

MODELS FOR STOCHASTIC MORTALITY WITH PARAMETER UNCERTAINTY

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Working paper: Cairns, Blake, Dowd, Coughlan, Epstein, Ong, Balevich (2007)

*A quantitative comparison of stochastic mortality models using data from England
& Wales and the United States*

Plan

- Introduction
- Approaches to modelling mortality improvements
- A two-factor model for stochastic mortality
- Application
 - The survivor index
- Adding in a cohort effect
- Conclusions

The facts about mortality:

- Life expectancy is increasing.
- Future development of life expectancy is uncertain.

“Longevity risk”

Longevity Risk = the risk that aggregate future mortality rates are lower than anticipated

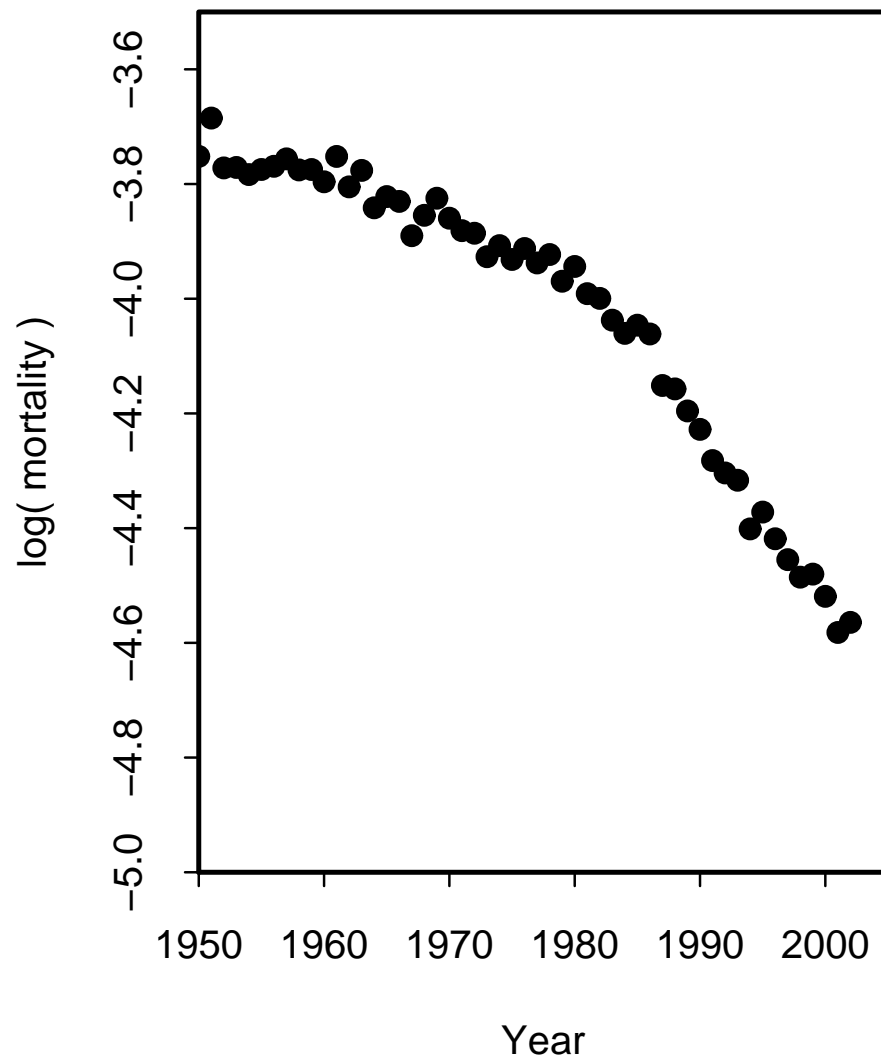
Focus here: Mortality rates above age 60

Where is stochastic mortality relevant?

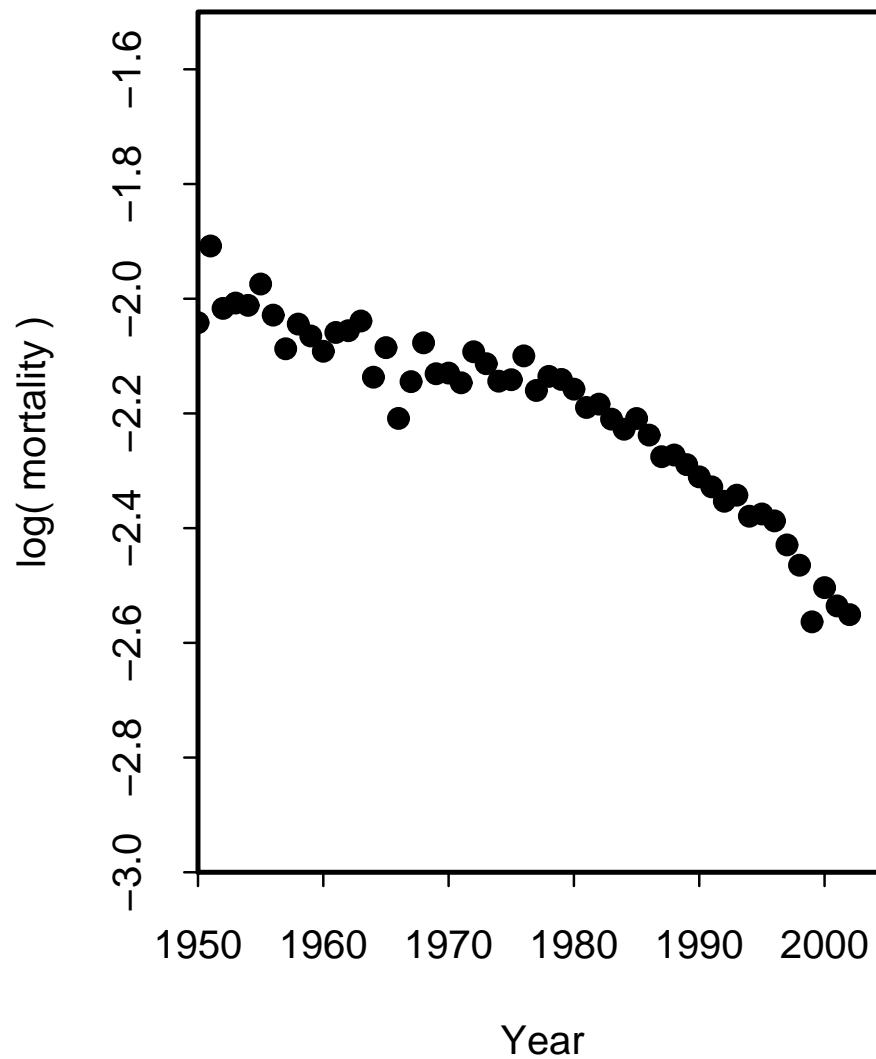
- Risk management in general
- Pension plans: what level of reserves?
- Life insurance contracts with embedded options.
- Pricing and hedging longevity-linked securities.

England and Wales log mortality rates 1950-2002

Age 60



Age 80



Stochastic Models

Different approaches to modelling

- Lee-Carter
- P-Splines
- Parametric, time-series models

Stochastic Models

Limited historical data \Rightarrow

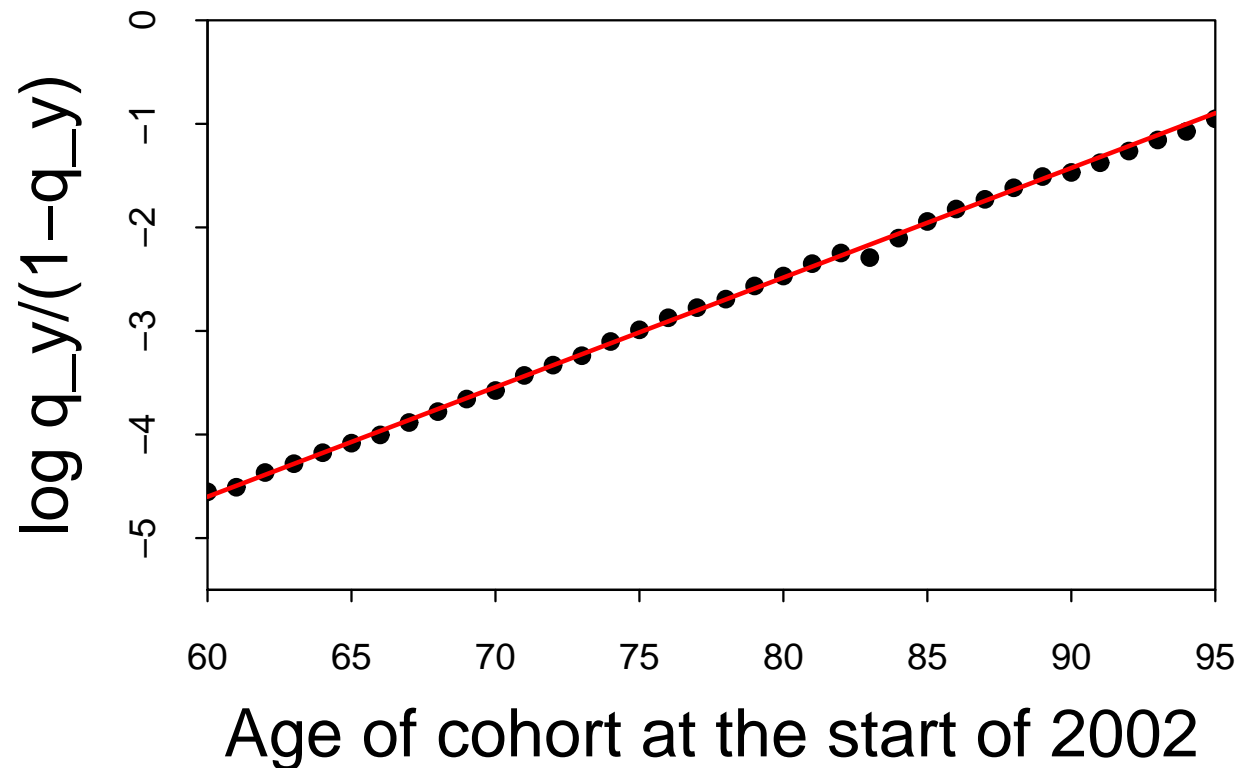
- No single model is 'the right one'

limited data \Rightarrow **Model risk**

- Even with the right model

limited data \Rightarrow **Parameter risk**

Case study: England and Wales males, age 60-95



q_y = mortality rate at age y in 2002

Data suggests $\log q_y/(1 - q_y)$ is linear

“PARAMETRIC” TIME-SERIES MODELS

$q(t, x)$ Mortality rate for the year t to $t + 1$ for individuals aged x at t :

General class of models

$$\text{logit } q(t, x) = \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_x^{(i)} \kappa_t^{(i)} \gamma_{t-x}^{(i)}$$

“Parametric” $\Rightarrow \beta_x^{(i)}$ is a simple function of x

Estimation

- **Data:** Deaths $D(t, x)$, Exposures $E(t, x)$
 \Rightarrow Crude death rates $\hat{m}(t, x) = D(t, x) / E(t, x)$
- Underlying $m(t, x) = -\log[1 - q(t, x)]$
 (by assumption)
- $D(t, x) \sim$ independent Poisson $\left(m(t, x) E(t, x) \right)$
- Maximum likelihood $\Rightarrow \hat{\beta}_x^{(i)}$, $\hat{K}_t^{(i)}$ and $\hat{\gamma}_{t-x}^{(i)}$

TWO PARAMETRIC TIME-SERIES MODELS

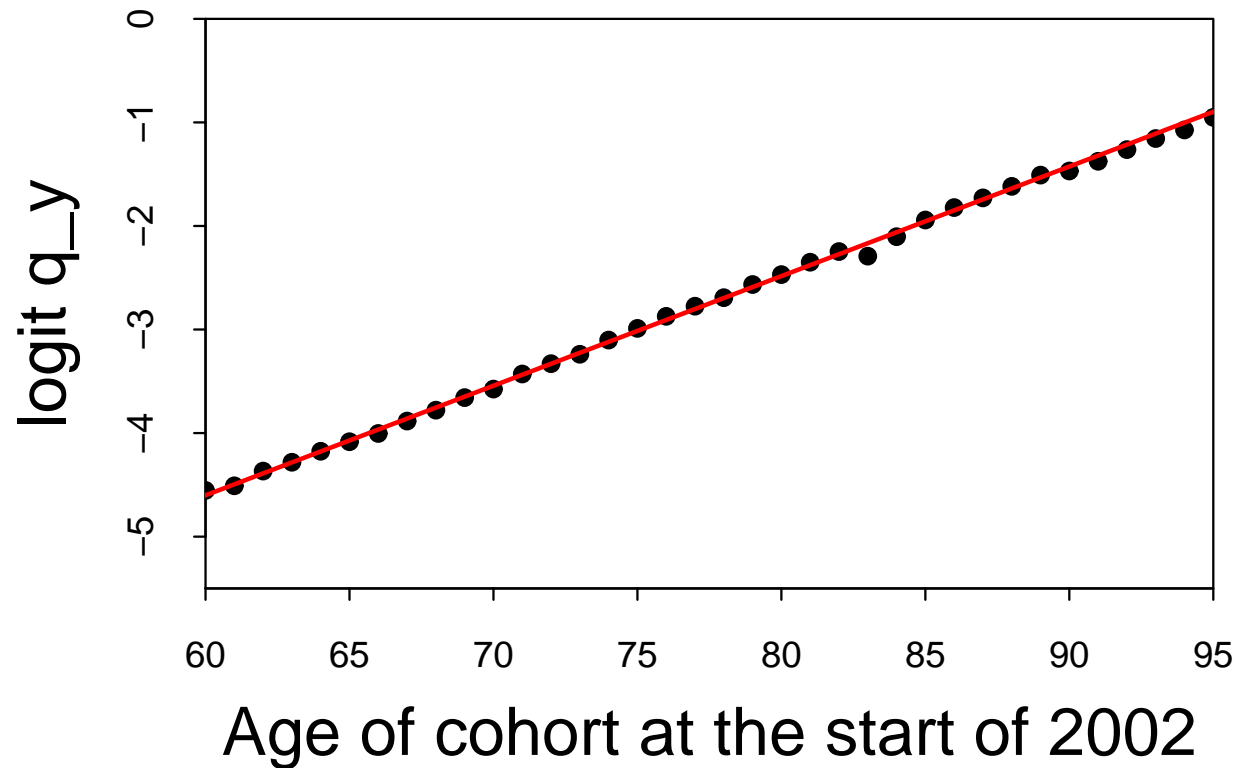
Model 1 (Age-Period model):

$$\text{logit } q(t, x) = \kappa_t^{(1)} + \kappa_t^{(2)} (x - \bar{x})$$

Model 2 (Age-Period-Cohort model):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{logit } q(t, x) = & \kappa_t^{(1)} + \kappa_t^{(2)} (x - \bar{x}) \\ & + \kappa_t^{(3)} [(x - \bar{x})^2 - \sigma_x^2] \\ & + \gamma_{t-x}^{(4)} \end{aligned}$$

Model 1: Case study – England and Wales males

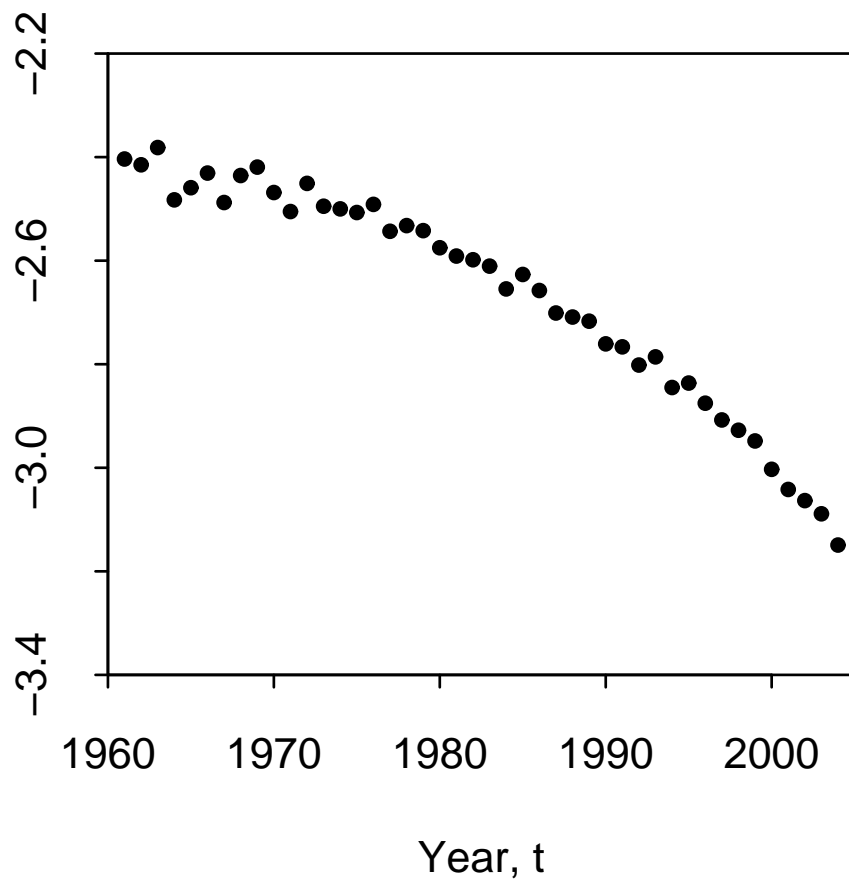


$\kappa_t^{(1)} \Rightarrow$ level

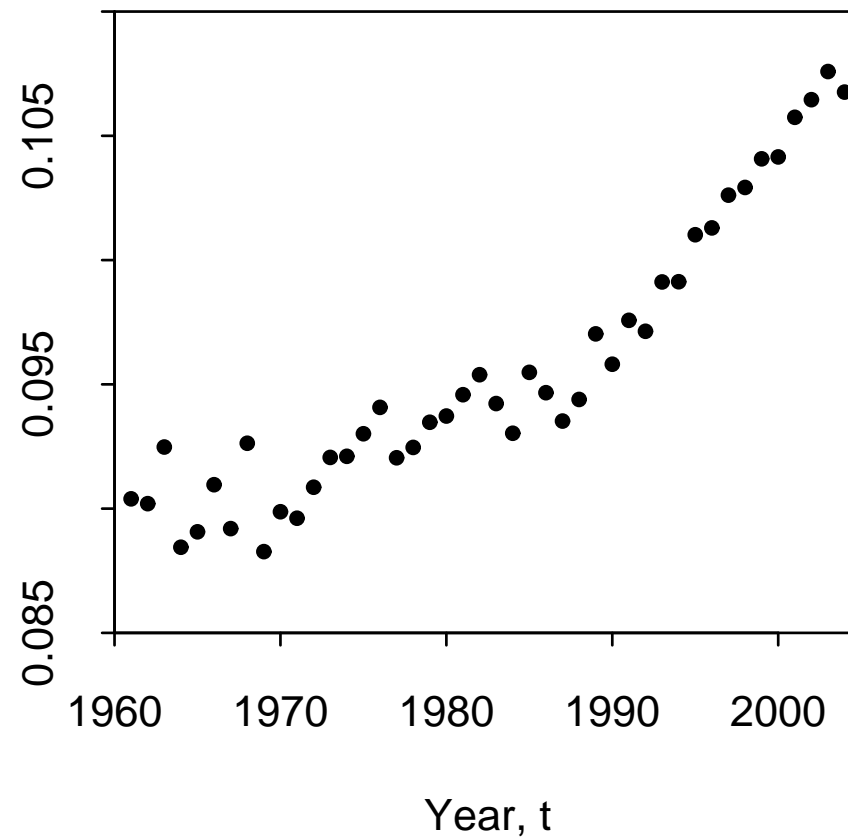
$\kappa_t^{(2)} \Rightarrow$ slope

Model 1

2-factor model: $\text{Kappa}_1(t)=1$



2-factor model: $\text{Kappa}_2(t)$



$$\kappa_t = (\kappa_t^{(1)}, \kappa_t^{(2)})'$$

Model: Random walk with drift

$$\kappa_{t+1} - \kappa_t = \mu + CZ(t+1)$$

- $\mu = (\mu_1, \mu_2)'$ = drift
- $V = CC'$ = variance-covariance matrix
- Estimate μ and V
- Quantify parameter uncertainty in μ and V

Bayesian approach to parameter uncertainty

- Jeffreys prior $p(\mu, V) \propto |V|^{-3/2}$.
- Data: vector $D(t) = \kappa_t - \kappa_{t-1}$ for $t = 1, \dots, n$
- MLE's: $\hat{\mu}$ and \hat{V} .
- Posterior:

$$V^{-1} | D \sim \text{Wishart}(n - 1, n^{-1} \hat{V}^{-1})$$

$$\mu | V, D \sim \text{MVN}(\hat{\mu}, n^{-1} V)$$

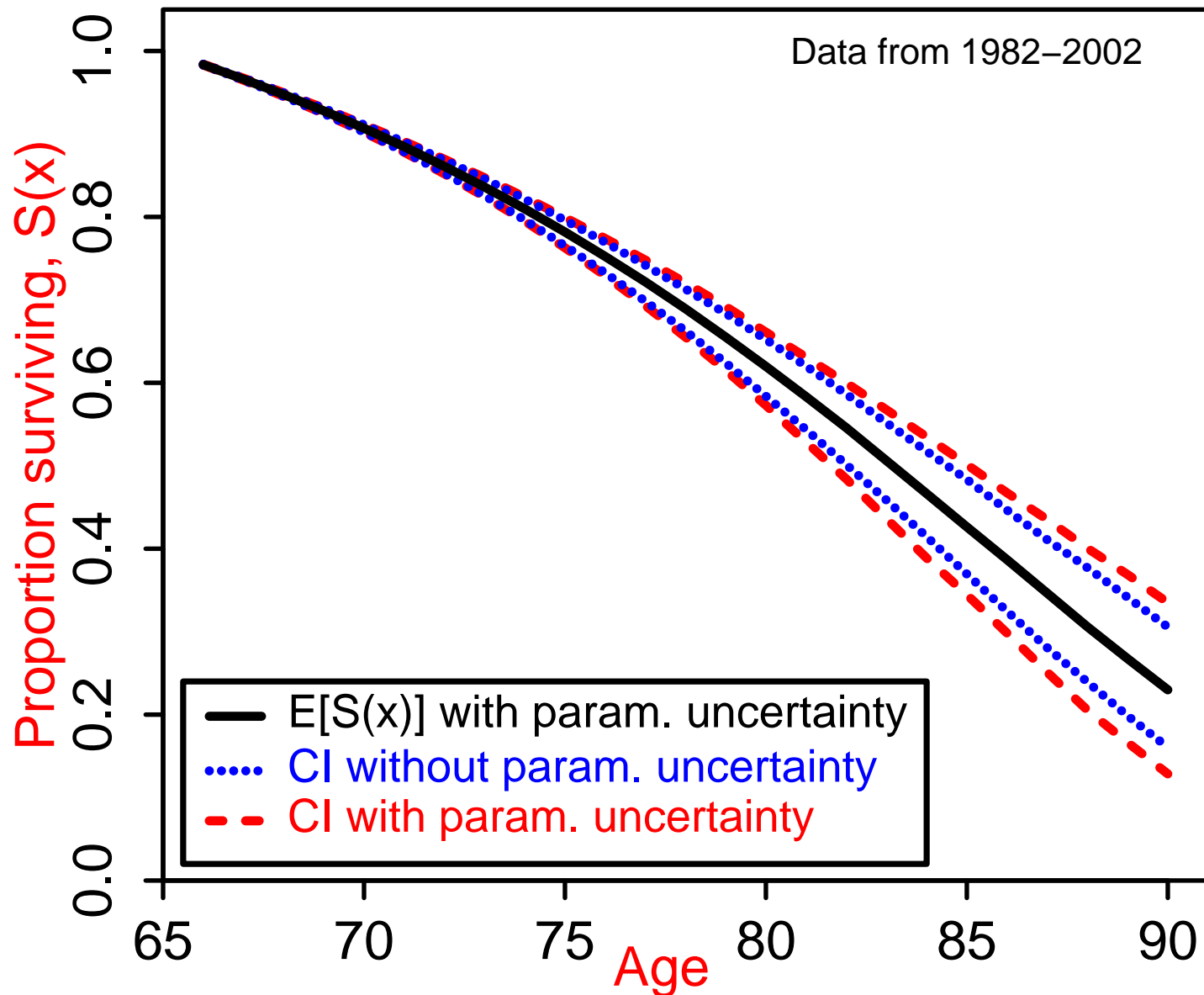
Application: cohort survivorship

- Cohort: Age x at time $t = 0$
- $S(t, x)$ = survivor index at t

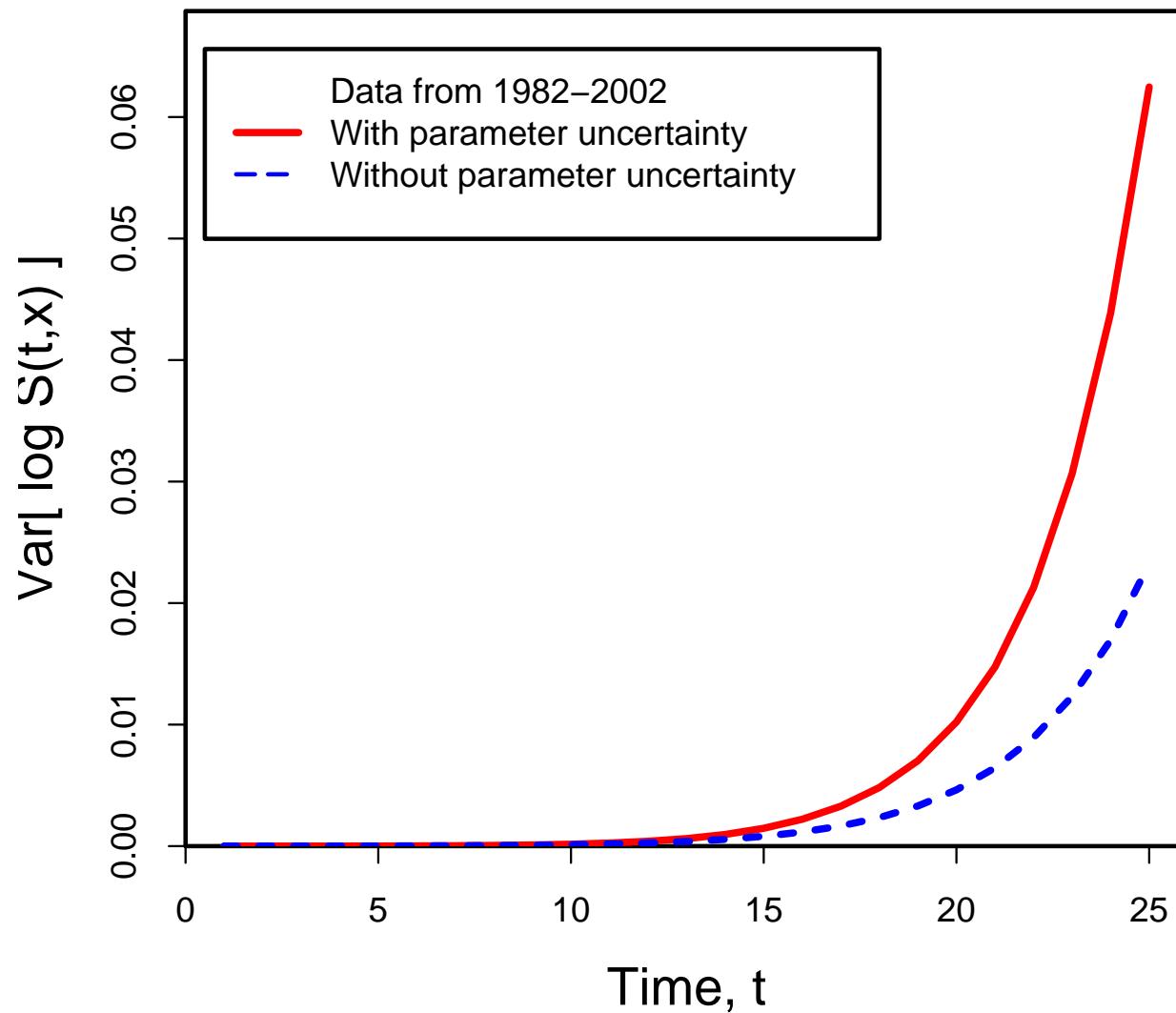
proportion surviving from time 0 to time t

$$S(t, x) = (1 - q(0, x)) \times (1 - q(1, x + 1)) \times \dots \\ \dots \times (1 - q(t - 1, x + t - 1))$$

90% Confidence Interval (CI) for Cohort Survivorship



$Var[\log S(t, x)]$ for $x = 65$



Cohort Survivorship: General Conclusions

- Less than 10 years:
 - Systematic risk not significant
- Over 10 years
 - Systematic risk becomes more and more significant over time
- Over 20 years
 - Parameter (and model) risk begin to dominate

How do you price a longevity bond?

- Hedgers are prepared to pay a premium
- Two approaches:
 - Take *real-world* expected values
 - use a risk-adjusted discount rate
 - Take *risk-adjusted* expected values
 - use the risk-free discount rate

Risk-neutral pricing (risk-adjusted expected values)

$$\begin{pmatrix} \kappa_{t+1}^{(1)} \\ \kappa_{t+1}^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \kappa_t^{(1)} \\ \kappa_t^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{Z}_1(t+1) + \lambda_1 \\ \tilde{Z}_2(t+1) + \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\tilde{Z}_1(t+1)$ and $\tilde{Z}_2(t+1)$ are i.i.d. $\sim N(0, 1)$

under a risk-neutral pricing measure $Q(\lambda)$

λ_1 and λ_2 are market prices of risk

How does the market price of risk work?

- Market price of risk is
the additional expected return over the risk free rate
per unit of risk
- Two independent sources of risk $Z_1(t), Z_2(t)$
- Tradeable security has corresp. volatilities σ_1, σ_2
- Hence

$$\text{Risk premium} = \left(\sigma_1 \lambda_1 + \sigma_2 \lambda_2 \right)$$

Comments

- The market is highly incomplete
- The switch from P to Q is a modelling assumption
- (Simple) Key assumption:
market prices of risk λ_1 and λ_2 are constant.
- As a market develops this assumption becomes a testable hypothesis

≤ One data point: the EIB-BNP longevity bond

- Offer price (ultimately unsuccessful) \Rightarrow
average risk premium of 20 basis points

(paid by the buyer of the bond to the seller)

if held to maturity
- What values of λ_1 , λ_2 are consistent with the 20b.p.'s risk premium?
- One price, two parameters \Rightarrow many solutions

Answer: 20 b.p. spread equates to

$$\lambda_1 = 0.375, \quad \lambda_2 = 0$$

↓

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$$\lambda_1 = 0, \quad \lambda_2 = 0.315$$

Do these values represent a *good deal*?

Why do we need to know λ_1, λ_2 ?

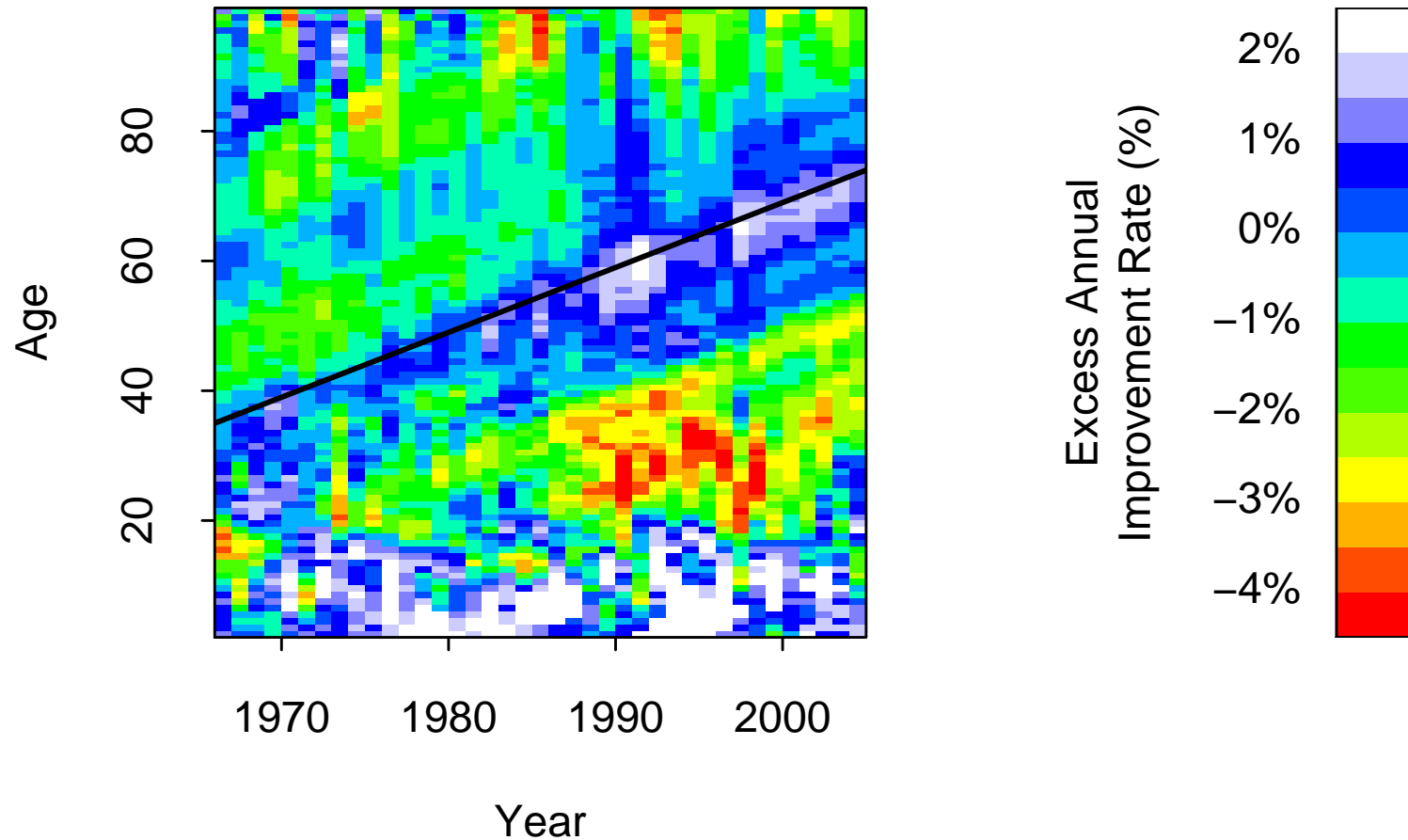
⇒ info. on how to price new issues in the future.

Longevity Bond Risk Premiums: $\lambda = (0.375, 0)$

Dependency on term and initial age:

		Initial age of cohort, x		
		60	65	70
Bond	20	8.9	14.7	23.1
Maturity	25	12.7	20.0	28.7
T	30	16.9	24.3	31.5

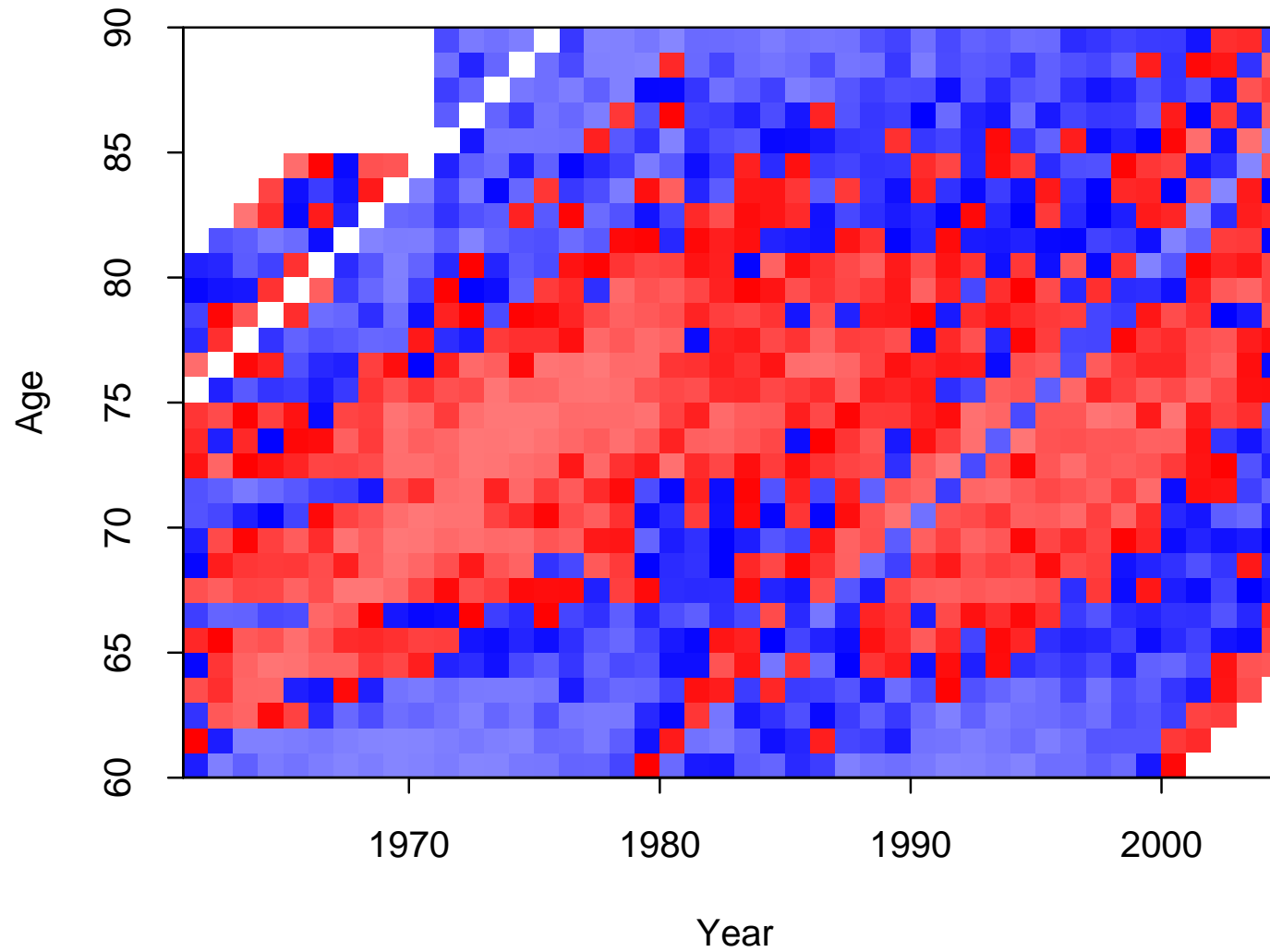
The cohort effect: England and Wales



Mortality improvement relative to calendar year average.

The Cohort Effect

2-factor Model: Standardised Residuals



TWO PARAMETRIC TIME-SERIES MODELS

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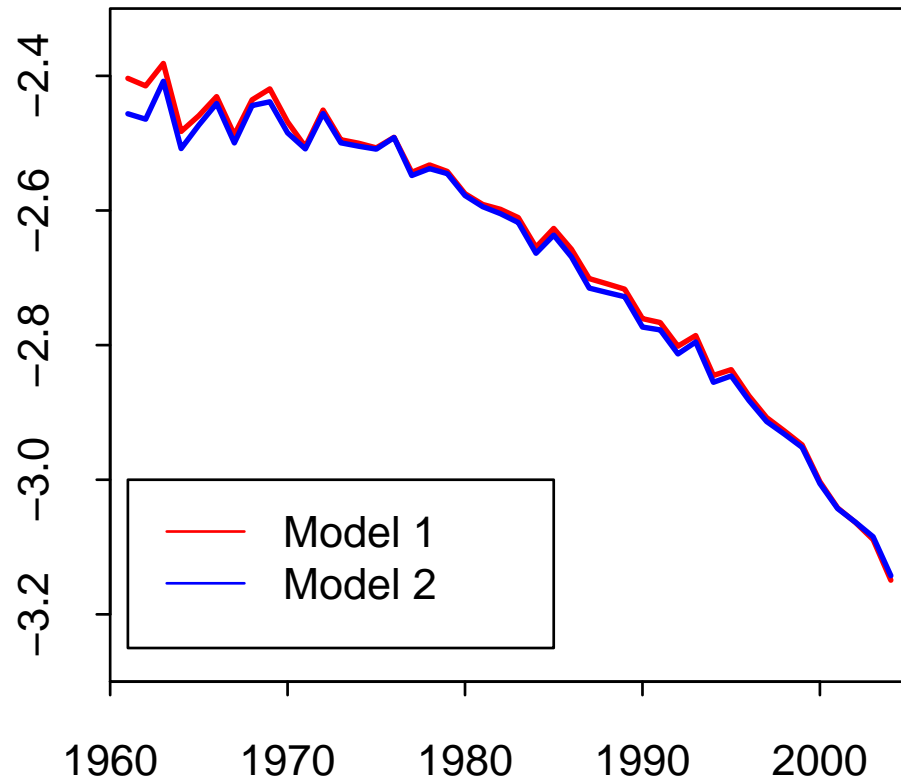
Model 2 (Age-Period-Cohort model):

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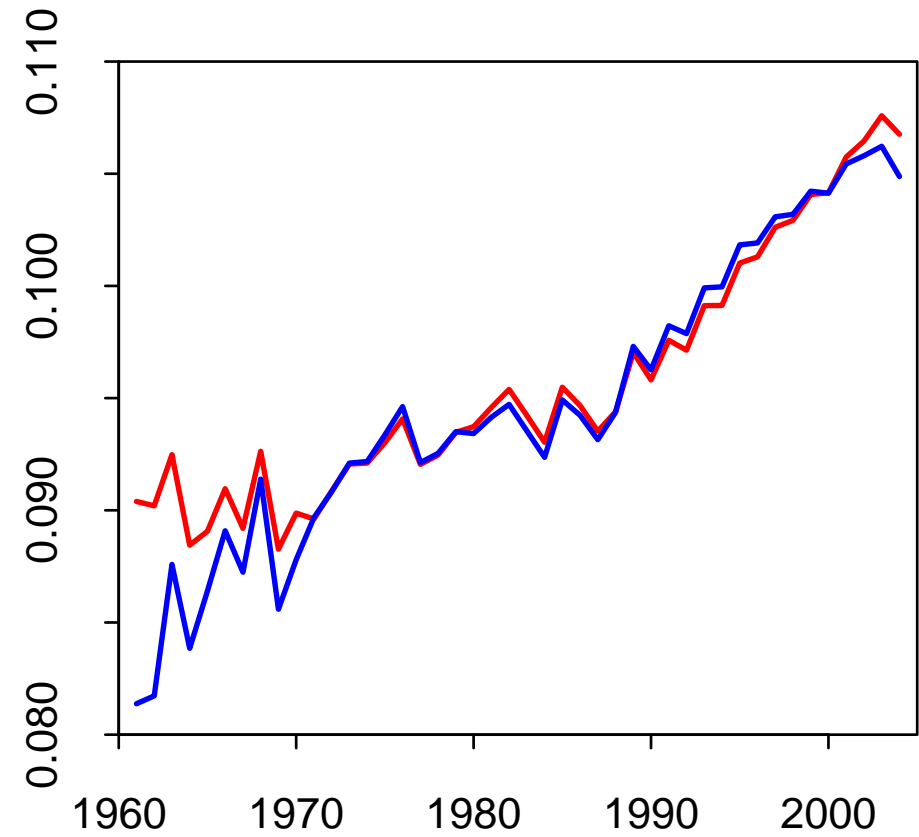
(e.g. see Renshaw & Haberman (2006))

Model 1 versus Model 2

kappa_1(t)

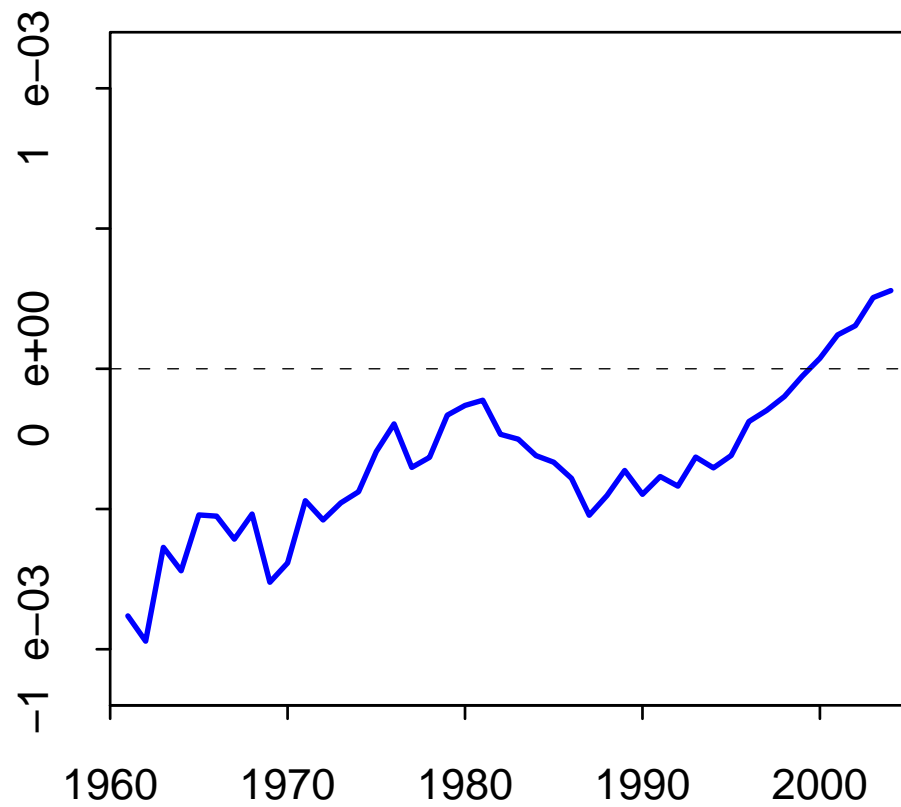


kappa_2(t)

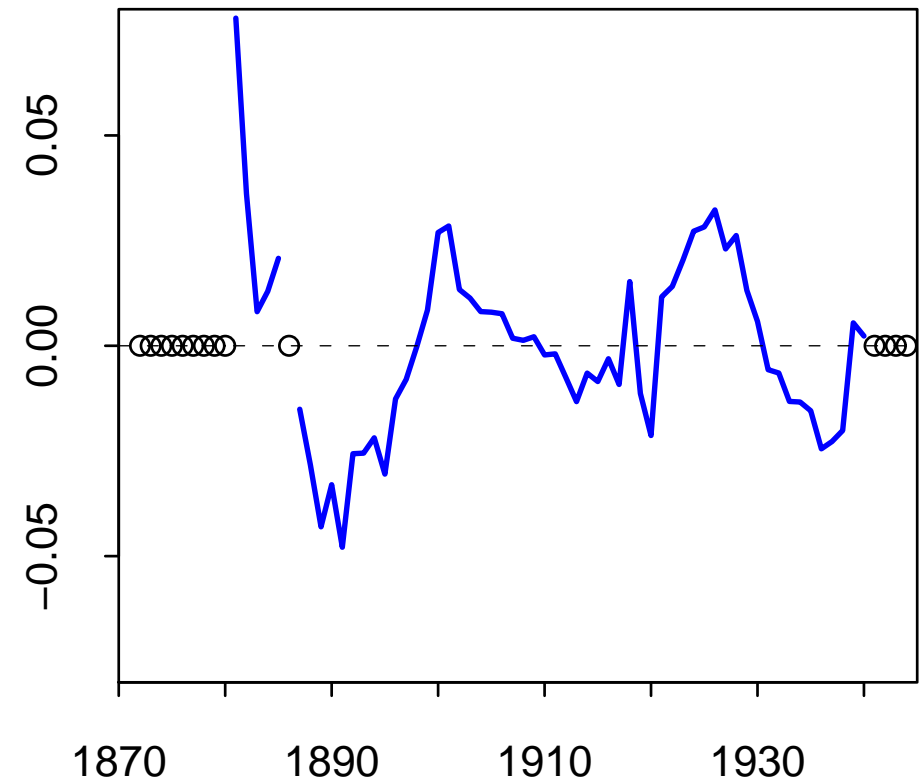


Model 2: extra factors

$\kappa_3(t)$

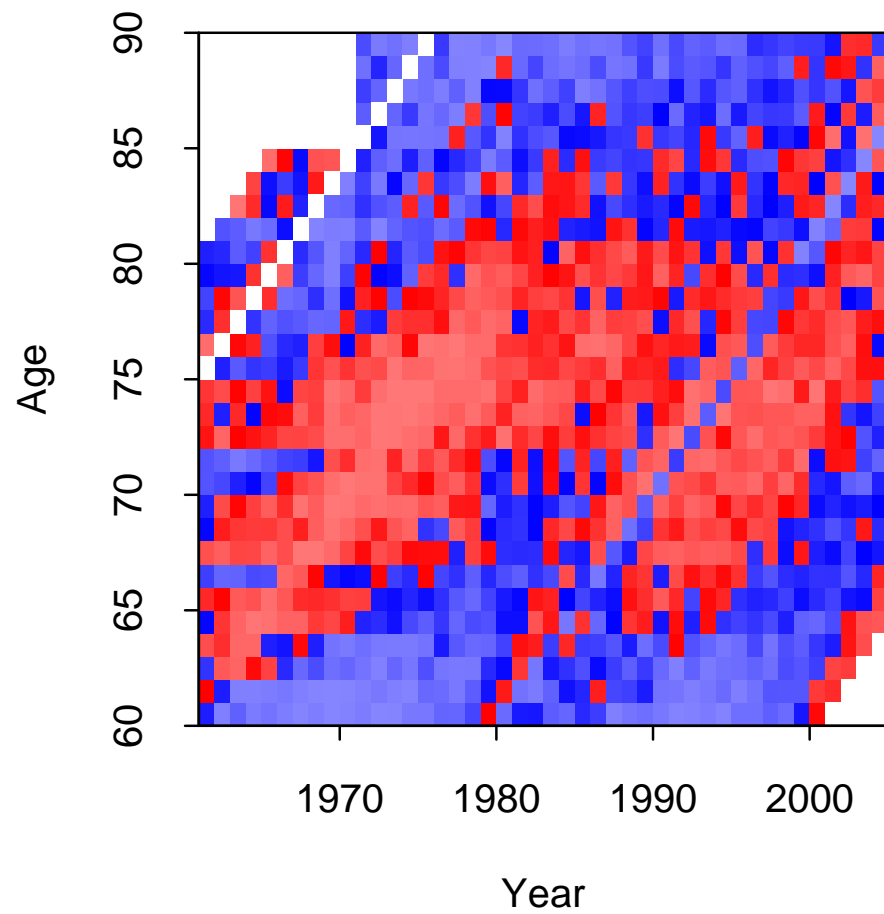


$\gamma_4(t)$

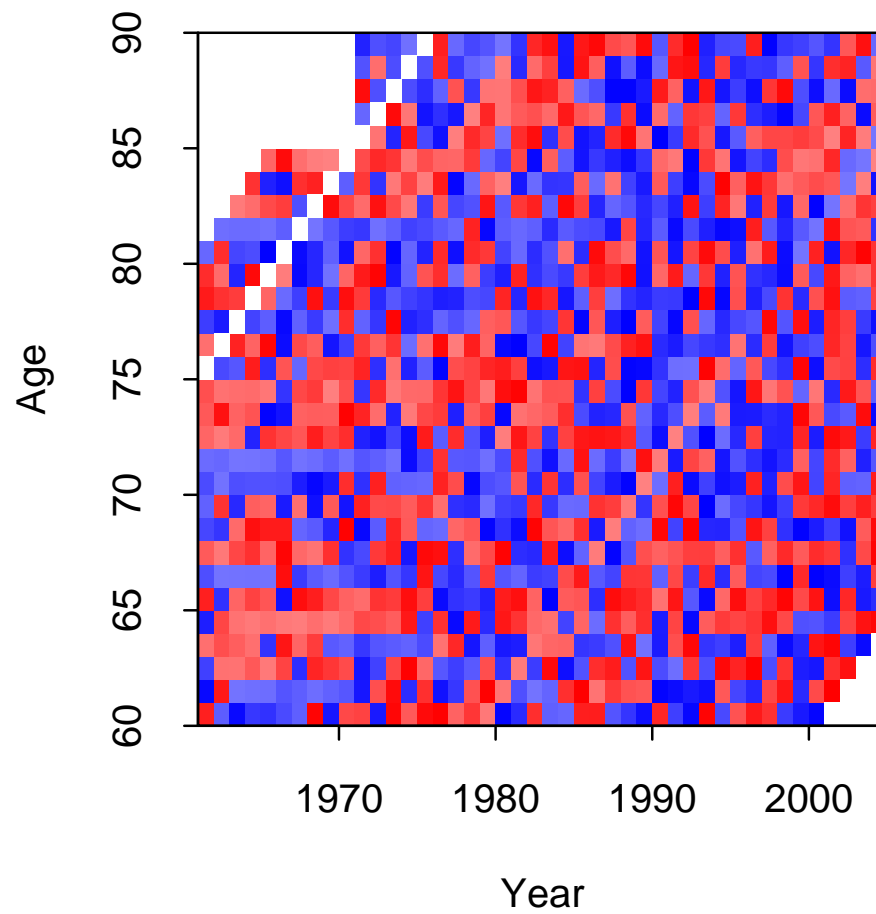


Standardised residuals

Model 1

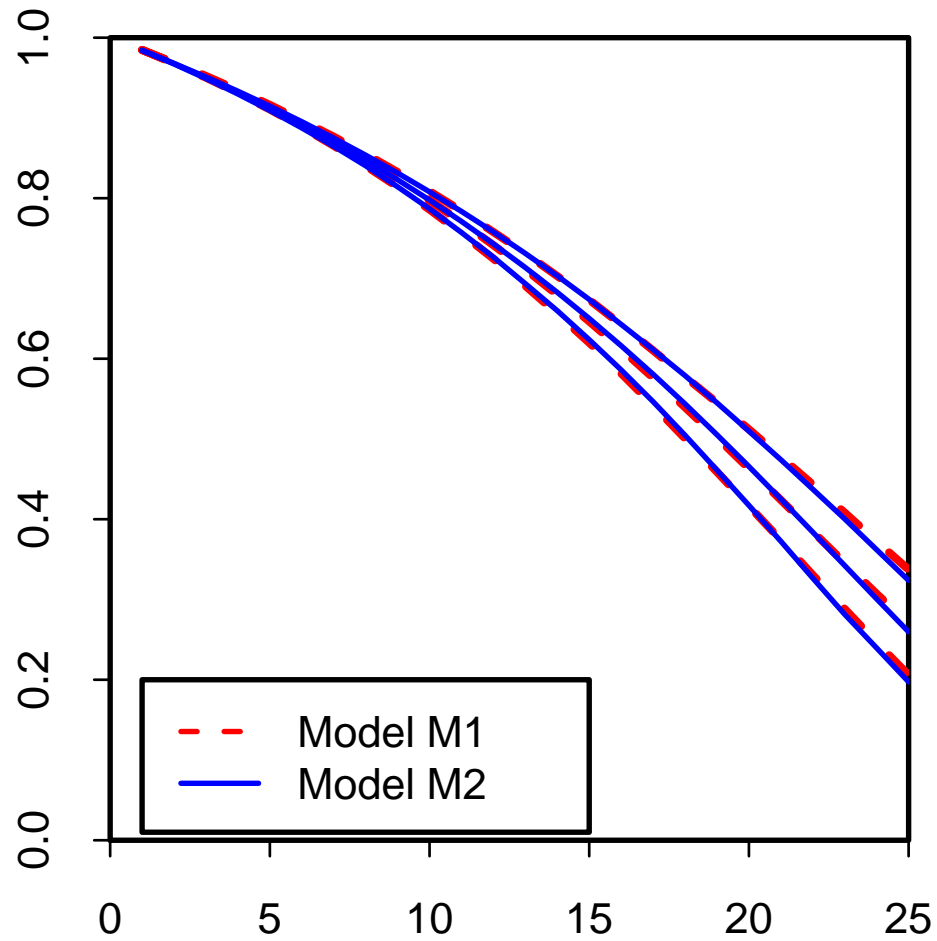


Model 2

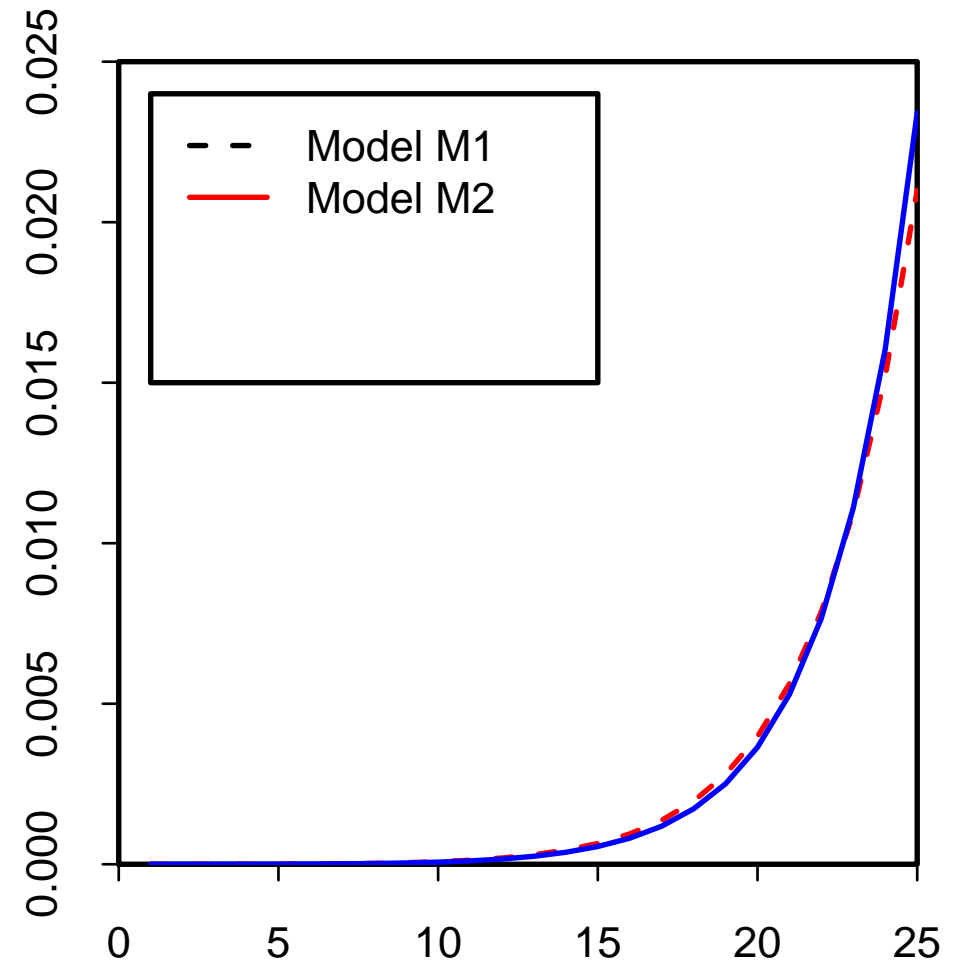


Survivor index projections

$S(t,x)$: Mean + 5%, 95% quantiles



Variance of $\log S(t,x)$



4% Annuity Values

	Model 1	Model 2	
		$\gamma_{1944}^{(4)}$ = -0.0398	$\gamma_{1944}^{(4)}$ = 0.0402
$x = 60$	13.472	13.557	13.350
$x = 65$	11.449	11.451	
$x = 70$	9.325	9.354	
$x = 75$	7.220	7.240	

Conclusions

- Stochastic mortality \Rightarrow significant
- Parameter and model risk \Rightarrow significant
- Wider analysis looked at 8 models
 - Model comparisons: quantitative (BIC) and qualitative
 - Cohort effect is very significant
 - Models with smooth $\beta_x^{(i)}$ age effects are more robust

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