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Technical aspects of modelling longevity risk

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Contents

- 1. About the speaker
- 2. Why model longevity risk?
- 3. Data
- 4. Model requirements and challenges
- 5. Model types available
- 6. Conclusions

1. About the speaker

1. About the speaker

- Consultant on longevity risk since 2005
- Founded longevity-related software businesses in 2006:

mortalityrating.com

• Joint venture with Heriot-Watt in 2009:

2. Why model longevity risk?

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2. Why model longevity risk?

We want to build a model for longevity risk so we can:

- understand the risk in a portfolio,
- know all the financially significant risk factors,
- manage existing risks, and
- correctly price new risks (underwriting).

2. What does a good model look like?

A good model will:

- closely match reality,
- make full use of all available data, but
- summarise the important features about the risk.

3. Data

3. Data

Typically actuaries are faced with portfolios with:

- separate policies with individual lives at risk,
- policies which start on different dates at different ages, and
- policyholders with different combinations of risk factors.

4. Model requirements and challenges

4. Requirements and challenges

Some of the things we want from a model include:

- getting the shape of the risk correct by age,
- identifying the main risk factors, and
- extrapolating to higher ages.

We also want a model to use all available data efficiently.

4. Getting the shape of the risk correct by age

We need a model which follows the shape and pattern of our portfolio:

Source: Longevitas Ltd, using data from Richards, Kaufhold and Rosenbusch (2013). Ratio of observed deaths to the expected deaths according to German population mortality tables for 2009– 2011 (males only).

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4. Getting the shape of the risk correct by age

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4. Identifying the effect of risk factors

In the data set in Richards, Kaufhold and Rosenbusch (2013):

- 34.5% of lives are male, but
- 59.7% of lives with largest pensions are male.

- How do you separate the effects of gender and pension size?
- We need models which can do this without double counting.

4. Extrapolating to higher ages

We need mortality rates at ages where data are sparse or non-existent:

Source: Longevitas Ltd, using data from Richards, Kaufhold and Rosenbusch (2013). See also [http://www.longevitas.co.uk/site/informationmatrix/graduation.html.](http://www.longevitas.co.uk/site/informationmatrix/graduation.html)

Slide 14 <www.longevitas.co.uk>

4. Inefficient uses of your data

- Splitting a data set (stratification) weakens a data set.
- Grouping individuals loses information on which lives actually died.
- Models for q_x :
	- (i) lose information on when someone died during the year,
	- (ii) lose partial years of exposure, and
	- (iii) cannot easily handle competing risks.

5. Model types available

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5. Model types available

We will consider five types of model:

- $-\text{A/E comparisons}$,
- Whittaker-style graduation,
- Kaplan-Meier analysis,
- Generalized Linear Models (GLMs), and
- survival models.

Ratio of deaths to the number expected according to a table:

Actual number of deaths

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{0}^{t_i} \mu_{x_i+s} ds
$$

where:

- there are *n* lives,
- each life *i* is observed from age x_i to age $x_i + t_i$,
- $-\mu_x$ is the mortality hazard at age x, and
- μ_x is approximated from a table with $\mu_{x+\frac{1}{2}} \approx -\log(1-q_x)$

- + Simple can be done in a spreadsheet
- + Robust when people have multiple policies
- + Provides extrapolated rates via existing table structure

But:

– Cannot handle multiple risk factors without stratification – Assumes the risk is a constant proportion of the table. . .

Risk is not a constant proportion of this table:

Source: Longevitas Ltd, using data from Richards, Kaufhold and Rosenbusch (2013). Ratio of observed deaths to the expected deaths according to German population mortality tables for 2009– 2011 (males only).

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Restricting the age range does not help much:

Source: Longevitas Ltd, using data from Richards, Kaufhold and Rosenbusch (2013). Ratio of observed deaths to the expected deaths according to German population mortality tables for 2009– 2011.

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5. Whittaker-style graduation

Find a set of rates m_x^{smooth} which minimizes:

$$
\sum (\Delta^3 m_x^{\text{smooth}})^2 + h \sum \left(\frac{d_x}{E_c^c} - m_x^{\text{smooth}}\right)^2
$$

where:

 $-d_x$ is the number of deaths observed at age x,

 E_x^c is the corresponding central exposed to risk (time lived), and

— h is set arbitrarily to balance the smoothness of the m_x^{smooth} rates against the closeness of fit to the observed deaths.

Source: Whittaker (1919).

5. Whittaker-style graduation

+ Relatively simple — can be done in R

 $+$ Better fit to shape of your risk than A/E comparison

But:

- Cannot handle multiple risk factors without stratification,
- Vulnerable to sparse data, and
- Poor at extrapolation. . .

5. Whittaker-style graduation

Whittaker graduation works well in the region of the data only:

Source: Longevitas Ltd, using data for males from Richards, Kaufhold and Rosenbusch (2013) and $h=0.01$.

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5. Kaplan-Meier

Calculate the empirical survival curve as follows:

$$
t_j p_x = \prod_{i=1}^{j \le n} \left(1 - \frac{d_{x+t_i}}{l_{x+t_i^-}} \right)
$$

where:

 $-x$ is the outset age for the survival curve, $-\{x+t_i\}$ is the set of *n* distinct ages at death, $-l_{x+t_{i}^{-}}$ $\frac{1}{i}$ is the number of lives alive immediately before age $x + t_i$, $-d_{x+t_i}$ is the number of deaths dying at age $x+t_i$.

Source: Richards (2012), an adaptation from the concept from Kaplan und Maier (1958).

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5. Kaplan-Meier curve

Actually a step function, but it looks smooth for large numbers of deaths:

Source: Richards, Kaufhold and Rosenbusch (2013).

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5. Kaplan-Meier

A very useful tool for exploratory data analysis:

Source: Richards, Kaufhold and Rosenbusch (2013). See also <http://www.longevitas.co.uk/site/informationmatrix/doyouhatestatisticalmodels.html>

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5. Kaplan-Meier

+ Simple concept, supported in most statistical packages including R + Fits the data well

But:

- Cannot handle multiple risk factors without stratification, and
- Not a summary of the data, just a restatement of it.

5. GLMs for grouped counts

We assume a statistical model as follows:

 $D_x \sim \text{Binomial}(n_x, q_x)$

or else:

 $D_x \sim \text{Poisson}(E_x^c)$ $_{x}^{c}\mu_{x})$

where:

- $-D_x$ is the number of observed deaths,
- μ_n is the number of lives aged x,
- $-q_x$ is the mortality rate for age x,
- $-\mu_x$ is the mortality hazard for age x, and
- E_x^c is the time lived exposed to risk of death at age x.

5. GLMs for grouped counts

- + Available in standard statistical software, such as R
- + Good at extrapolation
- + Can handle multiple risk factors

But:

- Loses information through grouping
- Binomial model loses further information through modelling q_x
- Poisson model requires minimum expected number of deaths per cell, which limits number of risk factors

5. GLMs for individual lives

We build a model for the individual probability of death, q_{x_i} , as follows:

$$
\log\left(\frac{q_{x_i}}{1-q_{x_i}}\right) = \sum_j \alpha_j z_{i,j} + x_i \sum_j \beta_j z_{i,j}
$$

where:

- each life *i* starts the year of observation ages x_i ,
- there are j risk factors with main effects α_j ,
- the main effects interact with age with β_j , and

— the indicator variable $z_{i,j}$ takes the value 1 when life i has risk factor j , and zero otherwise.

5. GLMs for individual lives

- + Available in standard statistical software, such as R
- + Good at extrapolation
- + Can handle unlimited number of risk factors
- + No stratification

But:

- Cannot easily handle competing risks
- Failure of independence assumption across multiple years. . .

5. Common mistakes with GLMs for individuals

- Having each individual appear several times^[1]
- Incorrectly allowing for partial years of exposure^[2]
- Modelling $_t q_x$ not linear when $t > 1$

[1] See <http://www.longevitas.co.uk/site/informationmatrix/logisticalnightmares.html>

[2] See <http://www.longevitas.co.uk/site/informationmatrix/partofthestory.html>

Simple observational structure as longitudinal study:

Time observed, t_i , is shown in grey, while deaths are marked \times .

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- Time observed, t_i , is *waiting time* (*central exposed-to-risk* to actuaries).
- d_i is the event indicator: 1 for dead, 0 for alive.
- t_i and d_i not independent, so considered as a pair $\{t_i, d_i\}$.
- Not all lives are dead, so survival times are *right-censored*.
- Lives enter at age $x_i > 0$, so data is also *left-truncated*.

- Survival models are ideal for actuarial work Richards (2008, 2012).
- A portfolio of risks is like a medical study with continuous recruitment.
- The future lifetime of an individual aged x is a random variable, T_x .
- T_x has a probability density function $_t p_x \mu_{x+t}$ for $t > 0$.

3. Overview of some common models

Gompertz $\mu_x = e^{\alpha + \beta x}$ $Makeham$ $^{\epsilon}+e^{\alpha+\beta x}$ Perks $\mu_x =$ $e^{\alpha+\beta x}$ $1+e^{\alpha+\beta x}$ Beard $\mu_x =$ $e^{\alpha+\beta x}$ $1+e^{\alpha+\rho+\beta x}$ $Makeham - Perks$ $e^{\epsilon} + e^{\alpha + \beta x}$ $1+e^{\alpha+\beta x}$ $Makenam - Beard$ $e^{\epsilon} + e^{\alpha + \beta x}$ $1 + e^{\alpha + \rho + \beta x}$

Source: Richards (2008, 2012).

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- + Good at extrapolation
- + Can handle unlimited risk factors
- + No stratification
- + Independence assumption respected
- + Can handle competing risks

6. Conclusions

6. Conclusions

- Kaplan-Meier curves useful for exploratory data analysis.
- Statistical models are best for:
	- summarizing main risk features,
	- separating the effect of risk factors, and
	- extrapolating to ages with sparse data.
- Statistical models for individuals avoid stratification.
- Survival models most closely match the reality of individual risk.
- Example application to follow in second presentation. . .

References

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