used while specifying roles, accountabilities and connections to the different process phases:

R. The process starting by engaging all Directors to respond to a risk questionnaire to identify the top three/five risks from a divisional program perspective. For this purpose program-level risk registers were reviewed and approved by their respective Field Planning Boards, to ensure consistency in the understanding and relative importance of the risks identified at the divisional or program level. The results of this exercise is presented to the Top-Management Board, who then provides his-own perspective on the corporate risks facing the organization.

Source: Statistics Canada, In-Depth survey on risk Management practices

**QUESTION MARK BOX**

Q. The selected organizational stakeholders have been involved in:

R. All stakeholders should identify risks: every staff member can inform process managers about draw-backs and risks identified in their process (Statistics Lithuania).

R. Risk identification and analysis should be dispersed around the organization and carried out by the departments, units, territorial statistical departments, teams and projects (Statistics Finland)

Source: Survey on Risk Management Practices

**II. Risk hierarchy & risk categorization**

The Risk Management framework includes a hierarchy of risks, that is, a variety of risk levels together with priorities in risk treatment strategies.

- **Enterprise or so-called “corporate” risks** are strategic i.e. can significantly impact on the organization. To manage them is fundamental to the long term viability of the organization and this must be done under the supervision of the Risk Committee;

- **Portfolio management risks** are inherently related to the portfolio of projects as a
whole and are managed by senior management. Some examples of portfolio risk are: affordability of the portfolio; lack of capability/capacity to implement the portfolio; lack of timely availability of skills and human resources;

- **Project risks** can impact on the projects’ objectives and outcomes and are managed by the project risk manager; where appropriate, they will be addressed as part of the Project Management Framework. Some examples of project risk are: project scope poorly defined, resources not available when required, quality requirements not clearly specified.

- **Operational risks** can impact on a program’s objectives and/or outcomes (i.e. unsuitable skills mix, resources reduced due to budget cuts, outputs not delivered on time, poor quality outputs) and are managed by the program directors.

While each risk captured may be important to management at function and business unit level, the corporate risk list requires prioritization to focus board and senior management attention on key risks.

The management of risk at corporate, enterprise and operational levels needs to be integrated so that the levels of activity support each other. In this way the organization’s risk management strategy will be led from the top and embedded in the normal working routines and activities.

Risks specialists on specific risks, directly referring to the related senior managers, are needed alongside. Specific risk areas are, for example:

- health and safety risks;
- fraud risks (i.e., manipulation of any procedures for bad purposes; failure to comply with procedures and/or internal regulations to award management and non-management offices; alteration of checks on execution of works or on delivery of supplies; etc.);
- ICT risks (i.e., security systems risks; business continuity; etc.)

An organization should therefore set and document its risk categories and risk consequence categories according to its size, purpose, nature, complexity and context. The risk categories, including those from stakeholders, should be communicated through the organization in order to share a common understanding.

Grouping similar kinds of risks into risk categories helps:

1. allow consistent assessment;
2. profile and report the consequences of actual and potential events;
3. facilitate comparison across the organization;
4. aggregate and map similar kinds of risk across the organization;
5. allocate risk management responsibilities;
6. build internal skills, knowledge and expertise throughout the organization.

The Table below shows risk categories and classes for a NSO according to the allocation suggested by Co.S.O. Enterprise Risk Management standard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategic</th>
<th>Statistical production, Statistical data dissemination, Management systems and processes, Organization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Operational</td>
<td>HR, Finance, ICT, Procurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compliance</td>
<td>Compliance to law, standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reporting</td>
<td>Communication flows</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**III. Risk Identification techniques**

Risk identification may require a multidisciplinary approach since risks may cover a wide range of causes and consequences.

Risk identification methods can include:

a) evidence based methods, for example checklists and historical data reviews;

b) systematic team approaches (a team of experts systematically identifies risks by means of a structured set of prompts or questions (i.e. structured or semi-structured interviews, Brainstorming\(^{20}\), Delphi method\(^{21}\));

c) inductive reasoning techniques (i.e. preliminary hazard analysis, HAZOP, HACCP);

d) scenario analysis (i.e. root-cause analysis, scenario analysis as such, cause-consequence analysis);

e) statistical methods (i.e. Monte-Carlo analysis, Bayesian analysis).

In implementing the techniques the maturity of a Risk Management system should always be taken into account. During the experimental phase of the Risk Management model, since the know-how required could not be available from the staff, the experience analysis should

\(^{20}\) Brainstorming is a means of collecting a broad set of ideas and evaluation, ranking them by a team. It may be stimulated by prompts or by one-on-one and one-on-many interview techniques

\(^{21}\) A means for combining expert opinions to support the source and influence identification, probability and consequence estimation and risk evaluation. It is a cooperative technique for building consensus among experts (ISO ISO31010 – Risk Assessment Techniques)
always be combined with either structured or semi-structured interview or a prompt/check list, in order to guide risk owners through the risk analysis.

The experience analysis needs to be based on actual information through the examination of data from various systems (e.g. electronic document management systems, non-conformities and IT incidents registration system, time use recording system, as well as a specific system to record quality features of statistical surveys). When in a later stage the risk management culture is established throughout the organization, brainstorming and the Delphi technique can replace the interview, the cause/consequence analysis, the check-list or any other simpler kind of scenario analysis.

Factors influencing selection of techniques are:

1. problem complexity and the methods needed to analyze it;
2. the nature and degree of risk assessment uncertainty, that is based on the amount of information available as well as on what is required to satisfy objectives;
3. the extent of resources needed in terms of time and level of expertise, data needs or cost;
4. whether the method can provide a quantitative output.
3.2 Risk Analysis & Measurement

Risk analysis involves consideration of risk causes and sources, their positive and negative consequences and the likelihood for such consequences to occur.

It normally includes estimation of the range of potential consequences that might arise from an event, situation or circumstance and their associated probabilities, in order to measure the level of risk. However, in some instances such as where the consequences are likely to be insignificant, or probability is expected to be extremely low, a single parameter estimate can be enough to make a decision.

In any case, some framework for assessing risks should be developed. The assessment should draw as much as possible on unbiased independent evidence, should consider the perspectives of the whole range of stakeholders affected by the risk, and avoid confusing a fair risk assessment with any judgment about the acceptability of particular risks.

There are three important principles in assessing risk:

1. ensure that there is a clearly structured process through which both likelihood and impact are considered;
2. record risk assessment in such a way that facilitates monitoring and identification of risk priorities;
3. distinguish between “inherent” and “residual” risk. Actually the level of risk will depend on the adequacy and effectiveness of existing controls.

Methods used in analyzing risks can be:

- **Qualitative**: such methods define consequence, probability and level of risk according to descriptive scales, may combine consequence and probability, and evaluate the resulting level of risk against qualitative criteria.

- **Semi-quantitative**: such methods use numerical rating scales for consequence and probability and combine them to produce a level of risk using a formula. Scales may be linear or logarithmic, or have some other relationship; the formulae used can also

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**Inherent risk**: the risk to an entity in the absence of any actions management might take to alter the risk’s likelihood or impact.

**Residual risk**: the portion of total risk remaining after risk treatment has been applied. Residual risk comprises acceptable risk and unidentified risk.
• **Quantitative**: this kind of analysis estimates practical values for consequences and their probabilities, and produces numerical values for impact, likelihood and level of risk using data from a variety of sources. Full quantitative analysis may not always be possible or desirable due to poor information about the object being analyzed, lack of data, influence of human factors, etc.

Both qualitative and quantitative techniques imply advantages and disadvantages.

Qualitative analysis is relatively quick and easy, provides a lot of information about non-financial impacts and is easily understood by a large number of employees.

On the other hand, it doesn’t make much difference among levels of risk, cannot numerically aggregate or address risk interactions and correlations and provides limited opportunity to perform cost-benefit analysis.

Quantitative analysis allows many qualitative methods weaknesses to be overcome, although it can be time-consuming and costly especially at first, during model development.

Cause-and-effect analysis is a semi-qualitative, structured method allowing a potential event to be traced back to its original causes. It organizes possible contributory factors into broad categories so that all relevant hypotheses can be considered. It does not, however, by itself point to the actual causes, since these can only be determined by real evidence and empirical testing of hypotheses. Cause-and-effect analysis provides a structured pictorial display (diagram) of a list of causes for a specific effect (positive or negative depending on the context). It is used to allow consensus on all possible scenarios and the most likely causes detected by a team of experts; such causes can then be tested empirically or by evaluation of available data.

A cause-and-effect diagram can be made when there is need to:

- identify the possible root-causes for a specific effect, problem or condition;
- sort out and correlate some of the interactions among factors affecting a particular process;
- analyze existing problems so that improvement action can be taken.

The input to a cause-and-effect analysis may come from expertise and experience from participants or a previously developed model that has been used in the past.

The cause-and-effect analysis should be carried out by a team of experts aware of the problem requiring resolution.

The basic steps in performing a cause-and-effect analysis are as follows:

1. establishing the effect to be analyzed and placing it in a box;
2. determining the main categories of causes (chosen to fit the particular context) and representing them by boxes in the Fishbone diagram;

3. filling in the possible causes for each major category with branches and sub-branches to describe the relationship among them;

4. keeping asking “why?” or “what caused that?” to connect the causes;

5. reviewing all branches to verify consistency and completeness and ensure that the causes apply to the main effect;

6. identifying the most likely causes based on the opinion of the team and available evidence.

The results are normally displayed as either a Fishbone or Ishikawa diagram or tree diagram. The Fishbone diagram is structured by separating causes into major categories (represented by the lines off the fish backbone) with branches and sub-branches that describe more specific causes under the above-mentioned categories.

**Example of Ishikawa or Fishbone diagram**

![Fishbone Diagram](image)

**Source:** IEC/FDIS 31010:2009, Risk Management – Risk assessment techniques

As mentioned above, the level of risk is a function of factors, in particular likelihood and impact.

**Impact** refers to the extent a risk event may affect an organization. Impact assessment criteria may include financial, reputational, regulatory, health, safety, security, environmental, employee, customer and operational consequences. Organizations typically define impact using a combination of such consequences, given that certain risks may impact the enterprise financially while other risks may have a greater impact to reputation or health and safety.

**Likelihood** represents the weak/strong possibility that a given event will actually occur. Likelihood can be expressed through either qualitative, percent or frequency terms. Sometimes organizations describe likelihood in more personal and qualitative terms such as
“event expected to occur several times (or not expected to occur) over the course of a career”.

The Appendix shows examples of risk indexes for impact and likelihood.

When using either qualitative or semi-qualitative methods – for example risk indexes – aiming at evaluating risk level whatever the event (statistical, organizational or specific ones), applying the same number of parameters for impact as well as likelihood is crucial. Moreover, in order to balance subjectiveness in evaluation, more than one evaluator for single risk is needed and evaluation should be supported through objective data as much as possible.

As for the roles and accountabilities, risk factors assessment is under the responsibility of the process owners. Risk measurement is a task for working groups supported by the risk management office and participated by the staff working on the processes of reference, who submit their results to authorization/review of senior levels. Experts (e.g., IT, data protection/statistical confidentiality, etc.) are responsible for the measurement of specific risks. The results of assessment are always reviewed and validated also by the Risk Manager.

### QUESTION MARK BOX

Q. With reference to the risk measurement phase, does your Organization use different techniques concerning risk classification (IT, financial, compliance, etc.)?

R. The risk assessment (in statistical areas) includes consideration of the range of issues in a statistical processing cycle that can affect data quality as well as managing stakeholder relationships.

Source: Australia Bureau of Statistics, In-Depth Survey on Risk Management practices

### 3.3 Risk Weighting

Risk weighting involves comparing estimated levels of risk to assessment criteria in order to identify the most significant risks, or exclude minor risks from further analysis. The purpose is to ensure that use of resources will be focused on the most important risks. Care should be taken not to screen out low risks which occur frequently and can therefore have a significant increasing effect.

The preliminary analysis determines one or more of the following courses of action:

- set aside insignificant risks (so called acceptable risks) which would not justify treatment;
• decide to treat unacceptable risks;
• set priorities for risk response.

Risk weighting provides inputs to decisions on whether risks need to be treated, and on the most appropriate risk treatment strategies and methods. Subsequently, the purpose of risk weighting is to assist in making decisions (based on the outcomes of risk analysis) about which risks need treatment and which priority for their treatment must be assigned. Risks are related to objectives, so can easily be prioritized for risk response in relation to such objectives. Unacceptable risks are ranked and prioritized in relation to other risks. Therefore, the decision about whether and how to treat the risk may depend on costs and benefits from taking the risk and costs and benefits from implementing improved controls.

A common approach to prioritize risks is to divide them into three bands:

• an upper band where the level of risk is regarded as intolerable whatever benefits the activity may bring, and risk treatment is essential whatever its costs;
• a middle band where costs and benefits are taken into account and opportunities balanced against potential consequences;
• a lower band where the level of risk is regarded as negligible, or so small that no risk treatment measures are needed.

Some organizations represent this portfolio as a hierarchy, some as a collection of risks plotted on a heat map (also risk map or risk matrix).

First, the risks are ranked according to one, two, or more criteria such as impact rating multiplied by likelihood rating.

Second, the ranked risk order is reviewed in light of additional considerations such as impact alone, or the size of the gap between current and desired risk level (risk tolerance threshold).

If the initial ranking is done by multiplying financial loss by likelihood, then the final prioritization should also take into consideration other qualitative factors (for example loss of reputation).

The most common way to prioritize risks is by assigning a risk level for each area of the graph such as very high, high, medium, or low, where the higher the combined impact and likelihood ratings, the higher the overall risk level. The boundaries among levels vary from entity to entity depending on risk appetite. For example, an organization with a greater risk appetite will have boundaries among risk levels shifted toward the upper right, and an organization with greater risk aversion will have boundaries among risk levels shifted toward the bottom left. Also, some organizations adopt asymmetric boundaries placing a somewhat greater emphasis on impact than on likelihood. For example, a risk having a “moderate”
impact rating and a “frequent” likelihood rating has a “high” risk level assigned, whereas a risk having an “extreme” impact rating and a “possible” likelihood rating has a “very high” risk level assigned.

4. Risk Treatment

TAGS: Priority for treatment; Response actions; Risk mitigation; Risk reduction.

The purpose of addressing (treating) risks is to turn uncertainty to the organization’s benefit by constraining threats and taking advantage of opportunities.

After assigning priority to risks, risk treatment should be identified both for corporate and operational risks, as well as linked to business planning processes. The challenge is to determine a portfolio of suitable responses that form a consistent and integrated strategy so that the remaining risk falls within the acceptable level of exposure. It is worth noting that there is no right response to risk. The response chosen depends on issues such as the organization’s ‘Risk appetite’ 23 (please see SECTION 1, ch. 1), the impact and likelihood of risk and costs and benefits of the mitigation plans.

Risk treatment should comply with legal requirements as well as government and organizational policies. Therefore, decisions concerning whether risk treatment is required may be based on operational, technical, financial, legal, social, environmental or other criteria. Such criteria should reflect the organization’s context and depend on its internal policies, goals and objectives as well as its stakeholders’ needs. In this respect, a team approach is useful to help define the context properly and for well-targeted change management during risk treatment.

23 Before responses are developed for each risk identified, it is necessary to determine the organization’s attitude to risk or ‘Risk appetite’, influenced by the size and type of organization, its culture and its capacity to withstand the impacts of adverse occurrences.
4.1 Risk Treatment Actions

There are key general approaches for risk treatment to which correspond different response action categories:

1. **TOLERATE.** The exposure may be tolerable without any further action being taken. Even though the exposure is not tolerable, ability to do anything may be limited, or the cost of taking any action may be disproportionate to the potential benefit. In these cases the response may be to tolerate the existing level of risk. This option, of course, may be supplemented by contingency planning for handling the impact that will arise if the risk results in actual events.

   The actions related to this kind of approach are:

   - Risk acceptance: no action is taken to affect likelihood or impact.
   - Retaining: after risks have been changed or shared, there will be residual risks that are retained. The risk can be retained by informed decision: acceptance of the burden of loss, or benefit of gain, from a particular risk, including the acceptance of risks that have not been identified. Risks can also be retained by default, e.g. when there is a failure to identify or appropriately share or otherwise treat risks. Moreover, after opportunities have been changed or shared, there may be residual opportunities that are retained without any specific immediate action being required (retaining the residual opportunity).

2. **TREAT.** Usually, the greater number of risks are by far addressed this way. The purpose of treatment is that whilst continuing with the activity giving rise to risk, specific action is taken in order to constrain such a risk to an acceptable level.

   Actions related to this kind of approach are as follows:

   - Removing: removing the risk source.
   - Risk reduction: action is taken to mitigate likelihood or impact or both, generally via internal controls.
   - Changing likelihood: action taken to reduce the likelihood of negative outcomes and/or to increase opportunity, in order to enhance good outcomes.
   - Changing the consequences: action taken to reduce the extent of losses and/or to increase the extent of gains with reference to related opportunities. This includes setting up pre-event measures and post-event responses such as continuity plans.
3. **TRANSFER.** For some risks the best response may be to transfer them. The transfer of risks may be considered to either reduce the exposure of the organization or because of another organization (which may be another public organization) judged more capable of effectively managing such risks. It is worth noting that some risks are not (fully) transferable: in particular, reputational risk can hardly be transferred. Relationship with the third party which the risk is transferred to needs to be carefully managed to ensure a successful transfer.

Actions related to this kind of approach are as follows:

- Transferring the risk or a portion of it.
- Sharing: another party or parties bearing or sharing some part of risk outcomes, usually by providing additional capabilities or resources that increase the likelihood of opportunities or the extent of gains from them. Sharing positive outcomes can involve sharing some of the costs involved in acquiring them. Sharing arrangements can often introduce new risks, in that the other party or parties may not effectively deliver the required capabilities or resources.

4. **TERMINATE.** Some risks will only be treatable, or reducible to acceptable levels, by terminating the activity. It is worth noting that such an option can be severely limited in the public sector when compared to the private one. It can be particularly important in project management.

- Avoiding: action is taken to stop the activities giving rise to risk or avoiding the risk by not starting such activities (where this option can be practiced). Risk avoidance cannot occur properly if individuals or organizations are unnecessarily risk-averse. Inappropriate risk avoidance may either increase the significance of other risks or lead to the loss of opportunities.

5. **TAKE THE OPPORTUNITY.** This option is not an alternative to those above; rather it is an option that should be considered whenever tolerating, transferring or treating a risk. This can occur in two ways: the first is when an opportunity arises to exploit positive impact whether or not action is taken to mitigate threats at the same time. The second is when circumstances arise which, whilst not generating threats, offer positive opportunities.

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24 This might be done by conventional insurance, or it might be done by paying a third party to take the risk in another way. This option is particularly good for mitigating financial risks or risks to assets.


26 For example through insurance or outsourcing.

27 The ISO 73:2009 highlights how risk sharing involves the agreed distribution of risk with other parties, noting that legal or regulatory requirements can limit, prohibit or mandate risk sharing itself. Moreover, the extent to which risk is distributed can depend on the reliability and clarity of the sharing arrangements.
• Taking/Increasing: taking or increasing risk in order to pursue an opportunity.

Risk treatment options are not necessarily mutually exclusive or appropriate in all circumstances. Often a risk response may also combine two or more of these strategies to achieve the desired results. An organization can normally benefit from adopting a combination of treatment options. Anyway, implementation of the risk responses selected involves developing a risk plan outlining the management processes that will be used to manage risk or opportunity to a level set up by the organization’s ‘Risk appetite’ and culture.

Risk treatment involves selecting one or more options for modifying risks and implementing those options. Once implemented, treatments provide or modify controls: any action taken to address a risk forms part of what is known as “internal control”.

4.2 Risk Treatment process

Therefore, risk treatment involves a cyclical process of:

   a) **risk treatment assessment**: identify and evaluate risk treatment options;
   b) **planning risk treatment**: prepare risk treatment schedule and action plan;
   c) **monitoring effectiveness for that treatment** (please see chapter 5);
   d) **measuring residual risk**: deciding whether residual risk levels are tolerable;
   e) **feed-back actions**: if residual risk is not tolerable, generating a new risk treatment (back to step no. a) and repeating the process.

(a) Risk treatment assessment  
(b) Risk Treatment Plan  
(c) Risk Treatment Monitoring  
(d) Measuring residual risk

(5) Feed-back

   a) **Risk treatment assessment**: an organization should select the best option at its disposal. That involves balancing the costs of implementing each option against the benefits derived from it, with regard to legal, regulatory, and other requirements such as social responsibility. In general, the cost of managing risks needs to be balanced with the benefits obtained. When making such cost versus benefit judgments the context should be taken into account. It is important to consider all direct and indirect costs and benefits whether tangible or intangible, and measure
them in financial or other terms.

b) **Risk Treatment Plan**: Treatment should involve, at operational level, preparing and implementing a related plan. It shows how the treatment options selected will be implemented and should be integrated with the management and budgetary processes. Specifically, the information provided in a treatment plan should include:

- the reasons for selecting treatment options, including expected benefits;
- who is accountable for approving the plan and who is responsible for implementing it;
- the actions proposed;
- resource requirements including contingencies;
- performance measures and constraints;
- reporting and monitoring requirements;
- timing and schedule.

Lastly, responsibilities related to the treatment phase should be clearly assigned specifying who is accountable for the management of particular risks or categories of risk, for implementing treatment strategies and for the maintenance of risk controls. To this purpose, the board should ensure that management considers and implements appropriate risk responses: actually, responsibility for treatment is usually put at management level (Directors General, Head of Division; Project Managers) and, where appropriate, assigned to staff. Management should also identify and note in the ‘Risk register’ the actions selected and should show to the board how such risk responses improve the performance of the organization. Risk owners, according to their respective roles in the project or process, are indicated to set risk treatment plans, even though at this stage responsibilities vary according to the kind of risks (either corporate or operational). For example, senior managers are responsible for corporate risks, their mitigation strategies and action plans. The operational risk responsibility relies on the divisional levels which the program is assigned to.

c) **Risk Treatment Monitoring**: in designing response actions, it is important that controls put in place are proportional to the risks. Risk analysis assists such a process by identifying those risks requiring attention by the management. Risk control actions will be prioritized in terms of their potential to benefit the organization. Effectiveness of internal control is how much the risk will either be eliminated or reduced by the control measures proposed. These latter need to be measured in terms of potential economic effect if no action is taken versus the cost of the action(s) proposed and invariably require more detailed information and
assumptions than are promptly available. Every response action has a related cost and it is important that the treatment offers value for money in relation to the risk controlled by it. In this regard, options in addressing risk (“TREAT”) can be further analyzed into four different types of related/associated controls:

- **PREVENTATIVE CONTROLS.** These are designed to limit undesirable outcome. The more an undesirable outcome should be avoided, the more appropriate preventative controls should be implemented\(^ {28}\). Most of controls implemented in organizations tend to belong to this category.

- **CORRECTIVE CONTROLS.** These are designed to correct undesirable outcomes occurred and provide a way to achieve some recovery against loss or damage\(^ {29}\). Contingency planning is an important element of corrective control.

- **DIRECTIVE CONTROLS.** These are designed to ensure that a particular outcome is achieved and are particularly important when avoiding an undesirable event – typically related to Health and Safety or to security – is crucial\(^ {30}\).

- **DETECTIVE CONTROLS.** These are designed to identify occasions for occurring of undesirable outcomes. Their effect is, by definition, “after the event” so they are only appropriate when the resulting loss or damage can be accepted\(^ {31}\).

**d) Residual risk measurement:** If a residual risk persists even after treatment, a decision should be taken about whether to retain this risk or repeat the risk treatment process. For residual risks that are deemed to be high, information should be collected about the cost of implementing further mitigation strategies.

\(^ {28}\) Examples of preventative controls include limitation of action to authorized persons, for example, permitting those suitably trained and authorized only to handle media enquiries prevents releasing of inappropriate comments to the press.

\(^ {29}\) For example, drawing up of contract clauses to allow recovery of overpayment. Insurance can also be regarded as a form of corrective control as it facilitates financial recovery against the actualization of a risk.

\(^ {30}\) For example, requiring that staff is trained to get certain skills before being allowed to work unsupervised.

\(^ {31}\) Examples of detective controls include “Post Implementation Reviews” which detect lessons to be learnt from projects for application in future work, and monitoring activities which detect changes to be responded to.
EXAMPLE OF RISK TREATMENT PLANNING

### RISK TREATMENT - SCHEDULE

| PROPOSING DEPARTMENT | ____________________________ |
| VALIDATING DEPARTMENT | ____________________________ |
| RESPONSIBILITY       | ____________________________ |
| KIND OF TREATMENT    | ____________________________ |

| RISK DESCRIPTION           | ................. |
| PROCESS                    | ................. |
| PHASE                      | ................. |
| CAUSE                      | ................. |
| ENABLING FACTORS           | ................. |
| TIMETABLE                  | ................. |

### RISK TREATMENT - MONITORING

| OBJECTIVES | ................. |
| OUTPUT INDICATORS | ................. |

| CONTROL PROCEDURE | ................. |

### RISK TREATMENT – ACTION PLAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHASE</th>
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<td>3.</td>
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</table>
Q1. Following risk identification and assessment in your organization, is any treatment of the risks put in place?

R1. “Yes. Risk treatment of most significant risks is assigned to managers and followed up (annually or bi-annually by the board of directors). The less significant risks are treated as a part of normal operations. The risk treatment of moderate or higher risks is taken to departments management team for approval. The treatment is assigned to person responsible for implementing the treatment as a part of normal operations or if that is not possible a separate implementation plan is to be prepared”.

Source: Finland, *Survey on Risk management practices*

R2. “Yes. Risk is weighted and asset owners have to set up a plan to reduce risk that are measured above a certain level”

Source: Iceland, *Survey on Risk management practices*

R3. “Yes. Treatments are identified as part of the risk identification process - a template is completed by Heads of Division twice a year and individual directorate risk registers and a corporate risk register are created. Ownership of the risk is assigned and the process is reviewed twice a year by the Senior Management Committee with the individual Head of Division. The project management system also facilitates risk identification and management and the project team review the project regularly. Risk management treatments can involve human resource solutions”.

Source: Ireland, *Survey on Risk management practices*

R4. “Yes. Treatment of the risks is the main result of risk analysis. The results are known as control activities. In some cases control activities have been established as a result of previous experiences, well before any formal risk analysis. However only a full analysis can give a reasonable security that everything that counts has been considered and that the institution are prepared to face the consequences.

Source: México, *Survey on Risk management practices*

R5. “Yes, in accordance with the System Procedure on the Risk Management approved by the NIS President (Decision no. 1038/2011). The audit reports on Risk Management are taken into consideration to propose treatment actions”.

Source: Romania, *Survey on Risk management practices*

Q2. Please indicate which kind of risks are being managed through the Risk Management process, while specifying connections and differences in treatment:

R1. “Approach in treatment depends on greater or lower influences of CBS in reducing risk to an acceptable level. Regarding the risk treatments most of identified and assessed risks have been classified into two categories: risk reduction and risk avoidance or in combination”.

Source: Croatia, *In-Depth Survey on Risk management practices*

Q3. Please describe the methodology used in identifying and monitoring the risk treatment, while specifying the Organization roles involved:

R1. “The methodology used by INEGI is based mainly on the international standard ISO 31000 about Risk management, ISO/IEC 27000 about information security, some elements of COSO ERM (Enterprise Risk Management), and also from the standard of the European Federation of risks (FERMA). The first version of the methodology was released in 2010 and the present version has been the result of the institutional experience of its use”.

Source: México, *In-Depth Survey on Risk management practices*

Q4. With reference to RM, Internal Controls and Internal Audit System within your Organization, please describe the connection/integration between these ones in detail, while specifying: how risk treatment actions are monitored functions, roles and accountabilities involved in the monitoring of the risk treatment actions...”

R1. “As for the risks, each head of an administrative unit is responsible to identify, analyze, evaluate and
determine the actions of treatment.

Source: México, In-Depth Survey on Risk management practices

Q5. Please describe who sets priorities for risk treatment actions and how:

R1. “On corporate level, the board of directors sets the priorities. On process level, the process owner sets the priorities”.

Source: Netherlands, In-Depth Survey on Risk management practices

Q6. Following risk identification and assessment in your organization, is any treatment of the risks put in place?

R1. “Yes. Directors/ division chiefs (Risk owners) propose response actions validated by the Risk Manager/Fraud and Corruption Prevention Manager. These actions are selected on a priority basis (risk strategic area, risk value, feasibility) and then entrusted to the executives. Managers propose the response actions; the Governance select the actions after defining their significance (prioritization); the framework is populated by the internal representative network. The validated and selected response actions are designed, carried out and monitored under the responsibility of the Managers (Directors/Division Chiefs); the framework is filled in by the representative Network with the monitoring information”.

Source: Italy, Survey on Risk management practices

5. Monitoring & Control

TAGS: Monitoring; Review; Roles and accountabilities; Key-risk indicators; Risk-based Audit; IA cycle.

5.1 Monitoring & Review

Risk management is dynamic, iterative and responsive to change. As risks and priorities change, risk treatments should be monitored as a part of the risk management process.

The organization’s monitoring processes should encompass all the features of risk management in order to:

- Ensure that controls are effective and efficient;
- Detect any changes in existing risks such to require revision of risk treatments and
priorities;

- Identify emerging risks.

Monitoring and review are two different and complementary activities since monitoring involves the routine surveillance of actual performance against expected or required performance, while review involves periodic (yearly at least) checking of the current situation for changes in the internal/external context.

The overall responsibility for monitoring and review activities relies on the board and top management: the way the top management reacts to the results of monitoring program will affect the behavior of employees.

Monitoring should be an integral part of management. Risks and controls should be allocated to owners, who are therefore responsible for monitoring them. A typical approach for monitoring includes:

- Environment scan by risk owners to monitor changes in risks or in context;
- Risk treatment plan monitoring by risk owners;
- Control monitoring by control owners and risk officers through performance indicators and key risks indicators according to the quantitative thresholds described in the Risk Appetite statement (see below).

Monitoring and review activities can also be considered in terms of a hierarchy. Responsibilities vary according to the kind of monitored risks (corporate, operational, project): operational risks are monitored at business unit level, project risks are monitored within the Project Management system, and corporate risks are monitored by Senior managers (i.e., Directors General or Heads of Department).

### 5.2 Key risk indicators

Key risk indicators (KRIs) are used for monitoring risk treatment actions.

Key risk indicators are metrics used to provide an early warning on increasing risk exposures in different areas within an organization. In some instances, they may represent key ratios that management throughout the organization tracks as indicators of evolving risks, and potential opportunities, that alert on the need for actions to be taken. Others may be more complex and involve aggregation of several individual risk indicators into a multi-dimensional score about emerging events that may lead to new risks or opportunities.

KRIs are typically derived from specific events or root causes, internally or externally
identified, that can prevent performance goals from being achieved. Linkage of top risks to core strategies helps pinpoint the most relevant information that can serve as an effective leading indicator of an emerging risk.

An effective method for developing KRI is to start by analyzing a risk-event that has affected the organization in the past (or present) and then working backwards to pinpoint intermediate and root cause events that led to the ultimate loss or lost opportunity. The closer the KRI is to the root cause of a risk-event, the more likely the KRI will provide management time to take positive action to respond to such an event.

Effective KRI is often result from being developed by teams that include professional risk management staff and business unit managers with a deep understanding of the operational processes subject to potential risks. Ideally, these KRI are developed in cooperation with strategic plans for individual business units and can then embed acceptable deviations from plan that fall within the overall risk appetite of the organization.

The development of KRI that can provide relevant and timely information to both the board and senior management is a significant component of effective risk oversight. It is also important to consider the frequency of reporting KRI. The appropriate time horizon depends on the main user of a specific KRI. For operational managers, real-time reporting may be necessary. For senior management, where a compilation of KRI that highlights potential deviations from organization-level targets is the likely goal, a less frequent (e.g., weekly) status report may be enough. At the board level, the reporting is often aggregated to allow a broader analysis. Management can then use such analysis to identify information related to the root cause event or intermediate event that might serve as a key risk indicator related to either event. When KRI for root cause events and intermediate events are monitored, management is in the best position to identify early mitigation strategies that can begin to reduce or eliminate the impact associated with an emerging risk event.

KRI does not manage or treat risk, and can lead to a false sense of safety if poorly designed. So, an important feature of any KRI is the quality of the available data used to monitor a specific risk. Attention must be paid to the source of information, either internal to the organization or drawn from an external party. Sources of information advising on the choice of KRI to be employed can probably exist; for example, internal data may be available related to prior risk events that can be informative about potential future exposures. Nevertheless, internal data is typically unavailable for many risks — especially if not previously encountered. In addition, risks likely to have a significant impact may often arise from external sources, such as changes in economic conditions, interest rate shifts, or new regulatory requirements or legislation. Therefore, many organizations discover that relevant KRI are often based on external data, given that many root cause events and intermediate events that affect strategies arise from outside the organization.
A well-designed KRI should be as follows:
1) Based on established practices or benchmarks;
2) Consistently developed across the organization;
3) Providing an unambiguous and intuitive view of the highlighted risk;
4) Allowing for measurable comparisons across time and business units;
5) Providing opportunities to assess the performance of risk owners on a timely basis;
6) Consuming resources efficiently.

In the picture below, identification of a key-risk indicator related to the objective “Enhancing job rotation” is helped by the making of a cause-effect chain between an event that can badly impact on a particular objective and its root cause.

Example of Key Risk Indicator: “Enhancing job rotation”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Performance Indicator (KPI)</th>
<th>Key Performance Indicator (KPI)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% of staff transfers per year.</td>
<td>% of training expenses per year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Risk Based Control & Audit

**TOPICS:** RBA; IA Audit cycle

The Internal Control Framework, which includes the Risk Management Framework and the Internal Audit Framework, discriminates among three levels of control:

- **internal control** (preventative or subsequent), deployed within the Risk Management Framework under the responsibility of management (Risk Owners), aiming to prevent or reduce the consequences related to risk occurrence;
- **“compliance”** level, aiming to help and monitor an actual risk management implementation by risk-owners; such a level oversees risk assessment and control processes also ensuring their consistency with organizational goals (Risk Management Unit);
- **“risk based audit”**, ensuring an effective deployment of audit resources to assess management of those risks related to the actions of an organization, by examining and evaluating the adequacy of Risk Management system and internal controls, processes and management. Therefore, IA monitors and shows the progress of implementation of audit recommendations and improvements in the audited area.

RBA objectives are as follows:

- **Assurance on the Risk Management Strategy**: that is, to ascertain the extent to which all line managers review the risks/controls within the scope of their own responsibility; to evaluate the adequacy of risk management policy and strategy to achieve the objectives;
- **Assurance on management of risks/controls**: that is, to encompass all the key risks as well as enough of the other risks to support confidence in the overall opinion reached; to evaluate the adequacy of the risk management processes designed to constrain residual risk to the risk appetite;
- **Assurance on adequacy of the review/assurance process**: that is, quality assured to engender confidence in the review process; to identify limitations in the evidence provided or in the depth or scope of the reviews undertaken; to identify gaps in control and/or over control, and provide opportunities for continuous improvement;
Guidelines on Risk Management practices in statistical organisations – FIRST DRAFT

to support preparation of IA Summary Report to the Risk Committee/Chief Statistician.

The RBA management cycle is carried out through the following six steps:

a) **Object**: procedures, processes and internal service charters, risks selected according to priorities but: risks within Risk Appetite, risks not requiring audit in the short term, risks otherwise audited, tolerable risks.

b) **Audit Plan**: internal audits to be carried out in the short term are managed according to an annual plan endorsed by the board and shared with the organizational divisions involved. Such a plan shows, with reference to any action: i) the audit lifespan, ii) the team composition, iii) the accountabilities, iv) the audit tasks (accordance with procedures, contractual requirements, etc.), v) the documents required, vi) the lead times. The annual plan is prepared for a single year on the basis of the strategic plan according to risk assessment. Therefore, audit planning takes into account the results of previous audit studies as well as management assessment of current levels of risk related to specific organizational programs.

c) **Audit run-up**, consisting of some actions preliminary to actual audit, such as: a) formal assignment of duties; b) definition of activity plan; c) identification of documents needed to define the audit range of reference and intervention; d) communication on audit start; e) kick-off meeting with the staff involved.

d) **Audit implementation**, that is, actual audit, consisting of: i) operational meetings; ii) preliminary assessment of criticalities; iii) check of suitability as well as accordance with either Risk Management or Quality System; iv) drawing up of recommendations and possible mitigation actions. Audits can be used to assist risk managers in assessing the effectiveness of controls for each risk. An assessment could be made on whether the controls are adequate to reduce the level of risk (i.e., to reduce the risk from extreme/high to medium or low), or additional treatments/controls are required.

e) **Reporting**. Auditing ends with a meeting aimed to share the main results achieved. An Audit Report is drafted that contains: i) the check findings, ii) the actions performed, iii) the criticalities found, suggestions proposed, iv) possible Action Plan in cooperation with the unit/division involved. Following the assessment of the control effectiveness for each risk, will emerge proposals for additional treatment strategies to reduce the level of risk, and some of the treatment strategies proposed during this process will be suitable for inclusion in the internal audit plan (feed-back).
f) The **follow-up** is aimed at checking the actual implementation of response actions related to any remarks or recommendations.

### QUESTION MARK BOX

**Q.** With reference to RM, Internal Controls and Internal Audit System within your Organization, please detail the connection/integration between these ones

**R.** “Strategic Internal Audit Plan is consistent with the objectives contained in the Strategic Plan”.
(Source: Croatia Bureau of Statistics, In-Depth survey on Risk Management practices)

**R.** “Once the key strategic/operational areas have been reviewed, the internal Audit Program will be prioritized on the agreed assessment and the risk rankings”
(Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, In-Depth survey on Risk Management practices)

### 7. Risk Management Information system

**TAGS:** Document management; Information Management; Integrated and networked information system; Risk Management software; Record; Web-based tool

An organization should document how it manages risk. Information about risks and the output from all applications of the Risk management process should be **recorded** in a consistent and secure way, establishing the policies and procedures required to access, use and transfer information as a part of an Information Management Plan. Risk management information systems should be able to:

- record details of risks, controls and priorities and show any changes in them;
- record risk treatments and related resource requirements;
- record details of incidents and loss events and the lessons learned;
- track accountability for risks, controls and treatments;
- track progress and record the completion of risk treatment actions;
- allow progress check against the risk management plan;
- trigger monitoring and assurance activity.

To this end, the organization should identify adequate resources in terms of information systems and document management systems so that capability information is relevant, reliable, timely, secure and available. This requires the maintenance of proper records and
processes that generate a flow of timely, relevant and reliable information. Therefore, each stage of the risk management process should be recorded properly. Record management is an important aspect of good corporate governance: it supports activities and decisions, as well as ensures accountability to present and future stakeholders.

The quality of an information and document management system depends on the following principles:

- information should be consistent across the organization to allow for efficient and accurate flow;
- standardizing definitions of terms and taxonomies ensures that different parts of the organization do not have different understandings of information, or are not operating on conflicting sets of information;
- it is not necessary to have a single record management system across the organization if management designs and operates multiple systems to allow an efficient consolidation, exchange and integration of information.

- At operational level, the organization should first determine the definitions, classifications and procedures needed to identify and manage Risk information as a part of an Information Management Plan. Subsequently, as core sub-practices, it should set up ‘Risk management records’ through the following steps:
  - defining and maintaining a Risk Management classification scheme and methodology;
  - defining an ongoing process for Risk Management information inventory and classification including characteristics such as: type, preservation requirement, retention requirement, disposition requirement, availability requirement, operational/strategic value, data owner, source of information (data base/application, email, Excel, etc.), confidentiality requirement, associated organizational processes and policies.
- Periodically the organization should also consider changes to the classification structure, and its underlying definitions and classifications.

The whole Risk Management process should be documented through a Web-based tool which allows risks and treatments to be delegated and escalated among the organizational levels and also makes it possible to connect a risk to a specific goal or activity in the operational plan of the agency or the departments’ own action plans. Consequently, the organization should identify resource requirements related to information systems and databases.

The main features of a Risk management information system within each phase of the Risk Management process are: data exchange/interoperability, data integration, traceability, data security.
Actually, risk identification, analysis and measurement should be carried out within a specific tool through four steps:

1. **Qualitative assessment** (Risk identification and Risk analysis). The Risk Management information tool should record the assessment of risk in a way that helps monitoring and identification of risk priorities. Risk assessment should be documented in a way which records the process phases. Documenting risk assessment creates an organization’s risk profile which: facilitates identification of risk priorities (in particular to identify the most significant risk issues with which senior management should concern themselves); catches the reasons for decisions made about what a tolerable exposure is and is not; facilitates recording of how it is decided to address risk; allows all those concerned with risk management to see the overall risk profile and how their areas of particular responsibility fit into it; facilitates review and monitoring of risks.

2. **Prioritization**;

3. **Risk measurement**;

4. **Monitoring Risk treatment actions**. Staff members/managers who are responsible for risk treatment actions have to periodically report (e.g., monthly, quarterly, yearly) on the implementation/execution of actions within the tool.

---

**QUESTION MARK BOX**

Q1. What are the most important lessons learned from implementing risk management in your organization that other organizations should take into account when developing their own risk management processes?

R1. “Efficient IT-tool is very important”

*Source: Austria, Survey on Risk management practices*

Q2. In your organization, the amount of financial resources spent to run the risk management system is suitable.

R2. “Adequate resources in the information system supporting the Risk Management process have been invested”.

*Source: Italy, Survey on Risk management practices*

Q3. In your organization, the risk management process is connected to:

R3. “Organization performance assessment: risk analysis is fully integrated in the planning and follow up process for operations and is reported by each department in a common web based tool”. As for standardized techniques for risk identification and assessment: “the important thing is that the result is documented correctly in the web based tool”.

*Source: Sweden, In-Depth Survey on Risk management practices*
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Introduction

This Annex has to be considered an integral part of the Guidelines for developing Risk Management practices and gathers the most significant results coming from the survey analysis. Its goal is, on the one hand, to highlight the amount of information obtained, on the other hand, to show a more practical approach to the different domains of Risk Management.

Like the first, "theoretical" part, the Annex consists of two sections, Risk Framework and Risk Process; the paragraph arrangement also mirrors the Guidelines in order to help the two parts in referring to each other.

Within both sections two categories of examples are shown:

1. Focus points on Risk Management core topics, in order to share practices, coming from the NSOs, able to substantiate "theoretical" information;
2. Case-studies, shortly reporting some NSOs' significant experiences on particular features of the Risk Management systems in order to, on the one hand, share the know-how gained from implementing Risk Management within the different organizational contexts, on the other hand, highlight any elements in common among the different experiences.
SECTION 1: RISK FRAMEWORK

Paragraph 2. Establishment Risk Policy

**FOCUS ON: Risk Appetite Statement: Australian Bureau Of Statistics (Abs)**

“The ABS's risk appetite will only tolerate High or Extreme risks when treatment measures are unable to reduce the level of inherent risk to an acceptable level (i.e. Low or Moderate). Any Extreme risk, such as a risk which would seriously threaten the credibility/reputation of the ABS and/or with the potential to result in a parliamentary enquiry, must be brought to the immediate attention of the Executive Leadership Group (ELG). The Senior Management Group (SMG) must be informed of any High risk, including those that may impact/tarnish the reputation of the ABS and/or achievement of program objectives e.g. through sustained media coverage. Treatment measures are essential for High and Extreme risks. If strategies to mitigate the risk take time, they must be added as standing Agenda Items to ELG meetings (Extreme risks) or SMG meetings (High risks) until the risk is reduced. All Low or Moderate risks will be managed within the specific area and/or routine procedures. All Treatment measures are selected by considering the cost of implementing versus the benefits. In some cases, Low and Moderate risks might be accepted if the cost of treating the risk outweighs the benefit. All risks must be monitored and reviewed on an ongoing basis, and considered in the context of the ABS work program and strategic directions”.

Source: *Risk Management Framework. Part A - The Risk Policy. 2015*

**FOCUS ON: Building-up a Risk Policy. Statistics Canada (SC) experience**

At Statistics Canada, integrated risk management is an ongoing and dynamic activity that supports corporate decision-making, and is a central theme of the annual integrated strategic planning process. An integral part of Statistics Canada's Risk Management Model is the Corporate Risk Profile, a high-level summary of the most critical risks being managed by Statistics Canada. The development Corporate Risk Profile was a comprehensive process that included a review of risk information from several sources and reflected recommendations from the Management Accountability Framework Round IX, as well as feedback from managers. The process also included an improved risk questionnaire, revised guidelines, and clearer definitions of risk sources. A communication strategy was developed and implemented involving information sessions, a documentation package and reinforcement of the importance of IRM in the Agency. The information sessions also served to remind managers of their roles and responsibilities in the IRM process and to address any questions and concerns they had.
All program area risk registers were reviewed and approved by the respective Field Planning Board to ensure that the risks were equally understood, explicitly identified in the long-term planning process and took into consideration interdependencies between projects. After having identified the key risks, the managers were also required to assess likelihood of occurrence and potential impact. The information collected from risk registers provided the Agency with a hierarchical risk assessment.

To ensure that the revised Corporate Risk Profile reflected the major risks currently facing Statistics Canada, a number of significant documents were also reviewed (risk registers, program performance reports, project executive dashboards, program quality reviews, internal audit reports, the Report on Plans and Priorities, the Departmental Investment Plan, the Departmental Security Plan, and the Business Continuity Plan). This approach also responded to the advice received from the Departmental Audit Committee (DAC), the Administrative Practices Committee (APC) and the Corporate Planning Committee of Policy Committee.

The draft Corporate Risk Profile was developed following this advice and included the six key risks and the corresponding mitigation strategies, the risk’s link to the Program Alignment Architecture and its link to organizational priorities (see example below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Risk Response Strategy</th>
<th>Link to Program Alignment Architecture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Increased difficulties in reaching respondents | Mitigation strategies identified in the Agency’s Corporate Risk Profile for 2012/2013 to 2013/2014 comprise closely monitoring response rates and assessing potential biases in survey results; continuing the research and development of the dwelling-based Household Survey Frame as an alternative to existing frames respondents; engaging respondents through various mechanisms (Statistics Canada, Government of Canada and other departments’ websites as well as social media) to ensure high response rates; reviewing the possible use of administrative data sources, keeping in mind privacy concerns as these sources are used further; continuing to innovate to meet respondents’ needs, which includes greater use of multi-mode data-collection options, such as e-questionnaires and mobile devices; continuing to investigate the possibility of conducting interviews by cellphone; undertaking additional studies; and incorporating lessons learned. | • Socio-economic Statistics  
• Labour, Education, Income and Tourism Statistics  
• Health and Justice Statistics  
• Demographic, Aboriginal and other Social Statistics  
• Analysis of Socio-economic Statistics  
• Censuses  
• Census of Population  
• Census of Agriculture  
• Professional and Statistical Services  
• Cost-recovered Services related to Socio-economic |

Source: Corporate Risk Profile methodology and outcome. Statistics Canada

Once the 2012-13 and 2013-14 corporate risks were validated, functional leads and management committees were assigned to review existing and potentially new mitigating strategies and prepare action plans and timelines. The APC then reviewed and approved the
full Corporate Risk Profile, before it was presented to the DAC. After receiving final approval by the Corporate Planning Committee, the Corporate Risk Profile was posted on Statistics Canada’s Internal Communications Network.

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**Paragraph 4. Adopting an integrated risk approach connected to Statistical Quality Management**

**FOCUS ON: Risk and Quality Management**

**Examples from Statistics Netherlands and Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS)**

**CBS, The Netherland**

Object Oriented Quality and Risk Management (OQRM) model (Nederpelt, 2012) is a quality framework developed in the field of official statistics in order to improve compliance with the European Code of Practice and deal with quality standards of statistical output. One of the goals of OQRM was making CBS being able to decide on focus areas (60). For each of them, eleven steps can be made, including risk analysis and determining the right measures or actions to put the focus areas under control.

These measures, proposed by the managers, are integrated in the regular planning and control cycle of CBS:

- Actions on corporate level: a set of high level objectives is identified on strategic, finance, operational and compliance level. Actions are identified to meet the objectives and assigned to the heads of divisions. Progresses of these actions are regularly monitored.
- Action on process level: The audit framework is based on the Quality Guidelines for statistical processes. In these guidelines, international frameworks (CoP/QAF), national frameworks, (SN-law, privacy law, security regulations, archiving) and board decisions are integrated. Audits are also risk oriented.

The risk level is used to prioritize the recommendations in the audit report and these recommendations are converted into an action plan by the process owner.

**ABS, Australia**

Statistical collections are often exposed to the risk that one or more of the components of the process fail to meet the quality standard expected, such that the quality or the integrity of the statistical outputs are affected. This kind of risk is the "statistical risk".
Statistical risk arises for various reasons, some of which may include inadequate inputs, processes not being well defined, changes to existing processes, or human error.

Errors in statistical outputs can be minimized by committing to quality management strategies, such as risk management. Risk management is concerned with identifying potential risks, analyzing their consequences, and devising and implementing responses, ensuring that corporate and business objectives are achieved while upholding quality.

ABS has endeavored to instigate better quality management practices through the development and use of the risk mitigation strategy known as quality gates.

The six components of a quality gate are:

1. **Placement**,  
2. **Quality Measures**,  
3. **Roles**,  
4. **Tolerance**,  
5. **Actions**,  
6. **Evaluation**.

1. **Placement.** "Placement" is the first component of a quality gate. It refers to the placement of quality gates throughout a statistical process (also known as a business process cycle, or statistical process cycle). Placement of a quality gate is determined by the level of risk associated with given points in the production process. Specifically, the placement of a quality gate should occur where a risk assessment of the process reveals that there is a need for a quality gate due to the impact on the process and statistical outputs that would occur if the risk was realized.

   Along with thinking about the inherent risks, it is helpful to draw a basic map of the production process that is to be monitored which can also help in determining placement of a quality gate.

   The ABS uses the Generic Statistical Business Process Model (GSBPM) as a guide to map the activities of statistical processes against. This is done to ensure all aspects of the statistical process are included for monitoring purposes.

   By identifying the key activities associated with each step of the statistical process, an assessment of whether there are any risks in those steps can be made up front. This assists with determining where best to place quality gates. Some common risky areas in a process include:

   - Hand-over or integration of data between multiple areas;
• Data transformation;
• Changes to processes, methods and systems.

The ABS has an overarching Risk Management Framework, based on the International Risk Management Standard ISO 31000:2009, which details the ABS approach to risk management. The ABS has adapted this Risk Management Framework to suit the business needs of the organization. One such adaptation of this Risk Management Framework is the ABS' Statistical Risk Management Framework which cross classifies the levels of "Likelihood" (chance of the risk occurring) and "Consequence" (effect on the immediate process or statistical outputs of the risk occurring) to reveal an overall assessment of the statistical risk which could be either Low (L), Moderate (M), High (H) or Extreme (E).

If a statistical risk assessment reveals that the risk rating is extreme or high it is recommended that a quality gate be utilized to mitigate the statistical risk.

For medium risk ratings it may be useful to utilize additional quality measures in existing quality gates that assist in monitoring the aspects which will highlight if the process isn't working correctly.

Routine procedures are generally sufficient for the monitoring of low risk ratings.

2. **QUALITY MEASURES.** Quality measures are a set of indicators that provide information about potential problems at a given point in the process. When determining what quality measures should be included in a specific quality gate it is important to consider the risks and what information would be required in order to make an assessment about fitness for purpose at that point in time.

3. **ROLES.** This component involves assigning tasks to various people or areas involved in the operation of a quality gate. Roles identifies areas or people who are directly connected to the quality gate and its operation, along with people or areas who are affected by issues with the process.

4. **TOLERANCE.** Tolerance refers to an acceptable level of quality. The acceptable level could be qualitative (e.g. Yes/No) or quantitative (e.g. 97%). Tolerance levels or thresholds are generally set by expectations of what should be observed at that point in the process for a given quality measure.

5. **ACTIONS.** Actions are predetermined responses to various outcomes for a quality gate. They provide a definition of what will be done if threshold or tolerance levels are met or not met with regards to each quality measure.

6. **EVALUATION.** As with any process that is undertaken an evaluation or review should occur to examine where improvements can be made for future use. At the end of each statistical process cycle is it recommended that the quality gates should be evaluated to determine what worked well, what didn't and where improvements can be made.
SECTION 2: RISK MANAGEMENT PROCESS

Paragraph 2. CONTEXT ANALYSIS

FOCUS ON: Measuring Risk perception and Risk maturity. The Italian experience

At Istat (Italian National Institute of Statistics), in order to measure Risk perception and Risk maturity, a questionnaire was submitted to the Top-Management in 2011. The survey was carried out through a web application to about 30 Top Managers and it regarded their perception of the dynamics and severity of risk factors that could affect the activities of single offices or of the entire Institute. Among the possible methodological options evaluated for the topographic analysis of risk perception in ISTAT, the selected questionnaire is based on an international standard (ISO 31000:2009, AS / NZS 4360:1999, A & O) and modeled according to the definitions of an EU framework (PD ISO / IEC Guide 73:2002 and standards FERMA - Federation of European Risk Management Associations).

The Survey is made up of more than 60 questions and focuses on:

1. the level of attention given to risk management when programming and monitoring the main activities of the Directorates and the Institute;
2. the alignment of the current tools used for programming and control with the risk management system;
3. finding, although in simplified form, the factors that may cause injury, distinguishing among internal risks, external risks and cross sectional risks.

The questionnaire uses heterogeneous expressions and different types of responses, in order to keep constant the level of attention of the respondent; and it sometimes uses subjective terms, such as "substantially", "normally", "total", etc. as the survey is used to detect perception.

The survey on risk perception explored the most representative dimensions of managers’ organizational behavior when the critical events occur. The information obtained was processed to highlight the incidence of risk factors on planning and organizing the activities of each single structure and of the Institute's goals. For this purpose, ISTAT selected four dimensions, which are most representative of the attitude of managers with respect to critical events. They describe:

1. the perception of risk compared to the activities of the manager: measured by the content of those responses that determine “whether” and “how much” the risk affects the planning and management of the manager’s activities within the structure of belonging;
2. the perception of risk compared to the Institute: related to the connection between the existence of risk and the achievement of the strategic objectives of the Institute;
3. the maturity of the control environment headed by the respondent: depending on the individual property to apply the risk management system adopted by the Institute;
4. the maturity of the control environment of the Institute: its value derives from answers to questions that investigate the ability of the Institute to implement and support a system of risk assessment.

Each of these dimensions corresponds to a set of answers, not necessarily placed in sequence, that highlight the character and the criteria used by the Manager when converting the perception of risk into organizational behavior.

Considering that the information collected shows managers’ opinion and that individual perception is itself a particularly skittish phenomenon, because it depends on environmental trends that affect the one’s field of competence, the analysis was strictly qualitative and no statistical significance nor quantitative measurement of the phenomenon was attributed to data.

In addition, given the variability and subjectivity of risk perception, the results of the analysis of the responses showed a trend in behavior and do not establish a psychological profile or aptitude of the manager.

To facilitate understanding and interpretation of data, the four behavioral dimensions have been represented using a radar chart, in which the value placed on each vertex is the average of the values declared by the manager in the set of questions that express the meaning of the relative dimension. Depending on the risk profile to be analyzed, the results of the survey can be differently interpreted.

Specifically were examined 3 situations:

- The risk perception by management, highlighting the outliers;
- The risk perception by management, by level of responsibility;
- The risk perception by management, by area of activity (technical and administrative).

1. The risk perception by management, highlighting the outliers

Figure 1 compares the average rating given by all the executives involved in the survey (brown line) with the profile of the Top Management (dashed blue line), including General Director and Chief of Departments, who, in the current theoretical framework, is the level of acceptance of risk consistent with corporate strategies (risk appetite). It also shows outliers, i.e. the maximum values (green bubbles) and minimum values (red bubbles), recorded for each dimension.
Figure 1 – Representation of the average of management profile

The graph shows that the risk is considered an important component in planning activities (Size A), for all groups of respondents considered, even though there is a more favorable approach by apical managers (value of 4 to a maximum of 5) compared to all respondents (value of approximately 3.5).

On the other hand, both groups show a moderate mistrust in considering the risk an essential planning element to achieve the strategic objectives of the Institute (Size B). Again, however, it should be noted an attitude more inclined to consider the risk as an important factor for the Institute's activities, by the Top Management, although the gap between the two values is not so large as in the case of A. In addition, for this dimension, even the maximum value recorded (bubble green equal to 3.8 points) is by far divergent from the average. It is worth noting, however, a positive general judgment about the maturity level of the control environment, both the single structure of belonging and for the Institute (Dimensions C and D: values slightly higher 3 out of a possible 5), such that it is allowed a positive development of the risk management system, based on the current organizational configuration. Even for these two dimensions, the orientation of the apical Leadership is demonstrated more favorable than that of all the respondents, although the gap between the two values is more pronounced about the overall vision of the Institute (Size D).

II. The risk perception by management, by level of responsibility

Figure 2 – Mean profile for senior management by level of responsibility

Figure 2 shows the average profiles of senior management, divided by level of responsibility, including Top Management, i.e. General Director and Chiefs of Department, (blue dotted line), Directors (green line) and Heads of...
Staff Office (red line) in order to highlight ‘how’ and ‘how much’ they manages the organizational risk, according to the level of responsibility.

The average rating of Top Management, considered the highest level of tolerance permitted, shows a particular attention to consider the risk as the base element for the activities planning. In fact, from the graph, the value assigned by Top Management to A and B dimensions, is the highest among the three levels of responsibility, with a value, respectively, equal to about 4 and more than 2.7, on a scale of values ranging from 1 to 5. Moreover, these values are also higher than the average shown in Fig.1, in fact, the maturity assessment of the control environment for C and D sizes is higher than that expressed from the other categories of management (average value equal to more than 3.6).

Comparing the Directors profile (green line) with the Top Management’s risk appetite (dashed blue line), are observed two fairly homogeneous approaches in assessing Size C, whereas are much less homogeneous in the evaluation of the other three dimensions (A, B and D).

The Heads of Staff Offices (red line) show, on the other hand, a more moderate assessment of criticality as part of the its own activities planning. In fact, they attribute a lower value to the control environment’s maturity, where is implanted the Risk Management System (Size D), than the other classes of senior management. Risk management, instead, is considered an important component for activities planning under its own responsibility (size A, average about 3.2 points).

III. The risk perception by management, by technical and administrative sectors

![Figure 3 – Technical and administrative management profile](image)

Figure 3 shows the average profiles of the legal-administrative structures (green line) and technical structures (orange line) compared with that of Top Management (blue dotted line).

Analyzing the technical and administrative senior management’s average profiles, all 4 dimensions converges to values lower than the Top Management (representative of the Institute of Risk Appetite). The legal and administrative structures, on the one hand, pay attention on the risks identified within the structure of belonging (Size A, mean value greater than 3.5 points on a scale 0 to 5), on
the other hand, are less positive with risks related to the activities of the Institute as a whole (Size B, average value of about 2.5 points on a scale from 0 to 5). Also with regard to the control environment maturity (C and D sizes), legal and administrative structures are more confident in the approach of their structure than in that of the organization as a whole (Size C, value close to 3.5; Size D, value equal to about 3 points, on a scale of 0 to 5). The technical structures, reveal the same level of attention to the risks identified on the statistical production Directorates and on the Institute as a whole for all the dimension A, B, C, D; the average is around 3.5 percentage points. The comparison between the administrative and technical-scientific profile shows a more favorable judgment, by researcher, to make risk management an essential factor to get the activities successfully (size B, C and D). Finally, risk management is more important for the administrative Top Management, referring to the planning and monitoring activities.

FOCUS ON: Process Mapping Methods

To ensure process maps are accurate reflections of what is actually happening, organizations may combine different methods, some of which are quoted below. At this regards, their use depends on the organization size and the application of one of those tools does not affect application of the other.

- **One-on-one interview.**
- **Brainstorming.** It is a technique used to generate a large number of inputs, contributions and comments quickly and may be used in a variety of contexts. Each member of the group, in turn, can put forward a personal description concerning the process being considered. Wild opinions and ideas are welcomed and recorded for subsequent analysis; no criticism or evaluation occurs during brainstorming.
- **Process Flowcharting.** This is a powerful technique for recording, in the form of a picture, exactly what is done in a process. There are certain standard tags with associated symbols used in classic flowcharts (e.g. STARD, FLOW, END, DECISION, etc.). The general principle is that if a flowchart cannot be drawn using these symbols, then the process is not fully understood.
- **Cause & Effect Diagram, also known as the Fishbone or Ishikawa Diagram.** It is a useful way of mapping the inputs that effect processes. The effect being investigated is shown at the end of a horizontal arrow; potential inputs are then shown as labelled arrows entering the main input arrow. Each arrow may have other arrows entering it as the principal factors are reduced to their sub-factors; brainstorming can be effectively used to generate the input and sub-inputs.
• **Job Shadowing** ('Practical learning experience'). It consists in observing people while they are completing the actions. If the observer is not familiar with the process, he will likely need to interview the people involved to better understand what they are thinking/doing during each action.

• **ICOR** (inputs, outputs, controls and resources). It is an internationally accepted methodology for process mapping. It allows processes to be broken down into simple, manageable and more easily understandable units. The maps define the inputs, outputs, suppliers, customers, controls and resources for both the high level process and the sub-processes.

### CASE STUDIES

**Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT)**

The *National Accounts Directorate - Public Finance Statistics Division* of the Italian National Institute of Statistics has been using the standard Business Process Model and Notation (BPMN) developed by The Object Management Group (OMG) to map processes.

The primary goal of BPMN is to provide a notation that is readily understandable by all business users, from the business analysts that create the initial drafts of the processes, to the technical developers responsible for implementing the technology that will perform those processes, and finally, to the business people who will manage and monitor those processes. Thus, BPMN creates a standardized bridge for the gap between the business process design and process implementation.

The Process Modeling Conformance type set consists of Collaboration and Process diagram elements, including, among others, Task types, Event types (Start, Intermediate, and End), Lane, Participants, Data Object (including Data Input and Data Output), Group, Text Annotation, Sequence Flow (including conditional and default flows), Loop, Off-Page Connectors.

**Example of process mapping: ‘Excess of deficit procedure’ process diagram**
Process mapping in Statistics Lithuania (SL) has involved core processes, cross-cutting processes, operational activities in detail. As for the methodology followed in process mapping, ISO 9001 standard was used as a basis. Afterwards detailed analysis of performance was made, activities, their sequence and interactions were identified. In fact, ISO-certified quality management system is based on process mapping.

Moreover, among the main elements of quality management system conforming to ISO there are: definition of the processes, identification of their interactions and sequences; documentation of quality management system: process map, quality policy and quality tasks, quality manual. Quality management system is based on process management, which in turn is based on a detailed process map to which documented rules and guidelines on the various processes are linked. Management rules, structures, processes, activities, responsibilities, sequences and links, and associated documentation, are clearly defined and documented. The process map is a strong tool for standardization and the improvement of quality, and is also used as the backbone of the documentation system.
National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI)

The National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI) has been using the Standard ‘Integration Definition for Function Modeling’ (IDEF) to map processes since 2011. IDEF0 is an engineering technique for performing and managing functional analysis, systems design, needs analysis, and baselines for continuous improvement. The Standard has been issued by the National Institute of Standards and Technology after approval by the United States Department of Commerce.

IDEF0 is used to produce a "function model": a structured representation of the functions, activities or processes within the modeled system or subject area. The IDEF0 methodology includes procedures for developing and critiquing models by a large group of people, as well as integrating support subsystems into an IDEF0 Architecture. The result of applying IDEF0 to a system is a model that consists of a hierarchical series of diagrams, text, and glossary cross-referenced to each other. The two primary modeling components are functions (represented on a diagram by boxes) and the data and objects that inter-relate those functions (represented by arrows). An IDEF0 model is composed of a hierarchical series of diagrams that gradually display increasing levels of detail describing functions and their interfaces within the context of a system. There are three types of diagrams: graphic, text, and glossary. The graphic diagrams define functions and functional relationships via box and arrow syntax and semantics. The text and glossary diagrams provide additional information in support of graphic diagrams.

The graphic diagram is the major component of an IDEF0 model, containing boxes, arrows, box/arrow interconnections and associated relationships. Boxes represent each major function of a subject. These functions are broken down or decomposed into more detailed diagrams, until the subject is described at a level necessary to support the goals of a particular project. The top-level diagram in the model provides the most general or abstract description of the subject represented by the model. This diagram is followed by a series of child diagrams providing more detail about the subject.
One of the most important features of IDEF0 as a modeling concept is that it gradually introduces greater and greater levels of detail. An IDEF0 model starts by presenting the whole subject as a single unit – a box with external arrow boundary conditions connecting it to functions and resources outside the subject. The single box is called the "top box" of the model. (This top box has node number A0.). The box that represents the system as a single module is then detailed on another diagram with boxes connected by interface arrows. These boxes represent major sub-functions of the single parent function. This decomposition reveals a complete set of sub-functions, each represented as a box whose boundaries are defined by the interface arrows. Each of these sub-functions may be similarly decomposed to expose even more detail. Each diagram in a model is shown in precise relationship to other diagrams by means of interconnecting arrows. When a function is decomposed into sub-functions, the interfaces between the sub-functions are shown as arrows. The name of each sub-function box plus its labeled interfaces define a bounded context for that sub-function. In all cases, every sub-function is restricted to contain only those elements that lie within the scope of its parent function. Sub-functions are discrete and do not overlap. Further, the collection of sub-functions cannot omit any elements. Thus, as already indicated, the parent box and its interfaces provide a context for its child diagram. Except for tunneled arrows, nothing may be added or removed from this precise boundary.
Paragraph 3. RISK IDENTIFICATION

FOCUS ON: Corporate risks: Statistics Canada (SC) experience

The following list identifies and describes the Agency’s (SC) three top corporate risks:

Increased difficulties in reaching respondents: An ongoing challenge to the quality of social statistics is the growing difficulty with collecting information from respondents. This risk was identified in both the 2012/2013 and the 2013/2014 Reports on Plans and Priorities.

Reputational risk related to respondent information: Any releases of confidential information, or real or perceived breaches of Statistics Canada’s informatics infrastructure and related business processes, pose the risk of damaging reputation, credibility, image and public trust. This risk was identified in both the 2012/2013 and the 2013/2014 Reports on Plans and Priorities.

Common tools and government wide priorities: At present, the Agency is not using any of the software tools that have been prescribed for corporate systems (i.e., the back-office systems that support human resource and financial administration and records management). The Agency’s existing systems are efficient by any standard and, in the short term, re-assigning staff from core activities to implement new systems would pose a risk to providing the statistical program. This risk was identified in both the 2012/2013 and the 2013/2014 Reports on Plans and Priorities.

The following Table shows a comparison among some risk tools, detailing the adaptability level to any process step (strongly applicable; applicable; not applicable). For example, the cause/consequence analysis can be applied to every risk assessment process phase.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of risk assessment technique</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Description of process step</th>
<th>Risk assessment process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Risk identification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Consequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structured Interview and brainstorming</td>
<td>A means of collecting a broad set of ideas and evaluation, ranking them by a team. Brainstorming may be stimulated by prompts or by one-on-one and one-on-many interview techniques</td>
<td>SA (^{(1)})</td>
<td>NA (^{(2)})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delphi technique</td>
<td>A means of combining expert opinions that may support the source and influence identification, probability and consequence estimation and risk evaluation. It is a collaborative technique for building consensus among experts. Involving independent analysis and voting by experts</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check-lists</td>
<td>A simple form of risk identification. A technique which provides a listing of typical uncertainties which need to be considered. Users refer to a previously developed list, codes or standards</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenario analysis</td>
<td>Possible future scenarios are identified through imagination or extrapolation from the present and different risks considered assuming each of these scenarios might occur. This can be done formally or informally qualitatively or quantitatively</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root cause analysis (single loss analysis)</td>
<td>A single loss that has occurred is analysed in order to understand contributory causes and how the system or process can be improved to avoid such future losses. The analysis shall consider what controls were in place at the time the loss occurred and how controls might be improved</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>SA (^{(1)})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fault tree analysis</td>
<td>A technique which starts with the undesired event (top event) and determines all the ways in which it could occur. These are displayed graphically in a logical tree diagram. Once the fault tree has been developed, consideration should be given to ways of reducing or eliminating potential causes / sources</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event tree analysis</td>
<td>Using inductive reasoning to translate probabilities of different initiating events into possible outcomes</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of risk assessment technique</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Risk assessment process</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Risk identification</td>
<td>Risk analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Consequence</td>
<td>Probability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause/ consequence analysis</td>
<td>A combination of fault and event tree analysis that allows inclusion of time delays. Both causes and consequences of an initiating event are considered.</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause-and-effect analysis</td>
<td>An effect can have a number of contributory factors which may be grouped into different categories. Contributory factors are identified often through brainstorming and displayed in a tree structure or fishbone diagram</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk indices</td>
<td>A semi-quantitative measure of risk which is an estimated derived using a scoring approach using ordinal scales. Risk indices can be used to rate a series of risks using similar criteria so that they can be compared. Since the choice of ordinal scales is, to some extent, arbitrary, sufficient data is needed to validate the index.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consequence/probability matrix</td>
<td>The consequence/probability matrix is a means of combining qualitative or semi-quantitative ratings of consequence and probability to produce a level of risk or risk rating. A consequence/probability matrix is used to rank risks, sources of risk or risk treatments on the basis of the level of risk. It is commonly used as a screening tool when many risks have been identified, for example to define which risks need further or more detailed analysis, which risks need treatment first, or which need to be referred to a higher level of management.</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost/benefit analysis</td>
<td>Cost/benefit analysis can be used for risk evaluation where total expected costs are weighed against the total expected benefits in order to choose the best or most profitable option. It is an implicit part of many risk evaluation systems. It can be qualitative or quantitative or involve a combination of quantitative and qualitative elements. It can be used to decide between options which involve risk.</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1) Strongly applicable.  
2) Not applicable.  
3) Applicable.

Source: Adapted from ISO31010:2009
Paragraph 4. RISK ASSESSMENT

FOCUS ON: Risk Assessment Methodology

Risk Indices from the Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ILLUSTRATIVE IMPACT SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rating</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 5 | Very high | 1) Extra expenses or Financial Loss ≥ €150,000  
2) Additional human resources ≥ 30 days FTE.  
3) Increasing workload ≥ 50% |
| 4 | High | 1) Extra expenses or Financial Loss ≥ €100,000 and < €150,000  
2) Additional human resources ≥ 20 and < 30 days FTE  
3) Increasing workload ≥ 30% and < 50% |
| 3 | Medium | 1) Extra expenses or Financial Loss ≥ €50,000 and < €100,000  
2) Additional human resources ≥ 10 and < 20 days FTE  
3) Increasing workload ≥ 20% and < 30% |
| 2 | Low | 1) Extra expenses or Financial Loss ≥ €10,000 and < €50,000  
2) Additional human resources ≥ 5 and < 10 days FTE  
3) Increasing workload ≥ 10% and < 20% |
| 1 | Very low | 1) Extra expenses or Financial Loss ≥ €5,000 and < €10,000  
2) Additional human resources ≥ 1 and < 5 days FTE  
3) Increasing workload ≥ 5% and < 10% |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ILLUSTRATIVE LIKELIHOOD SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 4 | Frequent | a) 75% up to 90% chance of occurrence  
b) Once in one year |
| 3 | Likely | a) 50% up to 75% chance of occurrence  
b) Once in 2 years |
| 2 | Possible | a) 25% up 75% chance of occurrence  
b) Once in 3 years |
| 1 | Rare | a) 10% up to 25% chance of occurrence  
b) Once in 5 years |
Paragraph 5. RISK TREATMENT

CASE STUDIES:

Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS)

In ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics), accountability for risk treatment is determined by the risk owner and is often shared across a range of areas that are best placed to implement controls that can reduce the risk which may sit outside the risk owner’s immediate span of control. The ABS bases the approach to risk management on the AS/NZS ISO 31000 standard. The ABS’s Risk appetite only tolerates High or Extreme risks when treatment measures are unable to reduce the level of inherent risk to an acceptable level (i.e. Low or Moderate). Any Extreme risk, such as a risk which would seriously threaten the credibility/reputation of the ABS and/or with the potential to result in a parliamentary enquiry, must be brought to the immediate attention of the Executive Leadership Group (ELG). The Senior Management Group (SMG) must be informed of any High risk, including those that may impact/tarnish the reputation of the ABS and/or achievement of program objectives e.g. through sustained media coverage. Treatment measures are essential for High and Extreme risks. If strategies to mitigate the risk take time, they must be added as standing Agenda Items to ELG meetings (Extreme risks) or SMG meetings (High risks) until the risk is reduced. All Low or Moderate risks will be managed within the specific area and/or routine procedures. All Treatment measures are selected by considering the cost of implementing versus the benefits. In some cases, Low and Moderate risks might be accepted if the cost of treating the risk outweighs the benefit. Acceptable risks do not require treatment. Unacceptable risks will need to be treated. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) leads Australia’s national statistical service, running hundreds of surveys and publishing thousands of pages of output every year. As with any large and complex organization, problems with processes do arise and the ABS has suffered errors in their data in the past with varying degrees of impact on the public domain. Most errors are detected in-house before publication, however this has at times resulted in intense last-minute work to correct the problems leading to delays in the release of data. Other errors have only been discovered after release, resulting in re-issue of statistical output. As a result of these errors the ABS has endeavored to instigate better quality management practices through the development and use of the risk mitigation strategy known as ‘Quality gates’. Quality gates are designed to improve the early detection of errors or flaws in production processes.

Specifically, the principles that underpin the quality gates framework are:
• quality of statistical processes should be managed in a holistic manner i.e. Total Quality Management;

• quality management and assessment of fitness-for-purpose of statistical processes should be evidence based;

• roles and responsibilities in the management of process quality should be clear and explicit;

• Knowledge and information about specific stages of a statistical process should be documented and shared;

• regular evaluation should capture lessons learnt and lead to continuous improvement of quality management of statistical processes.

Quality gate framework is used as a statistical risk mitigation strategy primarily for statistical processes. Where a statistical risk assessment reveals that the risk rating is extreme or high it is recommended that a quality gate be utilized to mitigate the statistical risk. It is worth noting that each organization will have their own risk matrix based on their tolerance for risk and that the ABS’ Statistical Risk Assessment Framework may not be suitable for use by other organizations depending on their needs. It is also important to note that the placement of a quality gate may be different for each production process and that the impact on the immediate process and overall quality of the statistical outputs are key pieces of information to assist in the placement of quality gates.

Along with these considerations it is worth keeping in mind that all quality gates used to monitor one statistical process cycle may not be controlled by one area alone. It may be that there are several areas (such as in the case of a hand-over situation) that have responsibility for the development, maintenance and assessment of quality gates for a particular part of the statistical process. Quality gates are placed at strategic places throughout a process to identify errors or problems earlier. The explicit monitoring of the process at these given points in time ensures that known statistical risks are mitigated. Hence, any issues are fixed at early stages in the process rather than only identified at the end when it is often too late to be able to change the impact on the outcome. Any problems arising in statistical processes should be detected as early as possible. Efficiencies in both time and money are realized through the earlier detection and resolution of errors. It is more cost effective to fix a problem when it first occurs than at a later date which may involve months of work that will need to be re-done.
Statistics Lithuania (SL)

In Statistics Lithuania (SL), according to approved descriptions of procedures, if any risky activity is identified, management is informed and improvement actions are defined and performed by responsible staff. On the base of the situation, improvement actions are implemented as soon as possible or deployed into the improvement action plan.

Process managers, appointed by the order of Director General of Statistics Lithuania, analyze identified risks, determine their causes and possible ways of their elimination, appoint staff responsible for improvements and monitor the effectiveness of improvement actions implemented. The priorities for risk treatment are set by Top Management, according to the risk measurement results. The priority is given to the activities, which are the most risky for the process and process results. Usually, process managers are responsible for the risk treatment, if the risk was identified in their process. They analyze the problems, determine their causes and possible ways of their elimination, appoint staff responsible for improvements and monitor the effectiveness of improvement actions implemented.

Especially with reference to the preparation proposals for treatment, in concrete statistical areas cross-institutional commissions and working groups (e.g. group of experts in national accounts) established on the initiative of SL, play important role.

Statistics Sweden

In Statistics Sweden, Risk treatment is documented in connection to the risk, specifying the treatment itself and the person responsible for carrying out the action (always a manager at department or unit level, in exceptions it can be the Director General). It also has to have a starting and finishing point. If treatment is more or less constant over time the end date is set to last of December and the action is carried over to the next year as are risks that have not been eliminated. Risks and treatments are included in the regular follow up of operations after each 4 month period with focus on effectiveness and deviations from plan. All risks that are critical require treatment unless they are impossible to prevent and/or too costly to mitigate.

High value risks shall, as a rule, result in activities to mitigate the risk, either prevent it from happening or reduce the consequences. Under corporate risks are included the risks managed by the security organization. These risks have treatments that are different in characteristics and more of permanent solutions like insurance policies, contingency plans, fixed installations, firewalls and so on. Also some compliance risks are included here. They are documented in a separate module of the system since they have other needs for follow
up purposes than operational risks. All critical risks are to have treatment though and many of the medium and low risks also have treatments.

On agency level treatments are in general delegated to the director of one or more departments and added to their risk lists. The directors comment on deviations and effectiveness and the comments are compiled by the risk manager who may suggest changes in risk values based on this. The updated risk report for the agency is presented to the DG, the deputy DG, the Director of the Director Generals Office, the head of internal audit and the Head of Security by the risk manager and after discussions any adjustments are made. Once a year, after the second four month period follow up, the risk report is signed by the DG and a preliminary risk list for the coming year is set up based on the preliminary operational plan for the next year (operational risks at agency level). At the same time the risk list for corporate risks (the internal control plan) is signed by the DG.

The internal control plan is regularly followed up and updated by the security organization. Any escalated risks from departments are also decided upon on these meetings. Protocols are kept and signed by DG and distributed to all directors along with the risk report, internal control plan and list of escalated risks. The directors of each department are responsible for all risks within their department but can delegate carrying out treatment to unit managers. The units’ risks shall be listed at department level though, since the central follow up only covers the department level and all operational risk are to be put forward to the Director General and be more easily analyzed by the Risk manager. This means that the units’ risk lists are generated from the departments’ risk lists and they cannot add risks themselves at unit level according to the routine currently used. This also eliminates the need for escalation routines within the departments. It becomes automatic. All this is documented in a web based tool which allows risks and treatments to be delegated and escalated between organizational levels and also makes it possible to connect a risk to a specific goal or activity in the operational plan of the agency or the departments’ own action plans.
Paragraph 7. The RM supporting Information system

FOCUS ON: The RM information system

In the risk management process, records provide the foundation for improvement in methods and tools, as well as in the overall process. At this regards, records systems should first support records that contain the following characteristics

- **authenticity**: an authentic record is one that can be proven;
- **reliability**: a reliable record is one whose contents can be trusted as a full and accurate representation of the transactions, activities or facts to which they attest;
- **integrity**: the integrity of a record refers to its being complete and unaltered;
- **usability**: a useable record is one that can be located, retrieved, presented and interpreted; it should be capable of subsequent presentation as directly connected to the activity or process or function that produced it;
- **compliance**: records systems should be managed in compliance with all requirements arising from current legislation;
- **comprehensiveness**: systems should manage records resulting from the complete range of activities of the organization, or section of them, in which they operate;
- **systematic**: records should be created, maintained and managed systematically.

CASE STUDIES:

Statistics Austria

In Statistics Austria a specific software tool for RM and the Internal Control System (named OBSERVAR) is in place. Risk treatment actions are monitored by using OBSERVAR. Staff members who are responsible for risk treatment actions have to report periodically (e.g.

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2. To ensure the authenticity, organizations should implement and document policies and procedures which control the creation, receipt, transmission, maintenance and disposition of records to ensure that creators are authorized and identified and that records are protected against unauthorized addition, deletion, alteration, use and concealment.
3. It is necessary that a record be protected against unauthorized alteration. Records management policies and procedures should specify what additions or annotations may be made to a record after it is created, under what circumstances additions or annotations may be authorized, and who is authorized to make them. Any authorized annotation, addition or deletion to a record should be explicitly indicated and traceable.
4. It should be possible to identify a record within the context of broader organizational activities and functions. The links between records that document a sequence of activities should be maintained.
Guidelines on Risk Management practices in statistical organisations – ANNEX - FIRST DRAFT

monthly, quarterly, yearly) on the implementation/execution of actions, adherence to guidelines respectively, within OBSERVAR. The Internal Audit also uses OBSERVAR for internal audits. Risk catalogue steps (within OBSERVAR) are as follows: 1. Qualitative assessment (Risk identification and Risk analysis), 2. Prioritization, 3. Quantitative assessment (Risk measurement). In the OBSERVAR catalogue risks are subdivided into 1. Leading Processes, 2. Core Processes, 3. Supporting Processes, 4. External Influences and Stakeholders. Statistical as well as organizational risks are included in Statistics Austria risk catalogue: both categories are integrated within the RM software tool.

Statistics Lithuania (SL)

The monitoring and control mechanism is performed via electronic document management system named SODAS and later the implementation of the actions is reported to the senior management. When risky activity is identified, the situation’s causes are identified and analyzed via interviewing related staff, examination data from various systems (e.g. electronic document management systems SODAS, non-conformities and IT incidents registration system, time use recording system, providing detailed information on time used for different processes, and a specific system for recording quality characteristics of statistical surveys), performing causal-effect analysis or detailed statistical analysis. The monitoring and control mechanism is performed via electronic document management system SODAS.
The main features of the system are: Effective and systematic documents management; Fast and time cost saving sharing of documents; Assurance of authenticity and reliability of stored documents; Expeditious allocation of tasks and assignments, adequate monitoring of their implementation at all levels. The drawbacks and risky activities are registered online in special non-conformities recording system, which not only allows recording drawbacks and risky activities in a user friendly way, but also warns other staff members against possible threats.

Every staff member can inform process managers about the drawbacks and risks identified in their process via this system. It automatically informs Methodology and Quality Division, responsible for the management of the system, about new record. The system is also used for the documentation of the recorded risk analysis results and progress made in implementation of risk treatment actions.

From Statistics Lithuania Annual Report 2010: “As regards the realization of the vision of a paperless office, an electronic document management system Sodas was implemented at Statistics Lithuania at the end of 2009 and put into operation in 2010. The system – that has replaced the previously used system KONTORA – enables an efficient, automated and standardized management of institution’s documents, control over tasks and assignments”.

**Statistics Sweden**

All operational planning on agency/department/unit level, along with operational risks, are documented in a tool named STRATSYS. It is an operational support software in the various phases of the Strategic Planning, Implementation, Analysis, Operational planning, Reporting. All managers also report within the system. The internal control plan and the reports from internal quality audits are documented in the system too (certified according to ISO 20 252).
It may include more things in the future. All employees have viewing rights to the agency’s operational plan and to their own department’s action plan and all its units’ action plans. All managers have viewing access to everything, except quality audit reports concerning other units/departments than their own, and writing/creating permissions on everything on their unit/department level. Quality audits can be accessed by the auditors and the specific unit and department managers concerned. There are 3 business controllers at the Director General’s Office who have admin permissions.

Most of the set up in the system is made in house by the administrator, but a contract for consultant aid from the provider is available if needed. All data is saved in a database on servers managed by the provider or its sub-contractors. The information stored is not considered to be sensitive and according to the contract the servers are guaranteed to be located within Sweden. When the contract is terminated the database shall be returned to Statistics Sweden.

Especially risks, but also plans concerning core activities are carried over between years. For the risks, values and comments for previous periods and years can be seen in the screen. Reports can easily be downloaded in a number of formats. Specifically, a Word format for downloading information is used as a basis for our follow up process. Word documents are also used for the risk reports which are signed and filed with our registrar.

The system can be linked with several other systems like common personnel and accounting systems on the Swedish market and some of Microsoft’s software for example. Planned resources in time or money are not in this system. Statistics Sweden is currently testing a module for handling meetings; planning, agendas, minutes and assigned tasks.

**Stratsys tool**
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Complementary documentation provided by the respondent Countries throughout the research was carried out by: ................................................................. II

National / International Standards, Models and Guidelines ........................................ IV

ISO (International Organization for Standardization) ................................................... IX

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Research INVESTIGATION / AD HOC ANALYSIS

UNECE (The United Nations Economic Commission for Europe)
High-Level Group for the Modernisation of Official Statistics
Modernisation Committee on Organizational Framework and Evaluation

- Survey on Risk Management Practice, April, 2015
- In-Depth Survey on Risk Management, September, 2015

Short summary

In 2015 two surveys have been carried out by the Italian Institute of Statistics in cooperation with University of Rome Tor Vergata and UNECE, in order to analyze to what extent Risk management systems are adopted among NSOs members of UNECE as well as among countries and international organizations not belonging to UNECE but yet participating in Commission’s activities. The surveys were aimed at building criteria through which the practices could be identified and classified. Due to the complexity of the matter as well as in order to get more solid achievements, a multi-method model was chosen in order to use heterogeneous yet complementary approaches for analysis. According to the explorative approach, both qualitative and quantitative-descriptive tools were used: a mixed model allows to include context factors that enable a deeper understanding of phenomena, also taking into account the strategic components of the practices observed. The first Survey was submitted in May 2015 to 60 countries and 4 organizations; the response rate was around 57%. Among all respondents, thirteen countries were selected for an In-depth analysis of the Risk management most interesting practices from a NSO point of view. The selected countries were invited to answer to a second questionnaire during September 2015.

1. UNECE – MCOFE Survey on Risk Management Practice, April, 2015
Respondent countries / organizations: Australia, Austria, Canada, Croatia, Eurostat, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, Norway, México, Romania, The Netherlands, Belgium, Estonia, Cyprus, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Israel, Japan, New Zealand, Republic of Armenia, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, United Kingdom.

2. In-Depth Survey on Risk Management, September, 2015
Respondent countries: Australia, Austria, Canada, Croatia, Ireland, Lithuania, México, Romania, The Netherlands, Sweden.

Complementary documentation provided by the respondent Countries throughout the research was carried out by:

(*In most cases, the following documents are intended for the internal use of recipients only and may not be distributed or reproduced for external distribution)

Statistik Austria:

- Risikobewertung – Risikokatalog (Observar, angepasst). 2015
- Risikomanagement-Katalog. Assessment von Chancen und Risiken. 2013
Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Australia:
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- Corporate Risk Profile methodology and outcome (http://www.statcan.gc.ca/)
- Corporate Risk Profile 2012-2104. 2012

Statistics Lithuania:
- Extraction from SL risk register

Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía e Informática (INEGI), México:
- Matriz de Administración de Riesgos. 2015
- Selected items of Risk Matrix for the 2015 Intercensal Survey. 2015
- Manual de integración y funcionamiento del comité de auditoría y riesgos del instituto nacional de estadística y geografía. 2014
- Metodología para la Administración de Riesgos en el INEGI. 2014
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- Ordin nr 1038-2011 - procedura sistem management riscuri. 2011
National / International Standards, Models and Guidelines

**ANAQ (The Australian National Audit Office)**

Reference published Guide:

- *Public Sector Audit Committees. 2.1 Risk Management.* August, 2011

#### Highlights

The Guide updates and replaces the Australian National Audit Office’s (ANAO) 2005 *Public Sector Audit Committees Better Practice Guide*. While many of the principles and practices remain the same, this Guide incorporates a number of enhancements. These include a discussion on: a committee’s responsibilities in relation to Risk management and other portfolio entities; the benefits of periodically engaging with the entity Chief Executive/Board, including in relation to the committee’s responsibilities for reviewing high risk programs and projects. This Guide is intended to complement the Fraud Control Guidelines, and to augment the key fraud control strategies referred to in the Guidelines. While this document is an important tool for senior management and those who have direct responsibilities for fraud control, elements of this Guide will be useful to a wider audience, including employees, contractors and service providers. The aim of the Guide is to provide guidance on the operation of the Audit Committees of public sector entities operating under both the *Financial Management and Accountability Act* 1997 and the *Commonwealth Authorities and Companies Act* 1997. As with all of the ANAO’s Better Practice Guides, each entity is encouraged to use it to identify, and apply, better practice principles and practices that are tailored to its particular circumstances. The Guide discusses a range of functions and responsibilities, grouped under nine broad areas, that are appropriate for an Audit Committee.

Available:


**AS/NZS (Joint Australian New Zealand International Standard)**. Joint Technical Committee OB-007, Risk Management

Reference published Guide:


#### Highlights

The Standard is a joint Australia/New Zealand adoption of ISO 31000:2009, and supersedes AS/NZS 4360:2004. It was approved on behalf of the Council of Standards Australia on 6 November 2009 and on behalf of the Council of Standards New Zealand on 16 October 2009. Its predecessor, AS/NZS 4360 *Risk management*, was first published in 1995. After AS/NZS 4360 was last revised in 2004, the joint Australia/New Zealand committee OB-007 decided that rather than undertake a similar revision in 2009, it would have promoted the development of an international standard on risk management, which could then be adopted locally. The standard provides organizations with guiding principles, a generic framework, and a process for managing risk. New to this edition is the inclusion of 11 risk management principles an organization should comply with, and a management framework for the effective implementation and integration of these principles into an organization’s management system. Emphasis is given to considering risk in terms of the effect of uncertainty on objectives, rather than the risk incident. This edition also includes an informative annex that sets out the attributes of enhanced risk management for those organizations that have already been working on managing their risks and may wish to strive for a higher level of achievement.

Available:

Basel Committee - Risk Management Sub-group

Reference published Guidance:


**Highlights**

The Basel Committee on Banking Supervision, which includes supervisory authorities from Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and the United States, introduced the *Framework for Internal Control Systems* in 1998. The Basel Committee distributed this Guidance to supervisory authorities worldwide in the belief that the principles presented will provide a useful framework for the effective supervision of internal control systems. More generally, the Committee wished to emphasize that sound internal controls are essential. The five elements of internal control are: management oversight and control culture, risk recognition and assessment, control activities and segregation of duties, information and communication, and monitoring activities and correcting deficiencies. The effective functioning of these five elements is key to an organization achieving its performance, information, and compliance objectives. The guidance does not focus on specific areas or activities within a banking organization. The exact application depends on the nature, complexity and risks of the organization’s activities. While closely linked to the specific sector, the principles of this guidance can be taught and effectively applied throughout different areas.

Available:

[www.bis.org/publ/bcbs40.htm](http://www.bis.org/publ/bcbs40.htm)

CIMA (The Chartered Institute of Management Accountants)

Reference published Guide:


**Highlights**

The Chartered Institute of Management Accountants is the world’s largest and leading professional body of management accountants. It has more than 229,000 members and students in 176 countries. It has strong relationships with employers and sponsor leading research. The Chartered Institute of Management Accountants supports its members and students with its Technical Information Service (TIS) for their work and needs. Topic Gateways are intended as a refresher or introduction to topics of interest to CIMA members. They include a basic definition, a brief overview and a fuller explanation of practical application. Finally they signpost some further resources for detailed understanding and research. The Guide was prepared by Technical Information Service.

Available:


CNRMA

Reference published Guidance:

- *OPNAVINST 3500.39 (series), Operational Risk Management (ORM)*. July, 2010

**Highlights**

ORM is the guiding Navy instruction for implementing the Operational Risk Management program. CNRMA manages and oversees shore installation management support and execution within the Mid-Atlantic region. The naval vision is to develop an environment in which every individual (officer, enlisted and civilian) is trained and motivated to personally manage risk in everything they do on and off duty, both in peacetime and during conflict, thus enabling successful completion of all operations or activities with the minimum amount of risk. Commands have a number of responsibilities relative to ORM, including designating
the Executive Officer as the ORM Program Manager to oversee command ORM training and implementation and ensuring that at a minimum one officer and one senior enlisted are qualified as ORM instructors. While closely linked to this specific sector, the principles of this guidance can be taught and effectively applied throughout different areas: many ORM techniques can be incorporated into operational planning and decision making processes related to various sector of activity.

Available:  

COSO (The Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of the Treadway Commission)

Reference published Guidance:
• Enterprise Risk Management (ERM) – Integrated Framework. September, 2004

Reference published papers:
• Risk Assessment in Practice. October, 2012
• Developing Key Risk Indicators to Strengthen Enterprise Risk Management. December, 2010.
• Strengthening Enterprise Risk Management for Strategic Advantage. 2009

Available:  
www.coso.org/ERM-IntegratedFramework.htm
www.coso.org/documents/COSO_09_board_position_final102309PRINTandWEBFINAL_000.pdf
A (Chartered Professional Accountants of Canada)

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<td>Chartered Professional Accountants of Canada (CPA Canada) is the national organization established to support a unified Canadian accounting profession. As one of the world’s largest national accounting bodies, with more than 200,000 members across the country and around the world, CPA Canada carries a strong influential voice: it plays an important role in influencing international accounting, audit and assurance standards. CoCo was introduced in 1992 with the objective of improving organizational performance and decision-making with better controls, risk management, and corporate governance. In 1995, <em>Guidance on Control</em> was produced and described the CoCo framework and defining controls. The framework includes 20 criteria for effective control in four areas of an organization: purpose (direction), commitment (identity and values), capability (competence), monitoring and learning (evolution). This model describes internal control as actions that foster the best result for an organization. These actions, which contribute to the achievement of the organization’s objectives, focus on: effectiveness and efficiency of operations; reliability of internal and external reporting; compliance with applicable laws and regulations and internal policies. CoCo indicates that control comprises: “Those elements of an organization (including its resources, systems, processes, culture, structure, and tasks) that, taken together, support people in the achievement of the organization’s objectives.”</td>
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Available: https://www.cpacanada.ca/

FRC (The Financial Reporting Council)
Reference published Guidance:


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<td>The Financial Reporting Council is the UK’s independent regulator responsible for promoting high quality corporate governance and reporting to foster investment. It promotes high standards of corporate governance through the UK Corporate Governance Code. It sets standards for corporate reporting, audit and actuarial practice and monitor and enforce accounting and auditing standards. The FRC issues guidance and other publications to assist boards and board committees in considering how to apply the UK Corporate Governance Code to their particular circumstances. These publications cover, among others: “Risk management, Internal Control and Related Financial and Business Reporting”. This guidance revises, integrates and replaces the previous editions of the FRC’s <em>Internal Control: Guidance to Directors</em> (formerly known as the <em>Turnbull Guidance</em>) and the <em>Going Concern and Liquidity Risk: Guidance for Directors of UK Companies</em> and reflects changes made to the UK Corporate Governance Code. It links the traditional <em>Turnbull</em> guidance on internal control with emerging good practice for risk management reflected in the conclusions of both the FRC’s <em>Boards and Risk report</em> and the final recommendations of the <em>Sharman Panel of Inquiry into Going Concern and Liquidity Risk. Internal Control: Guidance for Directors on the Combined Code</em> (The <em>Turnbull guidance</em>) was first issued in 1999. In 2004, the Financial Reporting Council established the Turnbull Review Group to consider the impact of the guidance and the related disclosures and to determine whether the guidance needed to be updated. In reviewing the impact of the guidance, consultations revealed that it had very successfully gone a long way to meeting its original objectives. Boards and investors alike indicated that the guidance had contributed to a marked improvement in the overall standard of risk management and internal control since 1999. The second version was issued in 2005 (<em>Internal Control: Revised Guidance for Directors on the Combined Code</em>). Consistent with the amendments to any Principles in the 2014 edition of the Code and with the aim of aligning the terminology, a new version of the Guidance was issued in 2014.</td>
</tr>
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GAO (U.S. Government Accountability Office)

Reference published Standard:

- *Standards for Internal Control in the Federal Government (The Green Book).* September, 2014

**Highlights**

The standards provide guidance on assessing risks and internal controls system for federal agencies in programmatic, financial, and compliance operations. On September 10, 2014 GAO issued its revision of *Standards for Internal Control in the Federal Government*. The 2014 revision will supersede GAO/AIMD-00-21.3.1, *Standards for Internal Control in the Federal Government* (November 1999). Federal Managers’ Financial Integrity Act (FMFIA) requires that federal agency executives periodically review and annually report on the agency’s internal control systems. FMFIA requires the Comptroller General to prescribe internal controls standards. These internal control standards, first issued in 1983, present the internal control standards for federal agencies for both program and financial management. *The Green Book* may also be adopted by state, local, and quasi-governmental entities, as well as not-for-profit organizations, as a framework for an internal control system. *Green Book* revisions involved an extensive, deliberative process, including public comments and input from the Green Book Advisory Council. GAO considered all comments and input in finalizing revisions to the standards. The standards in *The Green Book* are organized by the five components of internal control. Each of the five components contains several principles. Principles are the requirements of each component. Control environment (5 principles); Risk assessment (4 principles); Control activities (3 principles); Information and communication (3 principles); Monitoring (2 principles).

Available:

[www.gao.gov/greenbook/overview](http://www.gao.gov/greenbook/overview)

Institute of Risk Management (IRM); Association of Insurance and Risk Managers (AIRMIC); Alarm (The Public Risk Management Association)

Reference published Standard:


**Highlights**

The Risk Management Standard was originally published by the Institute of Risk Management (IRM), The Association of Insurance and Risk Manager (AIRMIC) and The Public Risk Management Association (Alarm) in 2002. It was subsequently adopted by the Federation of European Risk Management Association (FERMA). The Standard is the result of work by a team drawn from the major risk management organizations in the UK. In addition, the team sought the views and opinions of a wide range of other professional bodies with interests in risk management, during an extensive period of consultation. Despite the publication of ISO 31000, the Global Risk Management Standard, IRM has decided to retain its support for the original risk management standard because it is a simple guide that outlines a practical and systematic approach to the management of risk for business managers (rather than just risk professionals).

Available:

ISO (International Organization for Standardization)

Technical Committee TC 262 - Risk management
Reference published Standards:

Available:
www.iso.org/iso/iso_catalogue/catalogue_tc/catalogue_tc_browse.htm?commid=629121

Technical Committee TC 176/SC 1 - Concepts and terminology
Reference published Standard:

Technical Committee TC 176/SC 2 - Quality systems
Reference published Standard:

Available:
www.iso.org/iso/catalogue_detail?csnumber=29280
www.iso.org/iso/catalogue_detail.htm?csnumber=16544

Joint Technical Committee ISO/IEC JTC 1/SC 7 Software and systems engineering
Technical Committee ISO/TC 159/SC 4 Ergonomics of human-system interaction
Reference published Standards:
- ISO 20282-1:2006. Ease of operation of everyday products - Part 1: Design requirements for context of use and user characteristics
- ISO 13407:1999. Human-centered design processes for interactive systems
• ISO/IEC 14598-1:1999. Software product evaluation
• ISO/TR 16982:2002. Usability methods supporting human-centered design

Available:
www.iso.org/iso/catalogue_detail.htm?csnumber=22749
www.iso.org/iso/catalogue_detail.htm?csnumber=34122
www.iso.org/iso/catalogue_detail.htm?csnumber=39752
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www.iso.org/iso/iso_catalogue/catalogue_tc/catalogue_detail.htm?csnumber=31176

ISO has developed more than 16,000 international standards for stakeholders such as industry and trade associations, science and academia, consumers and consumer associations, governments and regulators, and societal and other interest groups.

Specifically, as for the family of Standards developed and published under the direct responsibility of TC 262, the first editions of ISO 31000 and ISO Guide 73 were published in 2009. ISO 31000 has been adopted as a national standard by more than 50 national standards bodies covering over 70% of the global population. It has also been adopted by a number of UN agencies and national governments as a basis for developing their own risk-related standards and policies. All the terms and definitions in ISO 31000 are contained in ISO Guide 73, so any changes to the terms and definitions in ISO 31000 must be identical in both documents. At this end, ISO 31000, and its accompanying Guide 73 on risk management terminology come up for revision every five years.

The family of Standards developed by TC 176 are particularly relevant to support organizations in the process mapping activity and has been used as a reference source for drawing up that section. Its scope is the standardization in the field of quality management (generic quality management systems and supporting technologies), as well as quality management standardization in specific sectors. ISO/TC 176 is also entrusted with an advisory function to all ISO and IEC technical committees to ensure the integrity of the generic quality system standards and the effective implementation of the ISO/IEC sector policy on quality management systems deliverables.

The family of Standards published under the direct responsibility of JTC 1/SC 7 and TC 159/SC 4 are particularly useful to support organizations in the design and implementation of the RM Information systems. JTC 1/SC7 has the following mandate from ISO and IEC: standardization of processes, supporting tools and supporting technologies for the engineering of software products and systems. As for the TC 159/SC 4, its scope is the standardization in the field of ergonomics, addressing human characteristics and performance.

OCEG

Reference published Standard:
• The GRC Capability Model 3.0 (Red Book). 2015
from small and midsize businesses, international corporations, nonprofits and government agencies. Founded in 2002, OCEG is headquartered in Scottsdale, AZ. The OCEG framework is centered on the GRC Capability Model (commonly known as the Red Book). It describes key elements of an effective GRC system that integrates the principle of “Good governance”, “Risk management”, “Compliance”. The first Red Book was released in 2004: after months of analysis, collaboration, and vetting, the first OCEG standard emerges. Originally called the OCEG Capability Model, the cover was a deep red. It quickly became known as the OCEG Red Book. This standard provided both high-level and detailed practices that helped organizations address compliance and ethics issues. The standard gained wide adoption with over 100,000 downloads in a single year. Version 2.0 was published in 2009; version 2.1 was issued in 2012. The Red Book version 3.0 reflects 10 years of use and consideration by OCEG’s global membership, which is now approaching 50,000 individuals worldwide. The Red Book Steering Committee attended several drafting and review sessions and prepared comments on each draft of the Red Book documents throughout the development process.

Available:
www.oceg.org/resources/red-book-3/

The British Standards Institution (BSI)
Reference published Guidance:

Available:
http://shop.bsigroup.com/ProductDetail/?pid=000000000030228064

The Institute of Directors in Southern Africa (IoDSA)
Reference published Models:
• King Report on Corporate Governance (King III). September, 2009
• King Code of Governance Principles (King III). September, 2009

Available:
The Institute of Directors in Southern Africa (IoDSA) established in July 1993 the King Committee on Corporate Governance: it produced the first King Report on Corporate Governance which was published in 1994. The first King Report was recognized internationally, when published, as the most comprehensive publication on the subject embracing the inclusive approach to corporate governance. The King Report on Corporate Governance for South Africa – 2002 (King II Report) was launched at an
Institute of Directors (IoDSA) Conference attended by 700 persons at the Sandton Convention Centre, 26 March 2002. The Institute of Directors in Southern Africa (IoDSA) formally introduced the King Code of Governance Principles and the King Report on Governance (King III) at the Sandton Convention Centre in Sandton, Johannesburg, in 2009. King III came into effect on 1 March 2010 – until then King II applied. The new Code and Report also falls in line with the Companies Act no 71 of 2008, which became effective on 1 May 2011. Like its 56 commonwealth peers, King III has been written in accordance to comply or explain principle based approach of governance, but specifically the apply or explain regime. This regime is currently unique in the Netherlands and now in South Africa. Whilst this approach remains a hotly debated issue globally, the King III Committee continues to believe it should be a non-legislative code on principles and practices.

Available:
https://jutalaw.co.za/uploads/King_III_Report/#p=1

**UNECE High-Level Group for the Modernisation of Official Statistics (HLG-MOS)**

Modernisation Committee on Standards

Reference released Models:

- **Generic Activity Model for Statistical Organizations (GAMSO), Version 1.0.** March, 2015
- **Generic Statistical Business Process Model (GSBPM), Version 5.0.** December, 2013

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**Highlights**

The UNECE High-Level Group for the Modernisation of Official Statistics (HLG-MOS) was set up by the Bureau of the Conference of European Statisticians in 2010 to oversee and coordinate international work relating to statistical modernisation. It promotes standards-based modernisation of statistical production and services. It reports directly to the Conference of European Statisticians and received its mandate from this body. The mission of the HLG-MOS is to oversee development of frameworks, and sharing of information, tools and methods, which support the modernisation of statistical organizations. The aim is to improve the efficiency of the statistical production process, and the ability to produce outputs that better meet user needs.

The Joint UNECE / Eurostat / OECD Work Sessions on Statistical Metadata (METIS) have prepared a Common Metadata Framework (CMF). Part C of this framework is entitled "Metadata and the Statistical Cycle". This part refers to the phases of the statistical business process and provides generic terms to describe them. Since November 2013, this work has been taken over by the Modernisation Committee on Standards, under the HLG-MOS. During a workshop on the development of Part C of the CMF, held in Vienna in July 2007, the participants agreed that the business process model used by Statistics New Zealand would provide a good basis for developing a Generic Statistical Business Process Model. Following several drafts and public consultations, version 4.0 of the GSBPM was released in April 2009. It was subsequently widely adopted by the global official statistics community, and formed one of the cornerstones of the HLG vision and strategy for standards-based modernisation. In December 2012, a complementary model, the Generic Statistical Information Model (GSIM) was released. The work to develop and subsequently implement the GSIM resulted in the identification of several possible enhancements to the GSBPM. During 2013, the HLG launched a project on "Frameworks and Standards for Statistical Modernisation" which included a broader review of the GSBPM and the GSIM, to improve consistency between the documentation of the models, and to incorporate feedback based on practical implementations. The current version of the GSBPM (version 5.0) is the direct result of this work. Whilst it is considered final at the time of release, it is also expected that future updates may be necessary in the coming years, either to reflect further experiences from implementing the model in practice, or due to the evolution of the nature of statistical production.

The Generic Activity Model for Statistical Organizations (GAMSO) Version 1.0 was endorsed for release by the HLG-MOS on 1 March 2015. Statistical organizations are invited to use GAMSO and provide feedback based on practical implementations on the GAMSO Review. GAMSO will be reviewed in 2016 taking into account this feedback. GAMSO describes and defines the activities that take place within a typical statistical organization. It extends and complements the GSBPM by adding additional activities needed to support statistical production. When the GSBPM was developed, such activities were referred to as over-arching processes, and
were listed, but not elaborated in any great detail. Over the years there have been several calls to expand the GSBPM to better cover these activities. The GAMSO was therefore developed to meet these needs.

Available:
- [http://www1.unece.org/stat/platform/display/GAMSO/GAMSO+v1.0](http://www1.unece.org/stat/platform/display/GAMSO/GAMSO+v1.0)

**UK HM Treasury - Government Financial Management Directorate**

Reference published Guidance:
- *The Orange Book Management of Risk - Principles and Concepts*. October, 2004

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**Highlights**

In central government a number of reports, particularly the National Audit Office’s 2000 report “Supporting innovation – managing risk in government departments” and the Strategy Unit 2002 report “Risk – improving government’s capacity to handle risk and uncertainty”, have driven forward the risk management agenda and the development of Statements on Internal Control. In 2001 Treasury produced “Management of Risk – A Strategic Overview” which rapidly became known as the *Orange Book*: it provided a basic introduction to the concepts of risk management that proved very popular as a resource for developing and implementing risk management processes in government organizations. This Guidance is the successor to the 2001 *Orange Book*. It continues to provide broad based general guidance on the principles of risk management, but has been enhanced to reflect the lessons learned about risk management through the experience. The most significant shift since the publication of the 2001 is that all government organizations had, in 2004, basic risk management processes in place. This means that the main risk management challenge did not lie in the initial identification and analysis of risk and the development of the risk management process, but rather in the ongoing review and improvement of risk management. It focuses on both internal processes for risk management and consideration of the organization’s risk management in relation to the wider environment in which it functions.

Available:
Academic SOURCES, INSTITUTIONAL papers AND professional HANDBOOKS:


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Acceptable risk
The part of identified risk that is allowed to persist after controls are applied. Risk can be determined acceptable when there is slack of money or when further efforts to reduce it would cause degradation of the probability of success of the operation, or when a point of diminishing returns has been reached.

Communication and consultation
Continual and iterative processes that an organization conducts to provide, share or obtain information and to engage in dialogue with stakeholders and others regarding the management of risk. The information can relate to the existence, nature, form, likelihood, severity, evaluation, acceptability, treatment or other aspects of the management of risk. Consultation is a two-way process of informed communication between an organization and its stakeholders or others on an issue prior to making a decision or determining a direction on a particular issue. Consultation is:

- a process which impacts on a decision through influence rather than power; and
- an input to decision making, not joint decision making

Control
Any action taken by management, the board, and other parties to manage risk and increase the likelihood that established objectives and goals will be achieved. These actions may be taken to manage either the impact if the risk is realised, or the frequency of the realisation of the risk. Controls include any plan, process, policy, device, practice, or other actions which modify risk, and organize and direct the performance of sufficient actions to provide reasonable assurance that objectives and goals will be achieved. Controls may not always exert the intended or assumed modifying effect. Risk treatments become controls, or modify existing controls, once they have been implemented.

Enterprise-wide risk management (ERM)
A structured, consistent and continuous process across the whole organization for identifying, assessing, deciding on responses to and reporting on opportunities and threats that affect the achievement of its objectives.

Establishing the context
defining the external and internal parameters to be taken into account when managing risk, and setting the scope and risk criteria for the risk management policy.
**Event**
occurrence or change of a particular set of circumstances. An event can be one or more occurrences, and can have several causes. An event can consist of something not happening. An event can sometimes be referred to as an "incident" or "accident".

**External context**
external environment in which the organization seeks to achieve its objectives. External context can include:

- the cultural, social, political, legal, regulatory, financial, technological, economic, natural and competitive environment, whether international, national, regional or local;
- key drivers and trends having impact on the objectives of the organization; and
- relationships with, and perceptions and values of, external **stakeholders**.

**Identified risk**
That risk that has been determined to exist using analytical tools. The time and costs of analysis efforts, the quality of the risk management program, and the state of the technology involved affect the amount of risk that can be identified.

**Inherent risk**
the risk to an entity in the absence of any actions management might take to alter the risk's likelihood or impact. These risks may result from an entity's industry, strategy, and environmental factors.

**Internal context**
internal environment in which the organization seeks to achieve its objectives. Internal context can include:

- governance, organizational structure, roles and accountabilities;
- policies, objectives, and the strategies that are in place to achieve them;
- the capabilities, understood in terms of resources and knowledge (e.g. capital, time, people, processes, systems and technologies);
- perceptions and values of internal stakeholders;
- information systems, information flows and decision-making processes (both formal and informal);
- relationships with, and perceptions and values of, internal stakeholders;
- the organization's culture, the integrity, ethical values;
- standards, guidelines and models adopted by the organization;
• form and extent of contractual relationships.

**Impact**
represents the potential effects and consequences that a given event could have on an entity and its objectives. An event can lead to a range of consequences. A consequence can be certain or uncertain and can have positive or negative effects on objectives. Events that have positive effects represent opportunities and those with negative effects represent risks. Consequences can be expressed qualitatively or quantitatively. Entities often describe events based on severity, effects, or monetary amounts. Initial consequences can escalate through knock-on effects.

**Level of risk**
magnitude of a risk, expressed in terms of the combination of consequences and their likelihood.

**Likelihood**
the possibility that an event may occur. It can be defined, measured or determined objectively or subjectively, qualitatively or quantitatively, and it can be described using qualitative terms (such as high, medium, and low) or quantitative measures (such as a percentage and frequency).

**Monitoring**
continual checking, supervising, critically observing or determining the status in order to identify change from the performance level required or expected. Monitoring can be applied to a risk management framework, risk management process, risk or control.

**Residual risk**
the portion of total risk remaining after risk treatment has been applied. Residual risk comprises acceptable risk and unidentified risk. Management must decide whether this residual risk is within the entity's risk appetite. Residual risk is also known as "retained risk".

**Risk**
the possibility of an event occurring that will have an effect on the achievement of objectives. An effect is a deviation from the expected (positive and/or negative). Objectives can have different aspects (such as financial, health and safety, and environmental goals) and can apply at different levels (such as strategic, organization-wide, project, product and process). All activities of an organization involve risk. Organizations manage risk by
identifying it, analysing it and then evaluating whether the risk should be modified by risk treatment in order to satisfy their risk criteria. Risk is often characterized by reference to potential events and impact, or a combination of these. Risk is measured in terms of impact (including changes in circumstances) and likelihood of occurrence. Uncertainty is the state, even partial, of deficiency of information related to, understanding or knowledge of an event, its consequences, or likelihood.

Risk analysis
process to comprehend the nature of risk and to determine the level of risk. Risk analysis provides the basis for risk evaluation and decisions about risk treatment. Risk analysis includes risk estimation.

Risk appetite
amount and type of risk that an organization is willing and prepared to accept as it tries to achieve its goal and provide value to stakeholders. Risk appetite is a higher level statement that considers broadly the levels of risks that management deems acceptable. It reflects the enterprise's risk management philosophy, and in turn influences the entity's culture and operating style. Many entities define their risk appetite qualitative, while other take a more quantitative approach.

Risk assessment
overall process of risk identification, risk analysis, risk measurement and risk weighting.

Risk attitude
organization's approach to assess and eventually pursue, retain, take or turn away from risk.

Risk aversion
attitude to turn away from risk.

Risk criteria
terms of reference against which the significance of a risk is evaluated. Risk criteria are based on organizational objectives, and external and internal context. Risk criteria can be derived from standards, laws, policies and other requirements.

Risk exposure
the consequences, as a combination of impact and likelihood, which may be experienced by an organization if a specific risk is realized.
**Risk identification**

Process of finding, recognizing and describing risks. Risk identification involves the identification of **risk sources**, **events**, their causes and their potential **consequences**. Risk identification can involve historical data, theoretical analysis, informed and expert opinions, and **stakeholder's needs**.

**Risk management**

Coordinated activities to direct and control an organization with regards to **risk**.

**Risk management framework**

The totality of the structures, methodology, procedures and definitions that an organization has chosen for designing, implementing, **monitoring**, reviewing and continually improving **risk management** throughout the organization. The foundations include the policy, objectives, mandate and commitment to manage **risk**. The organizational arrangements include plans, relationships, accountabilities, resources, processes and activities. The risk management framework is embedded within the organization's overall strategic and operational policies and practices.

**Risk management plan**

Scheme within the **risk management framework** specifying the approach, the management components and resources to be applied to the management of **risk**. Management components typically include procedures, practices, assignment of responsibilities, sequence and timing of activities. The risk management plan can be applied to a particular product, process and project, and part or whole of the organization.

**Risk management policy**

Statement of the overall intentions and direction of an organization related to **risk management**.

**Risk management process**

Systematic application of management policies, procedures and practices to the activities of communicating, consulting, establishing the context, and identifying, analyzing, evaluating, treating, **monitoring** and reviewing **risk** in order to provide reasonable assurance regarding the achievement of the organization's objectives.
Risk map
a graphic representation of likelihood and impact of one or more risks. Risk maps may plot quantitative or qualitative estimates of risk likelihood and impact. Often, risk maps are referred to as “heat maps” since they present risk levels by color, where red represents high risk, yellow moderate risk, and green low risk.

Risk measurement
It consists of assigning values to each risk using the defined criteria. Most organizations define scales for rating risks in terms of impact, likelihood, and other dimensions.

Risk owner
person or entity with the accountability and authority to manage the risk.

Risk profile
description of any set of risks. The set of risks can contain those that relate to the whole organization, part of the organization, or as otherwise defined.

Risk register/risk log
A master document that records identified risks, their severity, and the responses to be taken.

Risk source
Element which alone or in combination has the intrinsic potential to give rise to risk. A risk source can be tangible or intangible.

Risk Strategy
The overall organisational approach to risk management as defined by the entity governing risk management. This should be documented and easily available throughout the organisation.

Risk tolerance
the acceptable level of variation relative to achievement of a specific objective. This variation is often measured using the same units as its related objective. In setting risk tolerance, management considers the relative importance of the related objective and aligns risk tolerances with risk appetite. Therefore, an entity operating with its risk tolerances, narrow boundaries, is operating within its risk appetite, wide boundaries.
Risk treatment
means by which an organization elects to manage individual risks. Risk treatments can also be called risk responses. As part of enterprise risk management, for each significant risk an entity considers potential responses from a range of response categories. Risk treatment can involve:

- **Avoidance/Terminating** is a response where you exit the activities that cause the risk. Some examples of avoidance are exiting product line, selling a division, or deciding against expansion.

- **Treating/Reduction** is a response where action is taken to mitigate the risk likelihood and impact, or both.

- **Transferring/Sharing** is a response that reduces the risk likelihood and impact by sharing or transferring a portion of the risk. An extremely common sharing response is insurance.

- **Tolerance/Acceptance** is a response where no action is taken to affect the risk likelihood or impact.

- Risk treatments that deal with negative consequences are sometimes referred to as "risk mitigation", "risk elimination", "risk prevention" and "risk reduction". Risk treatment can create new risks or modify existing risks.

Risk weighting
process of comparing the results of risk analysis with risk criteria to determine whether the risk and/or its magnitude is acceptable or tolerable. It’s the process of determining risk management priorities by comparing the level of risk against predetermined target risk levels and tolerance thresholds. Risk evaluation assists in the decision about risk treatment.

Review
activity undertaken to determine the suitability, adequacy and effectiveness of the subject matter to achieve established objectives. Review can be applied to a risk management framework, risk management process, risk or control.

Stakeholder
person or organization that can affect, be affected by, or perceive themselves to be affected by a decision or activity. A decision maker can be a stakeholder.
Total risk
The sum of identified and unidentified risk. Ideally, identified risk will comprise the larger proportion of the two.

Unacceptable risk
That portion of identified risk that cannot be tolerated, but must be either eliminated or controlled.

Unidentified risk
That risk that has not yet been identified. Some risk is not identifiable or measurable. Mishap investigations may reveal some previously unidentified risks.