Stat 476
Life Contingencies II

Policy values / Reserves
Future loss random variables

When we discussed the setting of premium levels, we often made use of future loss random variables.

- In that context, we only considered future loss random variables at issue, i.e., future loss at time 0.

We’re again to make use of future loss random variables in order to study policy values.

- To do this, we’ll need to consider future loss random variables at arbitrary time points after policy issue.

**General Formula**

Future loss at time $t = PV_t \text{ (future “benefits”) } - PV_t \text{ (future “premiums”)}$

Thus, the future loss is *only* concerned with events happening after time $t$ — benefits and premiums occurring prior to time $t$ do not affect this calculation.
The specific random variables we’ll utilize are:

**Net Future Loss at Time** \( t \) **Random Variable**

\[ L^n_t = PV_t(\text{future benefits}) - PV_t(\text{future net premiums}) \]

**Gross Future Loss at Time** \( t \) **Random Variable**

\[ L^g_t = [PV_t(\text{future benefits}) + PV_t(\text{future expenses})] - [PV_t(\text{future gross premiums})] \]

The notation \( PV_t(X) \) denotes the present value at time \( t \) of \( X \).

If \( t \) is an integer, then any cash flows occurring at the end of year \( t \) will not be included in these calculations, whereas cash flows occurring at the start of year \( t + 1 \) will be included.
Consider a 40-year old that has purchased a whole life insurance policy with $100,000 payable at the end of the year of death. Premiums are payable at the beginning of the year.

Using the Standard Ultimate Mortality Model with \( i = 5\% \) gives \( A_{40} = 0.12106 \) and \( A_{50} = 0.18931 \). Using the Equivalence Principle to set the annual premium gives \( P = 655.88 \).

At issue:

\[
L_0^n = 100,000 \, v^{K_{40}+1} - 655.88 \, ä_{K_{40}+1}
\]

and

\[
E[L_0^n] = 0
\]
Then at time 10:

\[ L^n_{10} = 100,000 \cdot v^{K_{50}+1} - 655.88 \cdot \ddot{a}_{K_{50}+1} \]

so that

\[ E[L^n_{10}] = 100,000A_{50} - 655.88 \cdot \ddot{a}_{K_{50}+1} \]

\[ = 100,000(0.18931) - 655.88 \left( \frac{1 - 0.18931}{0.0476} \right) \]

\[ = $7,760.51 \]

Unlike at issue, this expected future loss is not zero; the future premiums are not expected to be sufficient to cover future benefits. The insurer would need to have, on average, $7,760.51 on hand in addition to future premiums in order to cover the future benefits.
The amount needed to cover the shortfall between future benefits and future premiums ($7,760.51 in the previous example) is called the **policy value** at time $t$ and is denoted generically by $tV$.

The process of calculating policy values is known as **valuation**.

- Sometimes (especially in the U.S.) it’s called **reserving**, and policy values are known as **reserves**.

The general “prospective” formula for a policy value is

\[
\text{Prospective Policy Value Formula}
\]

\[
tV = EPV_t(\text{future “benefits”}) - EPV_t(\text{future “premiums”})
\]
The assumptions (such as mortality, expenses, interest, etc.) used in a policy value calculation form the **policy value basis**. In contrast, the assumptions used to originally calculate the premiums for the policy form the **premium basis**.

- There’s no real reason to think that these two bases will be the same, and in general, they will indeed differ.

The policy value basis used will typically depend on the purpose of the valuation. Some common reasons for valuations:

1. Internal management information
2. Regulatory requirements
3. Shareholder reporting
4. Reporting required for taxation purposes
The **gross premium policy value** at time $t$ is the expected value (at time $t$) of the gross future loss random variable.

- The premiums used in the calculation are the actual gross premiums for the policy.

The **net premium policy value** at time $t$ is the expected value (at time $t$) of the net future loss random variable.

- The premiums used in the calculation are the net premiums calculated by the Equivalence Principle, applied at the age of policy issue, calculated on the policy value basis.
- No expenses are taken into account.
Consider a whole life policy for (50) with $100,000 death benefit payable at the end of the year of death. Gross premiums of $1,300 are paid annually.

1. Calculate the gross premium policy value at time 5, assuming the policy is still in force using the following basis:
   - Standard Select Survival Model (this is a 2-year select model)
   - $i = 5\%$
   - Expenses are 12.5\% of each premium

2. Calculate the net premium policy value at time 5, using the same basis as above, but $i = 4\%$. 
Writing out the gross future loss random variable:

\[ L^g_5 = \left[ 100,000 \, v^{K_{55}+1} + (0.125)(1,300)\bar{a}_{K_{55}+1} \right] - \left[ (1,300)\bar{a}_{K_{55}+1} \right] \]

Then the gross premium policy value is

\[ E[L^g_5] = 5 \, V^g = 100,000 \, A_{55} - (0.875)(1,300)\bar{a}_{55} = 5,256.35 \]

First calculate the net premium: \( P = \frac{A_{[50]}}{\bar{a}_{[50]}} = 1,321.31 \)

\[ L^n_5 = \left[ 100,000 \, v^{K_{55}+1} \right] - \left[ (1,321.31)\bar{a}_{K_{55}+1} \right] \]

Then the net premium policy value is

\[ E[L^n_5] = 5 \, V^n = 100,000 \, A_{55} - (1,321.31)\bar{a}_{55} = 6,704.75 \]
Calculate the net premium reserve and gross premium reserve at time 5 for a fully discrete 20-year term insurance policy of $250,000 issued to (40), using the following basis:

- Mortality follows the Illustrative Life Table (ILT).
- \( i = 6\% \)
- Gross annual premium is $1,500.
- Expenses are $500 in the first year and $50 in subsequent years; all expenses are incurred at the beginning of the year.
Recursive formulas for policy values

We can develop some useful recursive formulas for our policy values, that is, formulas relating a policy value at time $t$ to the policy value for the same policy value at time $t + 1$.

These formulas are useful in practice because they allow us to calculate policy values without having to start from scratch every time.

The general idea for developing this type of formula is the same as for the recursive life insurance and annuity EPV formulas:

1. Write out the policy value at time $t$ in terms of the EPV for all future policy cash flows.
2. Split the future cash flow values into those occurring in the first year and those occurring in later years.
3. Regroup the EPV for later year cash flows in terms of a policy value at time $t + 1$. 
We’ll use Example 7.2 to illustrate how to develop a recursion formula for a gross premium policy value.

- Having previously calculated $5 V^g$, we’ll derive a formula that allows us to use this policy value to calculate $6 V^g$.
- We need one additional piece of information, namely $q_{55} = 0.00199$.

$$5 V^g = [(100,000)A_{55} + (0.125)(1,300)\ddot{a}_{55}] - [(1,300)\ddot{a}_{55}]$$

$$(5 V^g + 1,300 - (0.125)(1,300)) (1+i) = (100,000)q_{55} + p_{55}(6 V^g)$$

$$6 V^g = 6,527.53$$
Recursive formulas for policy values

Using the following generic notation:

\[ P_t \] premium payable at time \( t \)
\[ e_t \] expenses payable at time \( t \)
\[ S_{t+1} \] death benefit payable at time \( t + 1 \) if the insured dies during the year
\[ E_{t+1} \] termination-related expenses payable at time \( t + 1 \)
\[ i_t \] annual effective interest rate in effect from time \( t \) to time \( t + 1 \)

The general recursion equation for life insurance policy values is:

**Generic Policy Value Recursion Equation — Annual Case**

\[
(t V + P_t - e_t)(1 + i_t) = q_{[x]+t} (S_{t+1} + E_{t+1}) + p_{[x]+t} t+1 V
\]
In addition to the prospective and recursive formulas we’ve seen for policy values, we can also derive various other formulas for the net policy value, usually by manipulating the prospective formula.

For example, consider a whole life policy with $1 death benefit payable at the end of the year of death and annual premiums payable in advance, issued to \((x)\). For this case,

\[
 tV^n = A_{x+t} - \frac{A_x}{\ddot{a}_x} \ddot{a}_{x+t} = \left( \frac{A_{x+t}}{\ddot{a}_{x+t}} - \frac{A_x}{\ddot{a}_x} \right) \ddot{a}_{x+t}
\]

so that the policy value is the EPV of the “premium difference” payable over the remaining life of the policy.

We can also often express a net policy value entirely in terms of life insurance EPVs or annuity EPVs.
We can consider the emergence of profits for a block of policies by comparing actual experience to expected experience.

If actual experience precisely mirrors assumptions, then there won’t be a profit or loss in any year, but this is very unlikely (and sometimes impossible).

We will define the profit for a block of policies for policy year $k$ as:

$$(\text{Reserve at time } k - 1 \text{ plus net cash flows at beginning of year, accumulated to the end of the year}) - (\text{Reserve at time } k \text{ plus net cash flows at end of year})$$

A positive value of this quantity will be a profit; if this quantity is negative, it will be a loss.
Example A

We sell fully discrete whole life policies with $100,000 death benefits to 100 independent 50-year-olds.

Premium and Policy Value Basis:
- Mortality is given by SULT
- \( i = 5\% \)
- The only expenses are 5% of premiums

The actual experience for the first two years is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First Year</th>
<th>Second Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deaths</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenses (as a % of premium)</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest Earned</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Calculate the profit for the first two years. [-86442.61, 11303.48]
Profit by source

For a given year, we can break down the profit into its source components.

For each source, the profit is the difference between the actual and expected cash flows attributable to that source, valued at the end of the year.

To avoid double counting, we use assumed (expected) values for sources not yet considered and actual values for sources already considered.

The order in which we consider the sources can impact the attribution of profit to sources, though these differences are usually small. For any order, the sum of the profits by source should equal the total profit for the year.
Example A (continued)

For the previous example (in year 2), we can break down the profit by source (up to rounding error) — we see that the order slightly affects the decomposition:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Profit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mortality</td>
<td>12,895.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenses</td>
<td>608.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>-2,143.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11,360.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Profit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>-2,137.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mortality</td>
<td>12,895.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenses</td>
<td>602.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11,360.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The difference between the death benefit payable (plus any associated expenses) and the reserve at the end of the year is sometimes known as the **Net Amount at Risk (NAR)**; this is the amount of the mortality risk associated with a policy or block of policies for the insurer for the year.
We’ve seen that the policy value represents the amount, per policy, that the insurer needs to have on hand in to be able to expect to—combined with future premiums—cover expected future benefits.

Similarly, the amount that the insurer actually does have on hand per policy at time $t$ is called the asset share and is denoted $AS_t$.

It’s usually calculated by considering a large number of identical policies and imagining that there’s a dedicated fund set up for these policies:

- The fund starts with $0$ at the time of issue.
- Premiums are paid into the fund; expenses and claims are paid out of the fund, and the fund earns interest.
- Then the asset share for each policy still in force at time $t$ is

$$AS_t = \frac{\text{amount in fund at time } t}{\text{number of policies in force at time } t}$$
Consider a block of 1,000 identical (and independent) 20-year term policies issued to 40-year-olds, each with $500,000 death benefit payable at the end of the year and gross premium of $1,100 payable at the beginning of each year the policy is in force.

Suppose that the insurance company has the following experience over the first three years, and that all expenses are paid at the beginning of the year:

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Expenses</th>
<th>Interest Rate Earned</th>
<th>Deaths</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$242,000</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$168,500</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$165,000</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
We can calculate the asset share at times 1, 2, and 3:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>End of Year Fund Amount</th>
<th>Survivors</th>
<th>$AS_t$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$401,758</td>
<td>999</td>
<td>$402.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$394,769</td>
<td>997</td>
<td>$395.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$887,487</td>
<td>996</td>
<td>$891.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The amount in the fund at the end of the first year would be calculated as:

$$[0 + (1,000)(1,100) - 242,000](1.051) - (1)(500,000) = 401,758$$

The asset share at time 1 would be calculated as:

$$AS_t = \frac{401,758}{999} = 402.16$$
Non-anniversary policy values

Thus far we’ve only calculated policy values on policy anniversary dates, i.e., integral numbers of years after policy issue.

- We could also consider policy values for non-anniversary dates as well.
- The general principle is the same, though the specific calculations may get somewhat messier.

Example:

\[ 3.6 V^n = EPV_{3.6}(\text{future benefits}) - EPV_{3.6}(\text{future premiums}) \]

Note that the policy value is not a monotonic function of time, so that interpolating between anniversary policy values is not expected to yield a good approximation to a non-anniversary policy value.
Another complication we may encounter in valuation lies in dealing with policies having non-annual cash flows.

- For example, premiums for some policies may be payable on a non-annual (e.g., quarterly, monthly) basis.

Again, the basic principle for dealing with these cases is the same, though the specific calculations may get somewhat messier.

We can also develop recursion equations for policies having (discrete) non-annual cash flows.

- These will mirror the corresponding recursions for the annual case.
Policies with continuous cash flows

Using the notation:

\[ \bar{P}_t \] annual rate of premium payable at time \( t \)
\[ \bar{e}_t \] annual rate of expenses payable at time \( t \)
\[ S_t \] death benefit payable if the insured dies at time \( t \)
\[ E_t \] termination-related expenses payable at time \( t \)
\[ \delta_t \] force of interest in effect at time \( t \)

We can derive a continuous-time analog of our policy value recursion equation:

**Thiele’s Differential Equation**

\[
\frac{d}{dt} t V = \delta_t t V + \bar{P}_t - \bar{e}_t - (S_t + E_t - t V) \mu_{[x] + t}
\]
We can use Thiele’s Differential Equation as an approximation for a small time period $h$ by assuming that

$$\frac{d}{dt} tV \approx \frac{1}{h} (t+hV - tV),$$

yielding

**Euler’s Method**

$$t+hV - tV = h \left( \delta_t tV + P_t - e_t - (S_t + E_t - tV) \mu_{[x]+t} \right)$$

This can be used recursively to find policy values at fractional ages.

- It’s particularly helpful in cases where we know a “boundary condition”; e.g., for any endowment or insurance policy, we know the policy value as the contract approaches maturity.
We can define an expense reserve as the difference between the gross premium and net premium reserves:

\[ t V^e = t V^g - t V^n, \] or equivalently,

\[ t V^e = \text{EPV of future expenses} - \text{EPV of future expense loadings} \]

Because the expenses loadings are level and expenses are typically incurred disproportionately at the beginning of the policy, the expense reserve will typically be negative at positive durations.

- This negative expense reserve is often referred to (especially in the U.S.) as the Deferred Acquisition Cost or DAC.
A fully discrete $100,000 whole life policy is issued to (40). Mortality is given by the ILT and interest is 6%. Expenses are as follows:

- $500 at issue
- Maintenance expenses of $50 at the start of renewal years
- Termination costs of $100
- 2% of all premiums

Calculate the net premium reserve, gross premium reserve, and expense reserve at time 5.
Modified premium reserves (which are sometimes just called modified reserves) result from calculating a net premium reserve using net premiums that are not level, but follow some other specified pattern.

- The premiums are only modified for the purposes of the reserve calculation — the actual premiums paid are unchanged.
- Modified premium reserves offer some of the calculational convenience of net premium reserves, but tend to be less conservative — they’re closer in value to the gross premium reserve.
One particular type of modified premium reserve uses the **Full Preliminary Term (FPT)** method.

In this method, we find a single net premium ($\alpha$) and renewal net annual premium ($\beta$).
- $\alpha$ is the EPV of the first year policy benefits, and
- The EPV of the renewal premiums is equal to the EPV of the benefits in the subsequent years.

These modified premiums are then used in the reserve calculation:

$$t \, V^{FPT} = \text{EPV(benefits)} - \text{EPV(modified net premiums)}$$

As a consequence of this premium pattern, $1 \, V^{FPT}$ will always be 0.
Non-forfeiture options

In some jurisdictions, when a policyholder wants to surrender (lapse) a life insurance policy that has built up a positive policy value (under a statutorily specified policy value basis), the insurer may be required to return part or all of this policy value (or perhaps the associated asset share) to the policyholder in some manner.

The possibilities available to the policyholder are known as their non-forfeiture options.

Some of the common non-forfeiture options are:

- Cash
- Automatic Premium Loan
- Reduced Paid-up Insurance
- Extended Term Insurance
The basic formulas we’ve seen for policy values have been prospective in nature, meaning that at time $t$ we’re computing the policy value by considering what’s expected to happen in the future.

We can also define a retrospective policy value by looking from time $t$ back to the time of policy issue. The general form of a retrospective policy value is

$$\text{retrospective policy value at time } t = \text{accumulated value at time } t \text{ of past premiums} - \text{accumulated value at time } t \text{ of past benefits and expenses},$$

where the accumulations are done under the assumptions specified in the policy value basis, with respect to mortality and interest.
Note that the retrospective and prospective policy values are in general \textit{not equal} unless:

- The premium was calculated by the equivalence principle and
- The premium basis is the same as the policy value basis

While the retrospective policy value is conceptually similar to the asset share, these two quantities will likely not be the same unless the insurer’s actual experience was exactly the same as the assumption in the policy value basis, which is exceedingly unlikely to happen in practice.
Calculate $2V$ for a fully discrete 10-year term policy issued to (40) both retrospectively and prospectively, using the following information:

- $q_{40+k} = 0.1 + 0.005k$, for $k = 0, 1, \ldots, 9$.
- $i = 8\%$
- The death benefit is $200,000$ for the first four years, $400,000$ for the next three years, and $300,000$ for the final three years.
- The net premium for the policy is $28,327.56$.

Both methods should produce the same value of $24,923.22$.

In general, it’s easier to compute a policy value retrospectively than prospectively when there are non-level premiums / benefits and the calculation is done at an early duration, before the changes have occurred.