

Knowledge Sharing Scotland Webinar

A VaR approach to mis-estimation risk

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1. Mis-estimation risk
2. Portfolio features
3. Parameter estimation
4. Preconditions
5. Run-off mis-estimation
6. Value-at-risk mis-estimation
7. Comparisons
8. Conclusions

1 Mis-estimation risk

“the PRA considers that longevity risk includes at least two sub-risks [...] namely, base mis-estimation risk and future improvement risk”

Woods [2016]

“[...] the risk that the base mortality estimate is incorrect (i.e. the mortality estimate based on actual experience in the portfolio)” Burgess et al. [2010]

“How wrong could our base mortality assumptions be, or: what if our historical experience did not reflect the underlying mortality?”
Armstrong [2013]

“Mis-estimation risk lends itself to statistical analysis if there is sufficient accurate data”

Armstrong [2013]

“The impact of uncertainty should always be quantified financially”

Makin [2008]

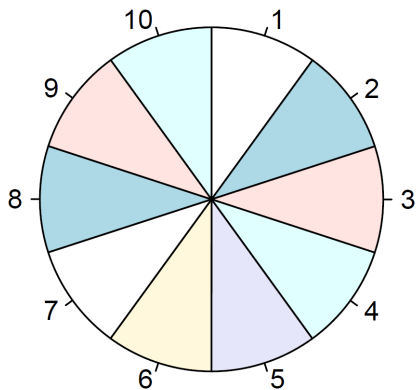
- Uncertainty over current mortality rates,
- Assessed using actual portfolio experience,
- Modelled statistically, and
- Measured financially.

2 Portfolio features

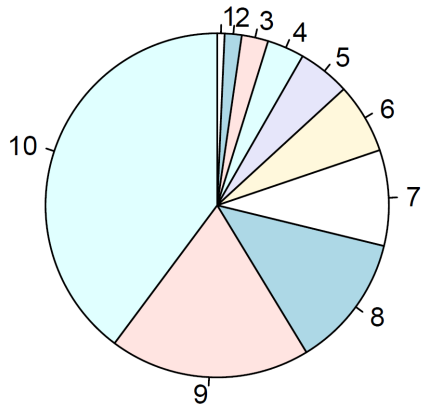
- Medium-sized UK pension scheme.
- Pensioners only.
- Cashflows discounted at 0.75% p.a.

2 Liability concentration

Lives



Pensions



Source: Data from Richards [2016, Appendix 1].

- Top decile of pensioners receives 39.8% of pensions.
- Next two deciles receive further 31.4%.
- Liabilities highly concentrated.

Consider a time-varying model for the mortality hazard:

$$\mu_{x,y} = \frac{e^{\epsilon} + e^{\alpha + \beta x + \delta(y - 2000)}}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x + \delta(y - 2000)}}$$

where x is exact age and y is calendar time[†].

[†] -2000 is an offset to keep parameters well scaled.

Consider simple approach to gender and pension size for life i :

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_i &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_{\text{male}}z_{i,\text{male}} \\ &\quad + \alpha_{\text{decile 8 or 9}}z_{i,\text{decile 8 or 9}} \\ &\quad + \alpha_{\text{decile 10}}z_{i,\text{decile 10}}\end{aligned}$$

- α_j is the effect of risk factor j .
- $z_{i,j}$ is an indicator taking the value 1 if life i has risk factor j and zero otherwise.

Parameter	Estimate	Std. Err	Lives
β	0.148	0.005	15,698
α_{male}	0.479	0.060	5,956
α_0	-14.731	0.491	15,698
ϵ	-5.420	0.154	15,698
$\alpha_{\text{decile 8 or 9}}$	-0.180	0.078	3,140
$\alpha_{\text{decile 10}}$	-0.313	0.108	1,567
δ	-0.046	0.016	15,698

Source: Parameter estimates from Richards [2016, Table 6].

$$\text{Coefficient of variation} = \frac{\text{Standard error}}{|\text{Estimate}|}$$

Measures relative uncertainty over parameter estimate.

Parameter	Coef. of variation
β	0.03
α_{male}	0.13
α_0	0.03
ϵ	0.03
$\alpha_{\text{decile 8 or 9}}$	0.43
$\alpha_{\text{decile 10}}$	0.35
δ	0.35

Source: own calculations from estimates in Richards [2016, Table 6].

- Liabilities highly concentrated.
- Sub-groups with most liability have lowest mortality...
... *and* high relative uncertainty.

A perfect storm of actuarial risk!

3 Parameter estimation

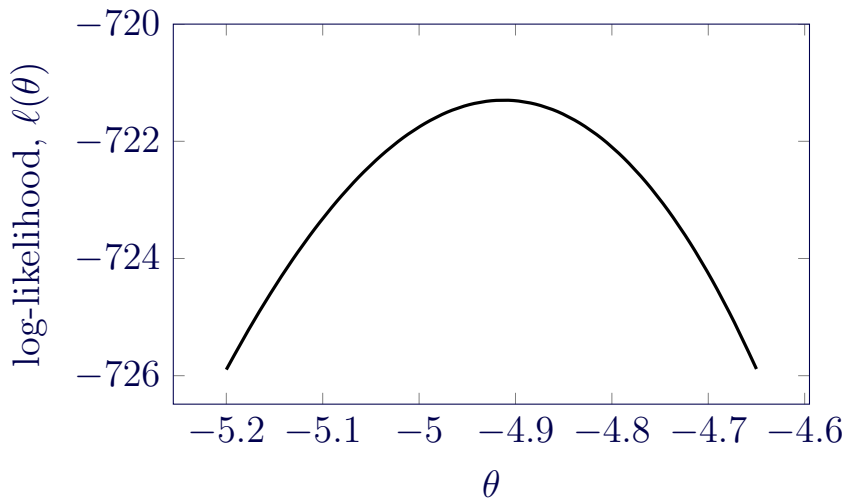
In a statistical model with m parameters:

- Consider a parameter vector, $\underline{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \theta_m \end{pmatrix}$.
- We have an estimate, $\hat{\underline{\theta}}$, which is uncertain.
- Uncertainty over $\hat{\underline{\theta}}$ is estimation risk.

3 Assumption 1

$\ell(\underline{\theta})$ is the log-likelihood function for a model.

3 $\ell(\theta)$ in one dimension

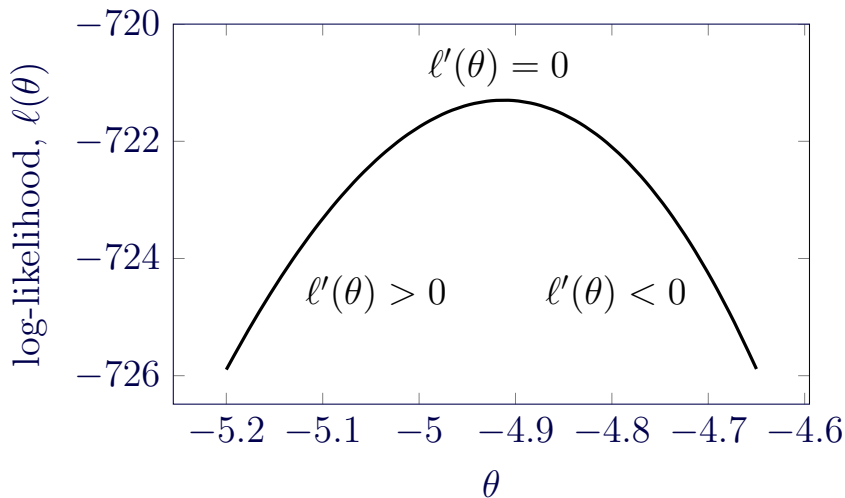


Source: Richards [2016, Figure 1].

All first partial derivatives of $\ell(\underline{\theta})$ exist, i.e.

$$\ell'(\underline{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \ell(\underline{\theta})}{\partial \theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial \ell(\underline{\theta})}{\partial \theta_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial \ell(\underline{\theta})}{\partial \theta_m} \end{pmatrix}$$

3 $\ell(\theta)$ in one dimension



Source: Richards [2016, Figure 1].

The Hessian matrix, $\mathbf{H}(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$, of all second partial and cross-partial derivatives of $\ell(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$ exists:

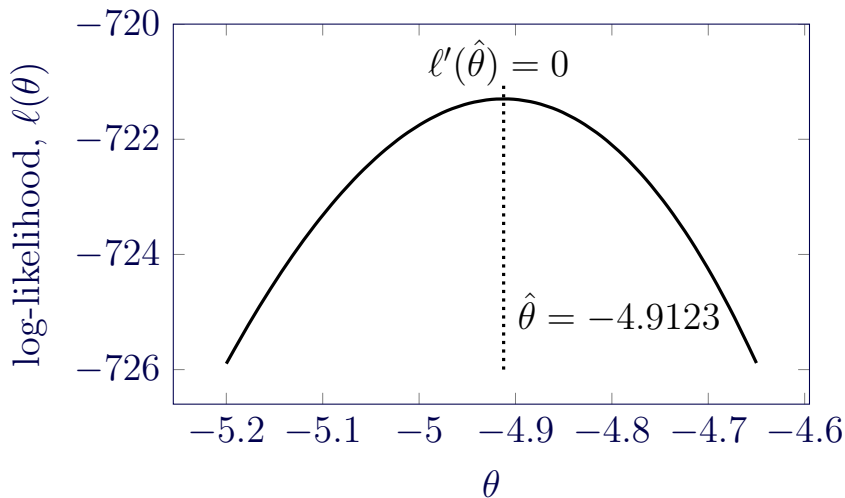
$$\mathbf{H}(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \theta_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_m} \\ \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \theta_2 \partial \theta_1} & \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \theta_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \theta_2 \partial \theta_m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \theta_m \partial \theta_1} & \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \theta_m \partial \theta_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \theta_m^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$\hat{\underline{\theta}}$ is the maximum-likelihood estimate of $\underline{\theta}$ if:

- $\ell'(\hat{\underline{\theta}}) = 0$, and
- $\mathbf{H}(\hat{\underline{\theta}})$ is negative semi-definite[†].

[†] $\underline{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{H}(\hat{\underline{\theta}}) \underline{\mathbf{x}} \leq 0$, where $\underline{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

3 $\ell(\theta)$ in one dimension



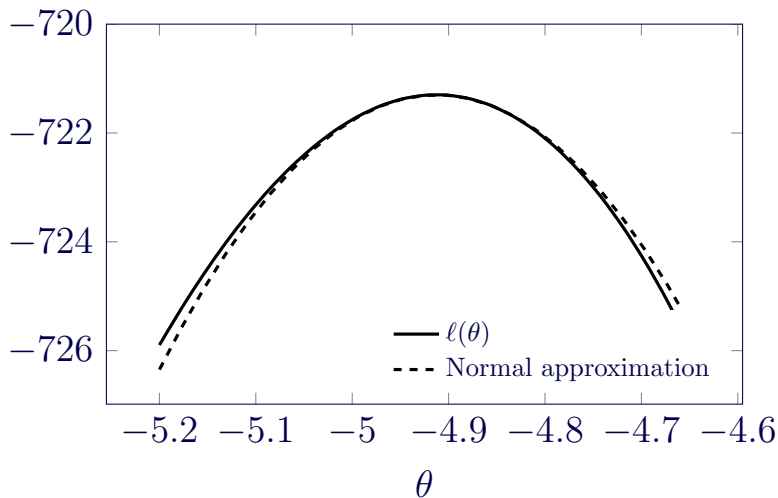
Source: Richards [2016, Figure 1].

$\hat{\underline{\theta}}$ has a multivariate normal (MVN) distribution[†]:

- Mean vector $\underline{\hat{\theta}}$, and
- Covariance matrix $\hat{\underline{\Sigma}} = -\mathbf{H}^{-1}(\hat{\underline{\theta}})$.

[†] Cox and Hinkley [1996, Chapter 9].

3 $\ell(\theta)$ in one dimension



Source: Richards [2016, Figure 1].

If $\hat{\theta}$ has a MVN distribution, all estimation risk is summarised in $\hat{\Sigma}$:

- The leading diagonal has the variance of $\hat{\theta}$, and
- The off-diagonal entries have the covariances of $\hat{\theta}$.

- Estimation risk is statistical parameter uncertainty.
- Mis-estimation risk is the financial impact of that uncertainty.

4 Preconditions

“What assumptions are you making, e.g. independence? Duplicate policies? Amounts vs lives?”

Armstrong [2013]

- Deduplicate records[†].
- Lives-based statistical model.
- Amounts effect on mortality handled as either:
 - ▶ Categorical factor, e.g. pension decile, or
 - ▶ Continuous covariate, e.g. using exact pension[‡].

[†] See Macdonald et al. [2018, Section 2.5].

[‡] See Richards [2020a].

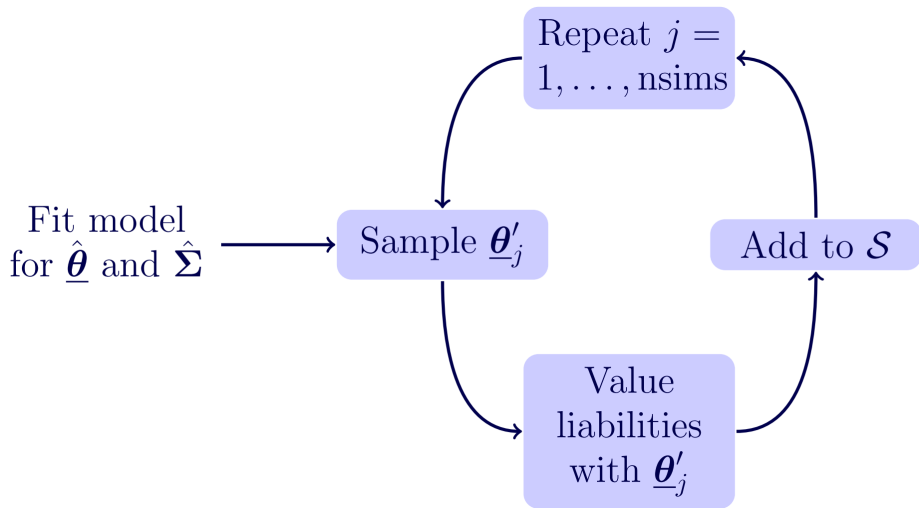
Mis-estimation capital underestimated if:

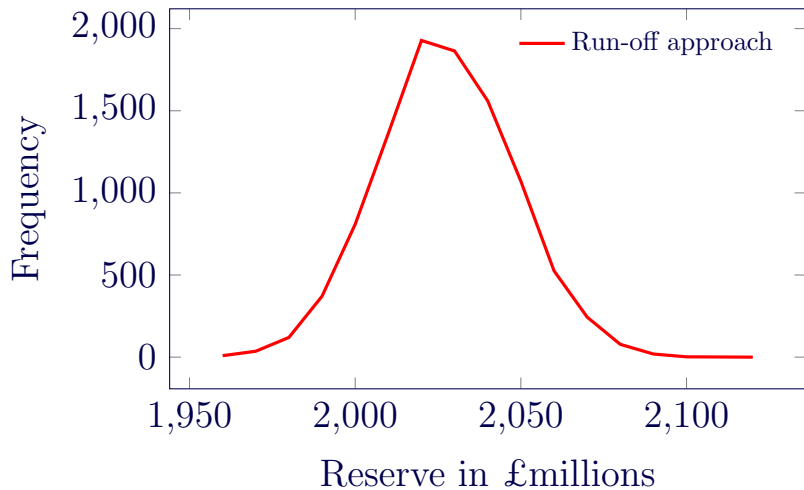
- Records not deduplicated, or
- Amounts effect on mortality ignored, or
- Time trend not included in model.

5 Run-off mis-estimation

- Need set, \mathcal{S} , of liability valuations subject to parameter risk.
- Can then calculate percentiles of \mathcal{S} .

- Best-estimate parameter vector $\hat{\underline{\theta}}$.
- $\hat{\underline{\Sigma}}$ is estimated covariance matrix for $\hat{\underline{\theta}}$.
- Alternative parameter vector, $\underline{\theta}'$, can be sampled from $MVN(\hat{\underline{\theta}}, \hat{\underline{\Sigma}})$ using Monte Carlo simulation.





Source: Richards [2020c, Figure 4].

- $\underline{\theta}'_j$ varies due to parameter risk only.
- Richards [2016] suitable for run-off valuation...
... and pricing bulk annuities and reinsurance.

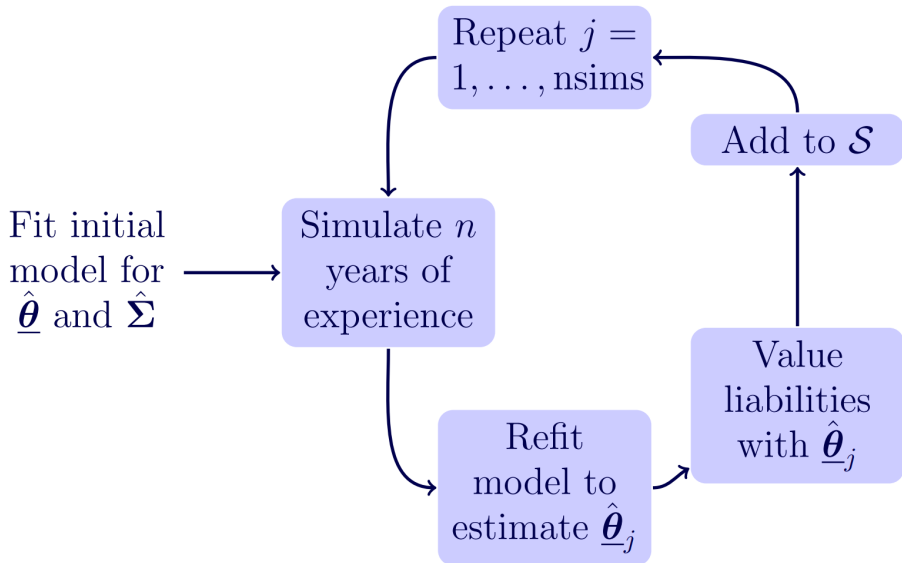
- No “one-year” element...
- Not an obvious fit for Solvency II.

We make two changes to the algorithm:

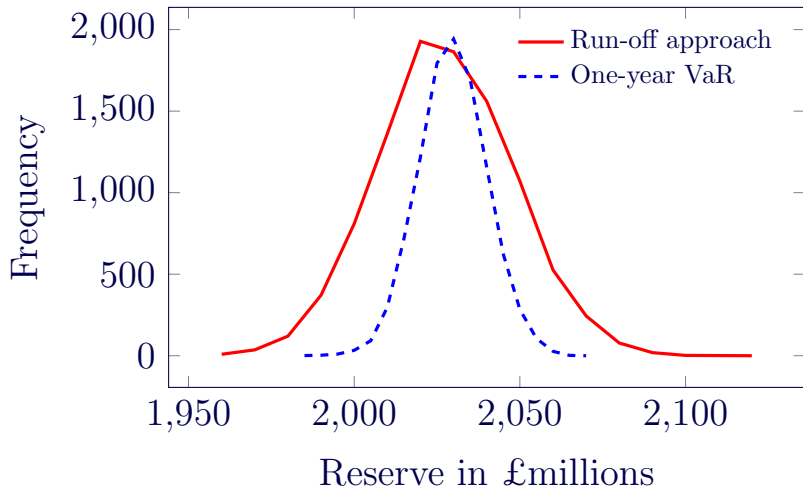
1. Simulate n years of experience.
2. Refit model to re-estimate $\hat{\theta}_j$.

and proceed as before.

- $n = 1$ for Solvency II,
- $n = 3, 4, 5$ for ORSA.



- $\hat{\theta}_j$ varies according to additional n years of experience data.
- True n -year VaR approach to mis-estimation.
- Calculate percentiles of \mathcal{S} as before.



Source: Richards [2020c, Figures 4 and 6].

7 Comparisons

- Survival model varying in age and time ($\mu_{x,y}$).
- Risk factors in model[†]:
 - ▶ Age
 - ▶ Gender
 - ▶ Normal v. early retirement
 - ▶ First life v. surviving spouse
 - ▶ Pension size
 - ▶ Time

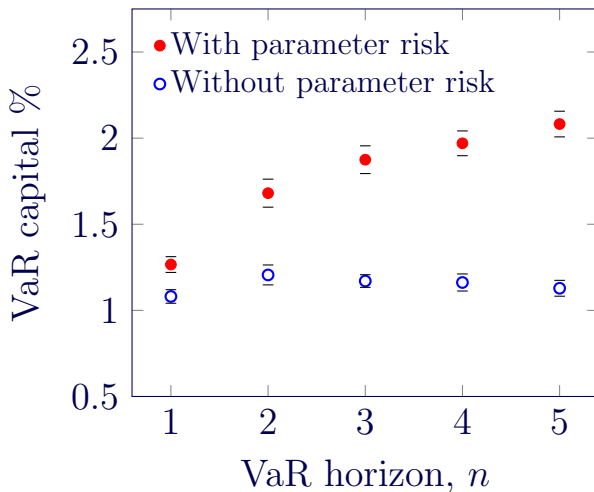
[†] Source: Richards [2020c, Table 3].

- Interested in 99.5% VaR capital requirement.
- VaR capital = $\left(\frac{99.5\% \text{ percentile of } \mathcal{S}}{\text{Mean of } \mathcal{S}} - 1 \right) \times 100\%$.
- 10,000 samples or simulations for each scenario.

Two options when simulating n years of experience:

1. Sample from $MVN(\hat{\underline{\theta}}, \hat{\underline{\Sigma}})$, i.e. with parameter risk.
2. Use $\hat{\underline{\theta}}$ each time, i.e. no parameter risk.

7 VaR capital by horizon



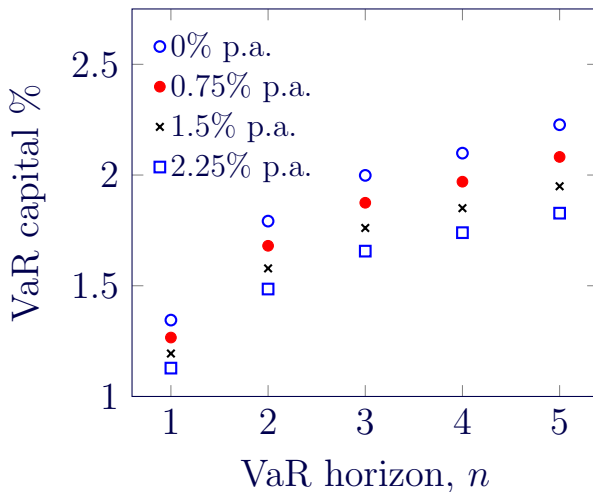
Source: Richards [2020c, Figure 5]. 99.5% VaR capital requirement from 10,000 simulations.

For mis-estimation VaR capital:

- Including parameter risk in simulations increases capital.
- However, most of 1-year capital not due to parameter risk.
- Only half of 5-year capital due to parameter risk.

Solvency ($n = 1$) different from ORSA ($n = 3, 4, 5$).

7 Role of discount rate



Source: Richards [2020c, Figure 7]. 99.5% VaR capital requirement from 10,000 simulations.

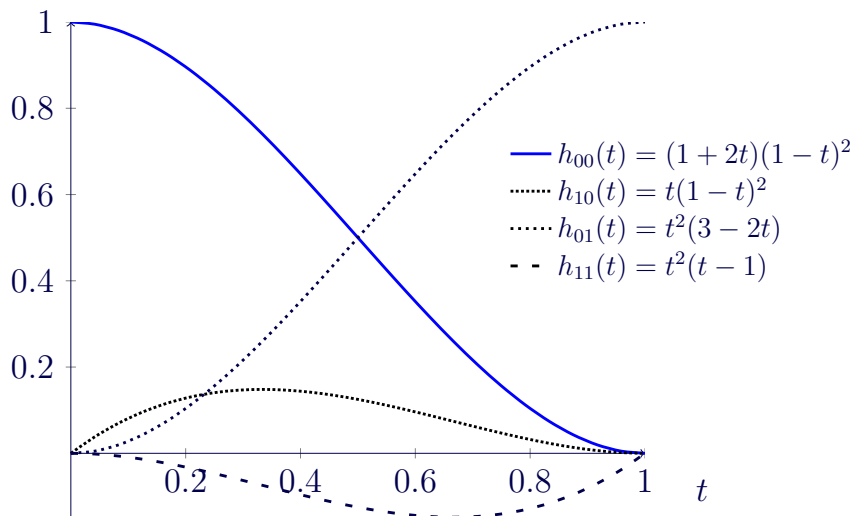
Lower discount rates mean higher mis-estimation VaR capital requirements.

Various options for post-retirement mortality:

- Gompertz [1825], $\mu_x = e^{\alpha+\beta x}$.
- Perks [1932], $\mu_x = \frac{e^{\alpha+\beta x}}{1 + e^{\alpha+\beta x}}$.
- Beard [1959], $\mu_x = \frac{e^{\alpha+\beta x}}{1 + e^{\alpha+\rho+\beta x}}$.
- Makeham-Perks, $\mu_x = \frac{e^\epsilon + e^{\alpha+\beta x}}{1 + e^{\alpha+\beta x}}$.
- Hermite-spline model of Richards [2020b].

- Designed for post-retirement mortality.
- Automatically allows for convergence with age.
- Uses Hermite splines for smoothness and flexibility.

7 A basis of Hermite splines



Source: Richards [2020b].

- Let x_0 and x_1 be the minimum and maximum ages.
- Define $t = \frac{(x - x_0)}{(x_1 - x_0)}$, so $t \in [0, 1]$.
- $\log \mu_x = \alpha h_{00}(t) + \omega h_{01}(t) + m_0 h_{10}(t) + m_1 h_{11}(t)$

for parameters α , ω , m_0 and m_1 estimated from data.

Source: Richards [2020b].

- Mortality differentials in α reduce with age due to path of h_{00} .
 - don't need age interactions as in other models.
 - requires fewer parameters.

1. Which models fit best by lives and amounts?
2. Do fewer parameters mean less mis-estimation risk?

1. Measure fit by lives using AIC [Akaike, 1987].
2. Measure fit by amounts using bootstrapping [Richards, 2016, Section 8].

Best fit:

- By lives: lowest AIC.
- By amounts: closest bootstrap percentage to 100%.

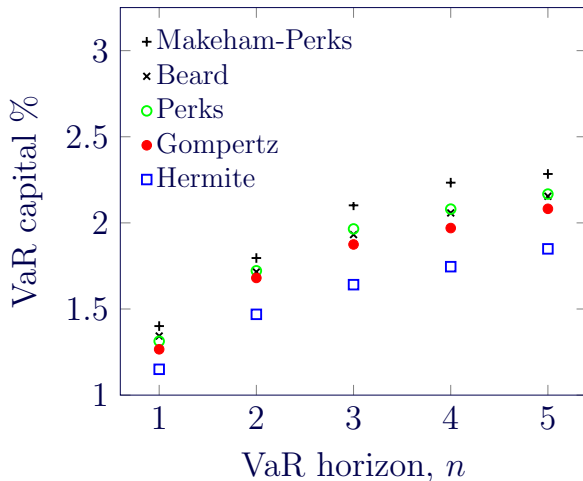
Sorted by descending AIC:

Mortality law	Parameters	AIC	Bootstrap
Gompertz	13	79,643	98.9%
Perks	13	79,638	99.3%
Beard	14	79,626	99.0%
Makeham-Perks	14	79,625	99.0%
Hermite	10	79,623	99.2%

Source: Data from Richards [2020c, Table 4].

- Gompertz model has worst fit in terms of both AIC and explanation of amounts variation.
- Hermite model has:
 - ▶ Fewest parameters,
 - ▶ Best fit in terms of AIC, and
 - ▶ Second-best fit in terms of amounts.

7 Role of mortality law



Source: Richards [2020c, Figure 10]. 99.5% VaR capital requirement from 10,000 simulations. Discounting

- Models with fewer parameters have lower mis-estimation risk.
- Overly simple laws (Gompertz) don't explain enough amounts variation.

- Mis-estimation risk stems from having finite experience data.
- Quantification must be:
 - ▶ statistical to account for correlations, and
 - ▶ financial to account for concentration risk.

Two options for mis-estimation:

1. Richards [2016] — run-off approach for pricing block transactions.
2. Richards [2020c] — value-at-risk approach for one-year Solvency II reporting, ORSA etc.

For one-year VaR mis-estimation capital:

- Parameter risk accounts for a small proportion.
- Parsimonious models tend to have lower estimation risk.

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Any errors or omissions remain the responsibility of the author.

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