The lifecontingencies Package. A Package to Perform Financial and Actuarial Mathematics Calculations in R

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Abstract

lifecontingencies R package performs financial and actuarial mathematics calculations to model life contingencies insurances. Its functions permit to determine both the expected value and the stochastic distribution of insured benefits. Therefore they can be used both to price life insurance coverage as long as to assess portfolios' risk based capital requirements.

This paper briefly summarizes the theory regarding life contingencies, that is grounded on financial mathematics and demography concepts. Then, with the aid of applied examples, it shows how **lifecontingencies** package is a useful tool to perform routinary deterministic or stochastic calculations for life contingencies actuarial mathematics.

Keywords: life tables, financial mathematics, actuarial mathematics, life insurance.

1. Introduction

As of Dicember 2012, **lifecontingencies** appears the first R package that deals with life contingent actuarial mathematics. R statistical programming environment, R Development Core Team (2012), has become the reference software for academics. In addition, in business environments it is now considered a valid alternative to affirmed proprietary packages for statistics and data analysis, like as as SAS,SAS Institute Inc. (2011), MATLAB, MATLAB (2010), and SPSS, Corp (2012). Regarding actuarial applications, some packages have been already developed within R. However most of them mainly focus non-life actuaries. In fact, non - life insurance modeling involves more data analysis and applied statistical modelling than life insurance does. Functions to fit loss distributions and to perform credibility analysis are provided within the package **actuar**, Christophe Dutang, Vincent Goulet, and Mathieu Pigeon (2008). Package **actuar** represents the computational side of the classical actuarial textbook Loss Distribution, Klugman, Panjer, Willmot, and Venter (2009). The package **ChainLadder**, Gesmann and Zhang (2011), provides functions to estimate unpaid loss reserves for non - life insurances. Generalized Linear Models (GLMs), widely used in non - life insurance pricing, can be fit by functions bundled in the base R distribution. More advanced predictive models used by actuaries, that are Generalized Additive Models for Location, Shape and Scale (GAMLSS) and Tweedie Regression, can be fit using specifically developed packages as **gamlss**, Rigby and Stasinopoulos (2005), and **cplm**, Zhang (2011), packages.
Life insurance evaluation models demographic and financial data, mainly. A Finance dedicated view exists on CRAN site that lists packages specifically tailored to financial analysis.

But, few packages that handle demographic data have been published yet. For examples, relevant packages that perform demographic analysis are **demography**, Rob J Hyndman, Heather Booth, Leonie Tickle, and John Maindonald (2011), and **LifeTables**, Riffe (2011). Packages **YieldCurve**, Guirreri (2010), and **termstrc**, Ferstl and Hayden (2010), can be used to perform financial modeling on interest rates.

Numerous commercial software specifically tailored to life insurance actuarial analysis are available, on the other hand. "Moses" and "Prophet" are currently the leading actuarial softwares for life insurance modelling. **lifecontingencies** package aims to represent the R computational companion of the theoretical concepts exposed in textbooks like the classical Bowers, Jones, Gerber, Nesbitt, and Hickman (1997) and **?** actuarial mathematics textbooks and Broverman (2008) for financial mathematics. All along the paper, examples have been taken from Chris Ruckman and Joe Francis (2006) and **?**, freely available financial and actuarial mathematic textbooks. The paper has been structured as follows: Section 2 outlines the statistical and financial mathematics theory regarding life contingencies, Section 3 overviews the structure of the **lifecontingencies** package, Section 4 gives a wide choice of applied **lifecontingencies** examples, finally Section 5 discusses package actual and future development as well as known limitations.

2. Life contingencies statistical and financial foundations

Life contingent insurances analysis involves the calculation of statistics regarding occurrences and amounts of future cash flows. I.e., the insurance pure premium (also known as benefit premium) can be thought as the expected value of the present value of prospective benefits cash flows distribution. Prospective benefits cash flows probabilities are based on the occurrence of policyholder's life events (life contingencies). In addition, the theory of interest is used to present value such amounts that occur in the future. Therefore, life insurance actuarial mathematics grounds itself on concepts derived from demography and the theory of interest.

A life table (also called a mortality table or actuarial table) is a table that shows how mortality affects subject of a cohort across different ages. It reports for each age x, the number of l_x individuals living at the beginning of age x. It represents a sequence of $l_0, l_1, \ldots, l_\omega$, where ω, the terminal age, represents the farthest age until which a subject of the cohort can survive. Life table are typically distinguished according to gender, year of birth and nationality. Life tables are also commonly developed by line of business, assurance vs annuity for example.

Using a statistical perspective, a life table allows the probability distribution of the the future lifetime for a policyholder aged x, to be deduced. In particular, a life table allows to derive two key probability distributions: $\tilde{T}_x$, the future lifetime for a subject aged x and its curtate form, $\tilde{K}_x$, that is the number of future years completed before death. Therefore, many statistics can be derived from the life table. A non exhaustive list follows:

- ${}_tp_x = \frac{l_{x+t}}{l_x}$, the probability that a policyholder alive at age x will reach age $x+t$.
- ${}_tq_x$, the complementary probability of ${}_tp_x$.

- ${}_t d_x$, the number of deaths between age x and $x+t$.
- ${}_t L_x = \int_0^t l_{x+y} dy$, the expected number of years lived by the cohort between ages x and $x+t$.
- ${}_t m_x = \frac{{}_t d_x}{{}_t L_x}$, the central mortality rate between ages x and $x+t$.
- e_x, the curtate expectation of life for a subject aged x, $e_x = E\left[\tilde{K}_x\right] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} {}_k p_x$.

The Keyfitz textbook, Keyfitz and Caswell (2005), provides an exhaustive coverage about life table theory and practice. Life table are usually published by institutions that have access to large amount of reliable historical data, like government statistics or social security bureaus. It is a common practice for actuaries to start from these life tables and to adapt them to the insurer's portfolio actual experience.

Classical financial mathematics deals with monetary amount that could be available in different times. The present value of a series of cash flows, reported in Equation 2, is probably the most important concept. The present value can be regarded as the value in current money of a series of financial cash flows, CF_t, that are to be available in different periods of time.
The interest rate, i, represents the measure of the price of money available in future times. Parallel to the interest rate, the time value of the money can be expressed by means of discount rates, $d = \frac{i}{1+i}$. This paper will use the i symbol to express the effective compound interest, when money is invested once per period. In case money is invested more frequenty, say m times per perior, each fractional period represents the interest conversion period. During each interest conversion period, the real interest rate $\frac{i^{(m)}}{m}$ is earned, where the $i^{(m)}$ expression defines the convertible (also known as "nominal") rate of interest payable m times per period.
Equation 1 combines the various notatios for interest and discount rates, both on effective and convertible basis, to express how an amount of \$1 growths until time t.

$$A(t) = (1+i)^t = (1-d)^{-t} = v^{-t} = \left(1 + \frac{i^m}{m}\right)^{t*m} = \left(1 - \frac{d^m}{m}\right)^{-t*m} \tag{1}$$

All financial mathematics functions (such annuities, $\bar{a}_{\overline{n}|}$, or accumulated values, $s_{\overline{n}|}$) can be written as a particular case of Equation 2. See the classical Broverman (2008) textbook for further discussions on the topic.

$$PV = \sum_{t \in T} CF_t (1+i_t)^{-t} \tag{2}$$

Actuaries use the probabilities inherent the life table to evaluate life contingencies insurances. Life contingencies are themselves stochastic variables, in fact. A life contingent insurance can be represented by a series of one or more payments whose occurrence and timing, and therefore their present value, are not certain. In fact both the time and their eventual occurrence depend by events regarding the life of the policyholder (that is the reason for which they are called life contingencies). Since the actuary focuses on the present value of such uncertain payments, life contingencies insurances future payments needs to be discounted using interest rates that may be also considered stochastic. **lifecontingencies** package provides functions to model many of such random variables, $\tilde{Z}$, and in particular their expected value, the Actuarial Present Value (APV). APV is certainly the most important statistic for $\tilde{Z}$ variables that actuaries use. In fact, it represents the average cost of the benefits the insurer guarantees to policyholders. In a non - life insurance context it would be also known as pure premium. The benefit premiums plus the loading for expense, profits and taxes sum up to the gross premium that the policyholder pays. Life contingencies can be either continue or discrete. **lifecontingencies** package models only discrete life contingencies, that is insured amounts are supposed to be due at the end of each year or fraction of year. However most continuous time life contingencies insurance are easily derived from the discrete form under broad assumptions that any actuarial mathematics textbook shows.

Few examples of life contingencies follow:

1. An n-year term life insurance provides payment of \$ b, if the insured dies within n years from issue. If the payment is performed at the end of year of death, we can write $\tilde{Z}$ as $\tilde{Z} = \begin{cases} v^{K+1}, \tilde{K}_x = 0, 1, \ldots, n-1 \\ 0, \tilde{K}_x \geq n \end{cases}$ Its APV expression is $A^{1}_{x:\overline{n}|}$.

2. A life annuity consists in a sequence of benefits paid contingent upon survival of a given life. In particular, a temporary life annuity due pays a benefit at the beginning of each period so long as the annuitant aged x survives, for up to a total of n years, or n payments. We can write $\tilde{Z}$ as $\tilde{Z} = \begin{cases} \ddot{a}_{\overline{K+1}|}, \tilde{K}_x < n \\ \ddot{a}_{\overline{n}|}, \tilde{K}_x \geq n \end{cases}$. Its APV expression is $\ddot{a}_{x:\overline{n}|}$.

3. An n-year pure endowment insurance grants a benefit payable at the end of n years, if the insured survives at least n years from issue. The expression of $\tilde{Z}$ is $v^n * I\left(\tilde{K}_x \geq n\right)$. Its APV expression is $A_{x:\overline{n}|}^{\ \ 1}$.

4. A n-year endowment insurance will pay a benefit either at the earlier of the year of death or the end of the n-th year, whichever occurs earlier. We can write $\tilde{Z}$ as $\tilde{Z} = \begin{cases} v^{K+1}, \tilde{K}_x = 0, 1, \ldots, n-1 \\ v^n, \tilde{K}_x \geq n \end{cases}$. Its APV expression is $A_{x:\overline{n}|}$.

Interested readers could see the Bowers *et al.* (1997) or **?** textbooks for formulas regarding other life contingent insurances as $(DA)^{1}_{x:\overline{n}|}$, the decreasing term life insurance, $(IA)^{1}_{x:\overline{n}|}$, the increasing term life insurance, and common variations on payment form arrangements like deferment and fractional payments. Similarly it is possible to define insurances and annuities depending on the survival status of two or more lives. A_{xy} and $\bar{a}_{\overline{xy}}$ represent respectively the two lives joint-live insurance and the two lives last-survivor annuity immediate APVs.

The **lifecontingencies** package provides functions that allows the actuary to perform classical financial and actuarial mathematics calculations. In addition to standard deterministic modeling, a peculiar feature of **lifecontingencies** is that it allows to compute the present value of future benefits stochastic distribution, $\tilde{Z}$, for most life contingent insurances that allows extensive statistical analyses to be performed.

3. The structure of the package

Package **lifecontingencies** contains classes and methods to handle life-tables and actuarial tables conveniently.

The package is loaded within the R command line as it follows:

```
R> library("lifecontingencies")
```

Two main S4 classes, Chambers (2008), have been defined within the **lifecontingencies** package: the `lifetable` class and the `actuarialtable` class. The lifetable class is defined as follows

```
R> showClass("lifetable")
```

```
Class "lifetable" [in ".GlobalEnv"]

Slots:

Name:          x        lx      name
Class:   numeric   numeric character

Known Subclasses: "actuarialtable"
```

Class `actuarialtable` inherits from `lifetable` class being different from `lifetable` class by one more slot for the interest rate.

```
R> showClass("actuarialtable")
```

```
Class "actuarialtable" [in ".GlobalEnv"]

Slots:

Name:   interest         x        lx      name
Class:   numeric   numeric   numeric character

Extends: "lifetable"
```

Beyond generic `S4` classes and methods there are functions that permit the computation of financial, demographic and actuarial quantities. Subsequent sections briefly present such functions by the aid of applied examples. Table 1 shows the naming convention for commont input parameters used in **lifecontingencies** package functions.

4. Code and examples

parameter	significance
`x`	the policyholder's age.
`n`	the coverage duration or payment duration.
`i`	interest rate, that could be varying.
`k`	the frequency of payments.

Table 1: **lifecontingencies** functions parameters naming conventions.

The example secton of this paper is structured as follows: Section 4.1 deals with classical financial mathematics, Section 4.2 deals with life tables and actuarial tables management, Section 4.3 deals with classical actuarial mathematics while Section 4.4 presents the **lifecontingencies** packages functions to perform simulation analysis.

4.1. Classical financial mathematics example

function	purpose
`presentValue`	present value for a series of cash flows.
`annuity`	present value of a annuity - certain, $a_{\overline{n}\rceil}$.
`accumulatedValue`	future value of a series of cash flows, $s_{\overline{n}\rceil}$.
`increasingAnnuity`	present value of an increasing annuity - certain, IA_n.
`decreasingAnnuity`	present value of a decreasing annuity, $DA_{\overline{n}\rceil}$.
`convertible2Effective`	conversion from convertible to effective interest (discount) rates.
`effective2Convertible`	`convertible2Effective` inverse.
`intensity2Interest`	conversion to intensity of interest from the interest rate.
`interest2Intensity`	`intensity2Interest` inverse.
`duration`	dollar / Macaulay duration of a series of cash flows.
`convexity`	convexity of a series of cash flows.

Table 2: **lifecontingencies** functions for financial mathematics.

The **lifecontingencies** package provides functions to perform classical financial mathematics calculations. Table 2 lists financial mathematics functions.
Some of these implements closed form formulas and their inverses as shown in financial mathematics textbooks. A broader discussion, however, should be devoted to `presentValue` function since it is internally called by many financial and actuarial functions. `presentValue` function calculates present value or APVs by calculating $\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i * v^{t_i} * p_i$ after having performed some checks, where the terms in the sum represent the cash flows, c_i, the corresponding discount factors, v^{t_i} and the occurrence probabilities, p_i. Many **lifecontingencies** package functions, like `axn` of `annuity`, work by defining the cash flows, interest rate and probabilities (in case of actuarial functions) patterns vectors, that are passed as arguments to `presentValue` function.

Examples that follows show how to handle interest and discount rates with different compounding frequency, how to perform present value, annuities and future values analysis calculations as long as loans amortization and bond pricing.

Interest rate functions

Interest rates represent the time - value of the money. Different types of rates can be found in literature. As a remark, Equation 3 displays the relationship between effective interest rate, convertible interest rate, discount factor, force of interest, effective discount rate and convertible discount rate.

$$(1+i)^t = \left(1+\frac{i^{(m)}}{m}\right)^t = v^{-t} = \exp(\delta t) = (1-d)^{-t} = \left(1-\frac{d^{(m)}}{m}\right)^{-t} \tag{3}$$

Functions `interest2Discount`, `discount2Interest`, `convertible2Effective`, `effective2Convertible`, `interest2Intensity`, `intensity2Interest` have been based on Equation 3 and inverse formulas implied therein. Throughout the paper the interest rate used is deemed effective interest rate unless otherwise stated.

As examples, functions `interest2Discount` and `discount2Interest` represent a convenient way to switch from interest to discount rates and conversely.

```
R> interest2Discount(0.03)

[1] 0.02912621

R> discount2Interest(interest2Discount(0.03))

[1] 0.03
```

Function `convertible2Effective` can help to evaluate what is the effective interest rate implied in a consumer - credit loan that offers 10% convertible (nominal) interest rate with quarterly compounding.

```
R> convertible2Effective(i=0.10,4)

[1] 0.1038129
```

Present value and internal rate of return analysis

Performing a project appraisal means evaluating the net present value (NPV) of all projected cash flows. Code below shows an example of NPV analysis.

```
R> capitals=c(-1000,200,500,700)
R> times=c(0,1,2,5)
R> presentValue(cashFlows=capitals, timeIds=times,interestRates=0.03)

[1] 269.2989
```

Finally both interest rate varies and cash flows are uncertain the `probabilities` parameter can be properly set as following example displays.

```
R> presentValue(cashFlows=capitals, timeIds=times,
+  interestRates=c( 0.04, 0.02, 0.03, 0.05),
+  probabilities=c(1,1,1,0.5))

[1] -58.38946
```

The internal rate of return (IRR) is defined as the interest rate that makes the NPV zero. It is an alternative to NPV to rank projects according to timing and amount of their cash flows. The following example displays how to compute IRR using **lifecontingencies** package and R base functions.

```
R> getIrr<-function(p) (presentValue(cashFlows=capitals, timeIds=times,
+  interestRates=p) - 0)^2
R> nlm(f=getIrr,p=0.1)$estimate

[1] 0.1105091
```

Annuities and future values

An annuity (certain) is a sequence of payments with specified amount that is present - value, while when it is valued at the end of the term of payment is is called future values. Code below shows examples of annuities, $a_{\overline{n}|}$, and accumulated values, $s_{\overline{n}|}$, evaluations.
The PV of an annuity immediate \$100 payable at the end of next 5 years at 3% is

```
R> 100*annuity(i=0.03,n=5)

[1] 457.9707
```

while the corresponding future value is

```
R> 100*accumulatedValue(i=0.03,n=5)

[1] 530.9136
```

Annuities and future values payable k-thly (where fractional payments of $1/k$ are received for each k-th of period) can be evaluated properly setting the functions' parameters.

```
R> ann1<-annuity(i=0.03,n=5,k=1,type="immediate")
R> ann2<-annuity(i=0.03,n=5,k=12,type="immediate")
R> c(ann1,ann2)

[1] 4.579707 4.642342
```

`increasingAnnuity` and `decreasingAnnuity` functions handle increasing and decreasing annuities, whose APV symbols are IA_x, DA_x respectively. Assuming a ten years term and a 3% interest rate, examples of increasing and decreasing annuities follow.

```
R> incrAnn<-increasingAnnuity(i=0.03, n=10,type="due")
R> decrAnn<-decreasingAnnuity(i=0.03, n=10,type="immediate")
R> c(incrAnn, decrAnn)

[1] 46.18416 48.99324
```

The last example within this section exemplifies the calculation of the present value of a geometrically increasing annuity. If amounts increase by 3% and the interest rate is 4% and its term is 10 years, the implied present value is

```
R> annuity(i=((1+0.04)/(1+0.03)-1),n=10)

[1] 9.48612
```

Loan amortization

lifecontingencies financial mathematics functions allow to define the repayments schedule of any loan arrangement, as this section exemplifies. Let C denote the loaned capital (principal), then assuming an interest rate i, the amount due to the lender at each installment is $R = \frac{C}{a_{\overline{n}|}}$. Therefore the R_t amount repays $I_t = C_{t-1} * i$ as interest and $C_t = R_t - I_t$ as capital at each installment. The loan installment, R, is initially estimated as follows

```
R> capital=100000
R> interest=0.05
R> payments_per_year=2
R> rate_per_period=(1+interest)^(1/payments_per_year)-1
R> years=30
R> R=
+  1/payments_per_year*capital/annuity(i=interest,
+  n=years,k=payments_per_year)
R> R

[1] 3212.9
```

then the balance due at end of period (EoP) is calculated as follows

```
R> balanceDue=numeric(years*payments_per_year)
R> balanceDue[1]=capital*(1+rate_per_period)-R
R> for(i in 2:length(balanceDue)) balanceDue[i]=
+    balanceDue[i-1]*(1+rate_per_period)-R
```

Figure 1 shows the EoP balance due for a 30 - years duration loan, assuming a 5% interest rate on a principal of $ 100,000.

Bond pricing

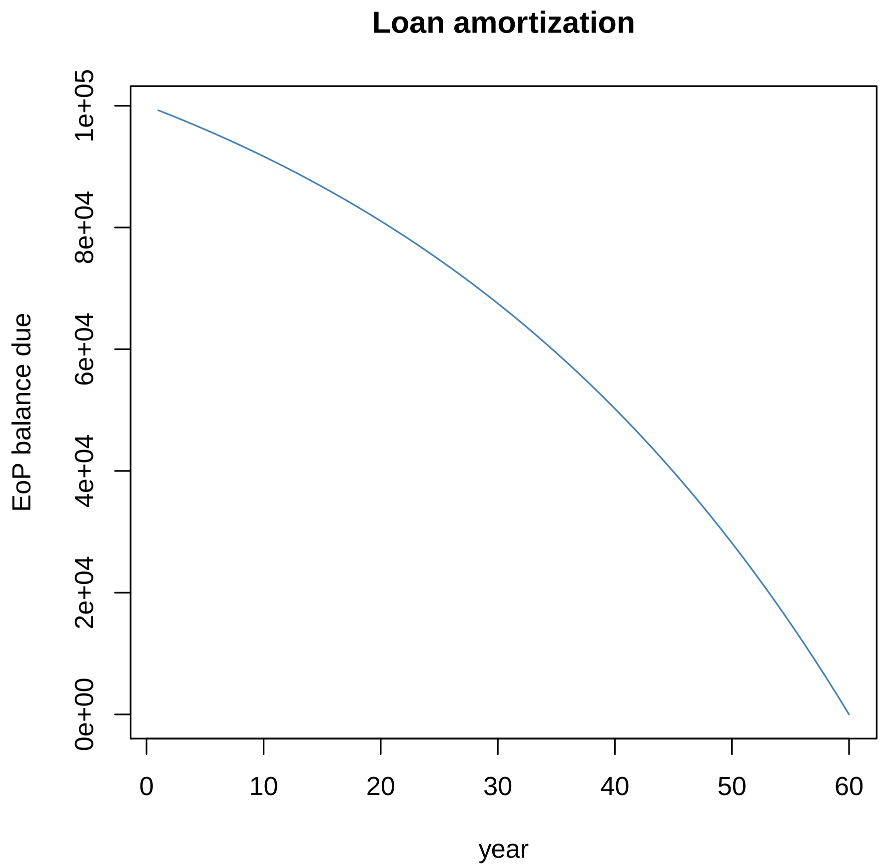

Figure 1: Loan amortization: EoP balance due.

Bond pricing represents another application of present value analysis. A standard bond whose face value C will be repaid at time T consists in a sequence of equal coupons c_t paid at regular intervals and a final payment of $C_T + c_T$. Equation 4 expresses the present value of a bond.

$$B_t = c_t a^{(k)}{}_{\overline{n|}} + Cv^T \tag{4}$$

Perpetuities are financial contracts that offers an indefinite sequence of payments either at the end (perpetuity-immediate) or at the beginning of the period (perpetuity-due).

Following examples show how **lifecontingencies** package elementary functions can be combined to price bond and perpetuities.

```
R> bond<-function(faceValue, couponRate, couponsPerYear, yield,maturity)
+ {
+         out=NULL
+         numberOfCF=maturity*couponsPerYear
+         CFs=numeric(numberOfCF)
+         payments=couponRate*faceValue/couponsPerYear
+         cf=payments*rep(1,numberOfCF)
+         cf[numberOfCF]=faceValue+payments
+         times=seq.int(from=1/couponsPerYear, to=maturity,
+                 by=maturity/numberOfCF)
+         out=presentValue(cashFlows=cf, interestRates=yield,
+                    timeIds=times)
+         return(out)
+ }
R> perpetuity<-function(yield, immediate=TRUE)
+ {
+         out=NULL
+         out=1/yield
+         out=ifelse(immediate==TRUE,out,out*(1+yield))
+         return(out)
+ }
R>
```

`bond` and `perpetuity` functions defined above can be used to price any bond, given face value, coupon rate and term, as code show displays.

```
R> bndEx1<-bond(1000,0.06,2,0.05,3)
R> bndEx2<-bond(1000,0.06,2,0.06,3)
R> ppTy1<-perpetuity(0.1)
R> c(bndEx1, bndEx2,ppTy1)

[1] 1029.250 1002.371   10.000
```

Duration and ALM

Duration and convexity formulas are reported in Equation 5 and Equation 6 respectively. Their typical application lies within porfolios' asset - liability management (ALM). The interested reader could find details on Chris Ruckman and Joe Francis (2006). However, the example that follow shows how Macaulay duration (`ex1`), modified duration (`ex2`) and convexity (`ex3`) of any series of cash flows can be estimated by **lifecontingencies** package functions.

$$D = \sum_t^T \frac{t * CF_t \left(1 + \frac{i}{m}\right)^{-t*m}}{P} \tag{5}$$

$$C = \sum_t^T t * \left(t + \frac{1}{m}\right) * CF_t \left(1 + \frac{y}{m}\right)^{-m*t-2} \tag{6}$$

```
R> cashFlows=c(100,100,100,600,500,700)
R> timeVector=seq(1:6)
R> interestRate=0.03
R> ex1<-duration(cashFlows=cashFlows, timeIds=timeVector,
+                    i=interestRate, k = 1, macaulay = TRUE)
R> ex2<-duration(cashFlows=cashFlows, timeIds=timeVector,
+                    i=interestRate, k = 1, macaulay = FALSE)
R> ex3<-convexity(cashFlows=cashFlows, timeIds=timeVector,
+                    i=interestRate, k = 1)
R> c(ex1,ex2,ex3)

[1]  4.430218  4.563124 25.746469
```

The last example works out a small ALM problem. Suppose an insurance company has sold a guarantee term certificate (GTC) of face value \$ 10,000, that will mature in 7 years at a 5% interest rate. Its final value would be:

```
R> GTCFin=presentValue(cashFlows = 10000,timeIds = 7,interestRates = 0.05)
R> GTCFin

[1] 7106.813
```

Imagine the company can hedge its liability with two investment instruments:

1. A five year bond, with face value of 100 yearly coupon with coupon rate of 3%.
2. A perpetuity-immediate. As a remark, the formulas for the PV and Duration of the perpetuity immediate are $\frac{1}{y}$ and $\frac{1+y}{y}$ respectively when the yield is y.

Assume the issuing company wants to hedge its liability with a portfolio that is not adversely affected by changes in the investment yield. In order to solve the ALM problem the composition of assets within the porfolio shall be properly chosen. Following lines of code figure out some parameters that are used within the example.

```
R> yieldT0=0.04
R> durLiab=7
R> pvLiab=GTCFin/(1+yieldT0)^7
R> convLiab=convexity(cashFlows=c(GTCFin),timeIds=c(7),i=yieldT0)
R> pvBond=bond(100,0.03,1,yieldT0,5)
R> durBond=duration(cashFlows=c(3,3,3,3,103),timeIds=seq(1,5),i=yieldT0)
R> convBond=convexity(cashFlows=c(3,3,3,3,103),timeIds=seq(1,5),i=yieldT0)
R> pvPpty=perpetuity(yieldT0)
R> durPpty=(1+yieldT0)/yieldT0
R> covnPpty=2/(yieldT0^2)
```

As a remark, the duration and the convexity of a perpetuity has been calculated using $\frac{1+y}{y}$ and $\frac{2}{y}^2$ formulas respectively. Then the ALM problem is set out in a three steps problem, Chris Ruckman and Joe Francis (2006):

1. setting initial the present value of cash inflows (assets) to be equal to the present value of cash outflows (liabilities).
2. setting the interest rate sensitivity (i.e., the duration) of asset to be equal to the interesr rate sensitivity of liabilities.
3. setting the convexity of asset to be greater than the convexity of liabilities. In other word, this means verifying that assets decline (growth) to be slow (faster) than liability decline in case of changing interest rate.

Following lines of code calculate the asset weights vector by linear algebra functions bundled in R base.

```
R> a=matrix(c(durBond, durPpty,1,1),nrow=2,byrow=TRUE)
R> b=as.vector(c(7,1))
R> weights=solve(a,b)
R> weights

[1] 0.8848879 0.1151121
```

Vector `weights` displays the portfolio composition in term of bonds and liabilities respectively. Therefore the number of bonds and perpetuities that can be purchased is determined by

```
R> bondNum=weights[1]*pvLiab/pvBond
R> pptyNum=weights[2]*pvLiab/pvPpty
R> bondNum

[1] 50.01582

R> pptyNum

[1] 24.86694
```

It can be verified that the assets convexity is greater than liabilities convexity.

```
R> convAsset=weights[1]*convBond+weights[2]*covnPpty
R> convAsset>convLiab

[1] TRUE
```

The portfolio is immunized from yield rate variations since if interest rates suddently drops to 3% just after the hedging assets purchase, the present value of assets comes to be greater than the present value of liabilities. The same occurs in case of upward shift of interest rates toward 5%.

```
R> yieldT1low=0.03
R> immunizationTestLow<-(bondNum*bond(100,0.03,1,yieldT1low,5)+
+                          pptyNum*perpetuity(yieldT1low)>GTCFin/(1+yieldT1low)^7)
R> yieldT1high=0.05
R> immunizationTestHigh<-(bondNum*bond(100,0.03,1,yieldT1high,5)+
+                          pptyNum*perpetuity(yieldT1high)>GTCFin/(1+yieldT1high)^7)
R> immunizationTestLow

[1] TRUE

R> immunizationTestHigh

[1] TRUE
```

It is worth to remember that the assets allocation within the portfolio should be rebalanced as time goes by, since portfolio's duration and convexity change as time flows.

4.2. Life tables and actuarial tables analysis

function	purpose
`dxt`	deaths between age x and $x+t$, ${}_td_x$.
`pxt`	survival probability between age x and $x+t$, ${}_tp_x$.
`pxyzt`	survival probability for two (or more) lives, ${}_tp_{xy}$.
`qxt`	death probability between age x and $x+t$, ${}_tq_x$.
`qxyzt`	death probability for two (or more) lives, ${}_tq_{xy}$.
`Txt`	number of person-years lived after exact age x, ${}_tT_x$.
`mxt`	central death rate, ${}_tm_x$.
`exn`	expected lifetime between age x and age $x+n$, ${}_ne_x$.
`rLife`	sample from the time until death distribution underlying a life table.
`rLifexyz`	sample from the time until death distribution underlying two or more life.
`exyz`	n-year curtate lifetime of the joint-life status.
`probs2lifetable`	life table l_x from raw one - year survival / death probabilities.

Table 3: **lifecontingencies** functions for demographic analysis.

`lifetable` and `actuarialtable` classes are designed to handle demographic and actuarial mathematics calculations. A `actuarialtable` class inherits from `lifetable` class. It has one more slot dedicated to the rate of interest. Both classes have been designed using the `S4` `R` classes framework.
Table 3 lists the functions that have been developed to perform demographich analysis with **lifecontingencies** package, that this section briefly exemplifies.

Creating lifetable and actuarialtable objects

Life table objects can be created by raw `R` commands or using existing `data.frame` objects. However, to build a `lifetable` class object three components are needed:

1. The years sequence, that is an integer sequence $0, 1, \dots, \omega$. It shall start from zero and going to ω, the terminal age (the age x for which $p_x = 0$).
2. The l_x vector, that is the number of subjects living at the beginning of age x, in other words, the number of subject at risk to die between year x and $x+1$.
3. The name of the life table.

There are three main approaches to create a `lifetable` object:

1. directly from the x and l_x vector.
2. importing x and l_x from an existing `data.frame` object.
3. from raw survival probabilities.

To create a `lifetable` object directly we can do as code below shows

```
R> x_example=seq(from=0,to=9, by=1)
R> lx_example=c(1000,950,850,700,680,600,550,400,200,50)
R> exampleLt=new("lifetable",x=x_example, lx=lx_example, name="example lifetable")
```

while `print` and `show` methods tabulate the x, l_x, ${}_tp_x$ and e_x values for a given life table.

```
R> print(exampleLt)

Life table example lifetable

  x   lx        px       ex
1 0 1000 0.9500000 4.980000
2 1  950 0.8947368 4.242105
3 2  850 0.8235294 3.741176
4 3  700 0.9714286 3.542857
5 4  680 0.8823529 2.647059
6 5  600 0.9166667 2.000000
7 6  550 0.7272727 1.181818
8 7  400 0.5000000 0.625000
9 8  200 0.2500000 0.250000
```

`head` and `tail` methods for `data.frame` S3 classes have also been implemented on `lifetable` classes

```
R> head(exampleLt)

  x   lx
1 0 1000
2 1  950
3 2  850
4 3  700
5 4  680
6 5  600
```

Nevertheless the easiest way to create a `lifetable` object is to start from a suitable existing `data.frame`. This will be probably the most practical approach for working actuaries. Some tables or mortality rates have been bundled within **lifecontingencies** package, as Table 4 displays.

The following example shows how the US Social Security life tables are loaded from the existing `demoUsa` data set bundled in the **lifecontingencies** package.

```
R> data("demoUsa")
R> data("demoIta")
R> usaMale07=demoUsa[,c("age", "USSS2007M")]
R> usaMale00=demoUsa[,c("age", "USSS2000M")]
R> names(usaMale07)=c("x","lx")
R> names(usaMale00)=c("x","lx")
R> usaMale07Lt<-as(usaMale07,"lifetable")
R> usaMale07Lt@name="USA MALES 2007"
R> usaMale00Lt<-as(usaMale00,"lifetable")
R> usaMale00Lt@name="USA MALES 2000"
```

data set	description
AF92Lt	UK AF92 life table.
AM92Lt	UK AF92 life table.
demoChina	China mortality rates from SOA website.
demoIta	Various Italian life tables including RG48 and IPS55 projected tables.
demoJapan	Japan mortality rates from SOA website.
demoUsa	US Social Security life tables.
demoFrance	1990 and 2002 French life tables.
soa08	SOA illustrative life table.
soa08Act	SOA illustrative actuarial table at 6%.

Table 4: **lifecontingencies** bundled life tables.

The same operation can be performed on IPS55 tables bundled in the `demoIta` data set. The purpose of following example is to stress that it is important a clean l_x series to be given in input to the coerce method. A "clean" l_x series means that neither 0 nor missing values are present anywhere and the l_x series to be decreasing.

```
R> lxIPS55M<-with(demoIta, IPS55M)
R> pos2Remove<-which(lxIPS55M %in% c(0,NA))
R> lxIPS55M<-lxIPS55M[-pos2Remove]
R> xIPS55M<-seq(0,length(lxIPS55M)-1,1)
R> ips55M=new("lifetable",x=xIPS55M, lx=lxIPS55M,
+                   name="IPS 55 Males")
R> lxIPS55F<-with(demoIta, IPS55F)
R> pos2Remove<-which(lxIPS55F %in% c(0,NA))
R> lxIPS55F<-lxIPS55F[-pos2Remove]
R> xIPS55F<-seq(0,length(lxIPS55F)-1,1)
R> ips55F=new("lifetable",x=xIPS55F, lx=lxIPS55F,
+                   name="IPS 55 Females")
```

The last way a `lifetable` object can be created is from one year survival or death probabilities combining the `probs2lifetable` function and `as.data.frame` coerce methods. Two potential benefits arise from this function. A first benefit lies in the use of a mortality projection method results (e.g., the Lee - Carter method, Lee and Carter (1992)). Lee - Carter method allow to vary mortality table by cohort of birth, making therefore possible to project demographic quantities as a function of year of birth.
A second one lies in the creation of "cut-down" mortality tables. This latter application is exemplified in the code line that follows, where a `itaM2002reduced` life table is obtained cutting down the one - year mortality rates of Italian males aged between 20 and 60 to 20% of its original value.

```
R> data("demoIta")
R> itaM2002<-demoIta[,c("X","SIM92")]
R> names(itaM2002)=c("x","lx")
R> itaM2002Lt<-as(itaM2002,"lifetable")
```

```
removing NA and 0s
```

```
R> itaM2002Lt@name="IT 2002 Males"
R> itaM2002<-as(itaM2002Lt,"data.frame")
R> itaM2002$qx<-1-itaM2002$px
R> for(i in 20:60) itaM2002$qx[itaM2002$x==i]=0.2*itaM2002$qx[itaM2002$x==i]
R> itaM2002reduced<-probs2lifetable(probs=itaM2002[,"qx"], radix=100000,
+                   type="qx",name="IT 2002 Males reduced")
```

An `actuarialtable` can be easily created from a `lifetable` existing object.

```
R> exampleAct=new("actuarialtable",x=exampleLt@x, lx=exampleLt@lx,
+  interest=0.03, name="example actuarialtable")
```

Method `getOmega` returns the terminal age, ω when applied either on `actuarialtable` or `lifetable` classes.

```
R> getOmega(exampleAct)
```

```
[1] 9
```

Method `print` behaves differently between `lifetable` objects and `actuarialtable` objects. In fact, one year survival probability and complete expected remaining life until deaths are reported when `print` method is applied on a `lifetable` object. Classical commutation functions, discussed further, can be printed out. The application of `print` method on an `actuarialtable` object tabulates D_x, N_x, C_x, M_x, R_x for each age $x = 0, 1, \ldots, \omega - 1, \omega$.

```
R> print(exampleLt)
```

```
Life table example lifetable

  x   lx        px       ex
1 0 1000 0.9500000 4.980000
2 1  950 0.8947368 4.242105
3 2  850 0.8235294 3.741176
4 3  700 0.9714286 3.542857
5 4  680 0.8823529 2.647059
6 5  600 0.9166667 2.000000
7 6  550 0.7272727 1.181818
8 7  400 0.5000000 0.625000
9 8  200 0.2500000 0.250000
```

```
R> print(exampleAct)
```

```
Actuarial table  example actuarialtable interest rate  3 %

   x   lx         Dx         Nx        Cx       Mx        Rx
1  0 1000 1000.00000 5467.92787  48.54369 840.7400 4839.7548
2  1  950  922.33010 4467.92787  94.25959 792.1963 3999.0148
3  2  850  801.20652 3545.59778 137.27125 697.9367 3206.8185
4  3  700  640.59916 2744.39125  17.76974 560.6654 2508.8819
5  4  680  604.17119 2103.79209  69.00870 542.8957 1948.2164
6  5  600  517.56527 1499.62090  41.87421 473.8870 1405.3207
7  6  550  460.61634  982.05563 121.96373 432.0128  931.4337
8  7  400  325.23660  521.43929 157.88185 310.0491  499.4210
9  8  200  157.88185  196.20268 114.96251 152.1672  189.3719
10 9   50   38.32084   38.32084  37.20470  37.2047   37.2047
```

It is possible to convert the `actuarialtable` object int a `data.frame`, as shown below.

```
R> exampleActDf=as(exampleAct, "data.frame")
```

Finally a `plot` method can be applied to a `lifetable` or `actuarialtable` object. The underlying survival function (that is the plot of x vs l_x) is displayed in both cases. Figure 2 shows the `plot` methods applied on the Society of Actuaries (SOA) actuarial object, `soa08Act`, bundled in the **lifecontingencies** package.

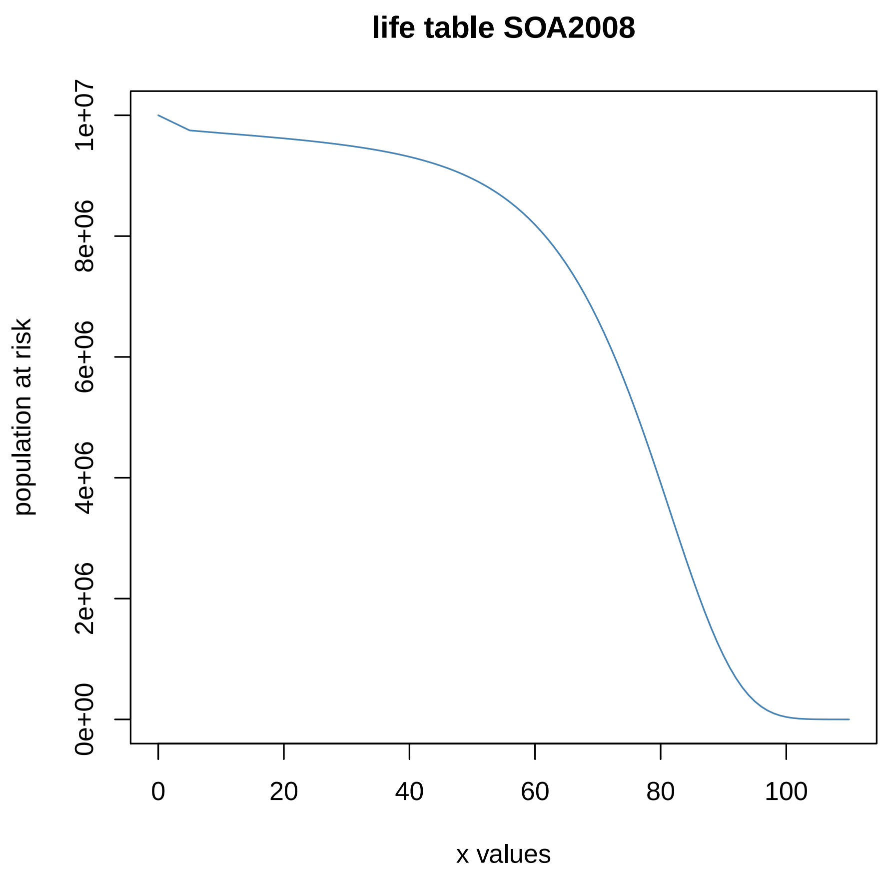

Figure 2: SOA illustrative life table underlying survival function.

Basic demographic analysis

Basic demographic estimations can be performed on valid `lifetable` or `actuariatable` objects. All functions discussed in this sections works with `lifetable` objects calculating proper ratios or sums on l_x as required by demographic formulas.

Code below shows how ${}_1p_{20}$, ${}_2q_{30}$ and $\mathring{e}_{50:\overline{20}|}$ respectively can be calculated on the IPS55 male population table

```
R> demoEx1<-pxt(ips55M,20,1)
R> demoEx2<-qxt(ips55M,30,2)
R> demoEx3<-exn(ips55M, 50,20,"complete")
R> c(demoEx1,demoEx2,demoEx3)

[1]  0.999595096  0.001332031 19.472765230
```

Fractional survival probabilities can also be calculated using the linear interpolation (`pxtLin`), constant force of mortality (`pxtCnst`) and hyperbolic Balducci's assumptions (`pxtHyph`), as Bowers *et al.* (1997) textbook details. We will show these concepts on the SOA illustrative life table, assuming insured age to be 80 years old.

```
R> data("soa08Act")
R> pxtLin=pxt(soa08Act,80,0.5,"linear")
R> pxtCnst=pxt(soa08Act,80,0.5,"constant force")
R> pxtHyph=pxt(soa08Act,80,0.5,"hyperbolic")
R> c(pxtLin,pxtCnst,pxtHyph)

[1] 0.9598496 0.9590094 0.9581701
```

Survival probabilities calculations on two lives can be performed also. As a remark, two life status are defined until multiple lives survival analysis: "joint" survival status and "last" survival status. The "joint" survival status exists until all the members are alive, while the "last" survival status exists until at least one member survives. Equation 7 defines the time until death under the joint and last survival status respectively. Lifes are modelled independently.

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{T}_{xy} &= \min\left(T_x, T_y\right) \\ \tilde{T}_{\bar{x}\bar{y}} &= \max\left(T_x, T_y\right) \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

Following code lines show how joint survival probabilities (`jps`), last survival probabilities (`lsp`) and expected joint lifetime (`jelt`) can be evaluated using **lifecontingencies** functions.

```
R> tablesList=list(ips55M,ips55F)
R> jsp=pxyzt(tablesList,x=c(65,63), t=2)
R> lsp=pxyzt(tablesList,x=c(65,63), t=2,status="last")
R> jelt=exyzt(tablesList,x=c(65,63), status="joint")
R> c(jsp,lsp,jelt)
```

```
[1]  0.9813187  0.9999275 19.1982972
```

4.3. Classical actuarial mathematics examples

function	purpose
`Axn`	one life insurance
`AExn`	the n-year endowment
`Axyzn`	two lives life insurances
`axn`	one life annuity
`axyzn`	two lives annuities
`Exn`	pure endowment
`Iaxn`	increasing annuity
`IAxn`	increasing life insurance
`DAxn`	decreasing life insurance
`rLifeContingencies`	sample from the $\tilde{Z}$ distribution underlying a life contingent insurance.
`rLifeContingenciesXyz`	sample from the $\tilde{Z}$ distribution underlying a life contingent insurance on multi

Table 5: **lifecontingencies** functions for actuarial mathematics.

Table 5 lists the function contained in **lifecontingencies** example that allow the user to perform classical actuarial mathematics calculations. A selection of example follows, where the SOA illustrative life table at 6% interest rates will be used, unless otherwise stated.

Life insurance examples

The evaluation of the APV has traditionally followed three approaches: the use of commutation tables, the current payment technique and the expected value techniques.
Commutation tables extend life table by tabulating special functions of age and rate of interest, as Anderson (1999) paper deepens. Ratios of commutation table functions allow the actuary to evaluate APV for standard insurances. However, commutation table usage has become less important in computer era. In fact they are not enough flexible and their usage is computationally inefficient. Therefore, commutation table approach has not been used within **lifecontingencies** package to evaluate APVs.
The current payment technique calculates the APV of a life contingency insurance, $\bar{Z}$, as the scalar product of three vectors: $\bar{Z} = \langle\langle\bar{c} \bullet \bar{v}\rangle \bullet \bar{p}\rangle$. The vector of all possible uncertain cash flows, $\bar{c}$, the vector of discount factors, $\bar{v}$ and the vector of cash flow probability, $\bar{p}$. Since the current payment technique is the the most efficient approach from a computationally side perspective, we have used this approach to evaluate APV. Finally, the expected value approach models $\bar{z}$ as the scalar product of two vector: $\bar{z} = \langle \bar{pk} \bullet \bar{x}\rangle$. $\bar{pk}$ is $Pr\left[\tilde{K} = k\right]$, that is the probability that the future curtate lifetime to be exactly k years, $\bar{x}$ is the present value of benefits due under the policy term if $\tilde{K} = k$. The latter approach has been used to define the probability distribution of the life contingency $\tilde{Z}$ when performing stochastic analyses.
An example will better clarify the concepts exposed. Consider an annuity due lasting n years. Its APV, $\ddot{a}_{x:\overline{n}|}$, using the commutation tables approach is reported in Equation 8, while Equation 9 reports the APV using the current payment technique. Finally, Equation 10 calculates

the APV using the expected value approach.

$$APV = \frac{N_x - N_{x+n}}{D_x} \tag{8}$$

$$APV = \sum_{k=0}^{\min(\omega-x,n)} {}_kp_x * v^k \tag{9}$$

$$APV = \sum_{k=0}^{\omega-x} \Pr\left[\tilde{K}_x = k\right] * \ddot{a}_{\overline{\min(k,n)}|} \tag{10}$$

The algorithm is better understood looking closer to `axn` function core. `axn` function takes following parameter as input: `n`, the term of the annuity, `k` the fractional payment frequency, x the annuitant age and m, the deferring period.

1. The vector of possible payments, $\bar{c}$, is defined as following line of code shows

```
payments=rep(1/k,n*k)
```

2. The vector timing of payments is defined as following line of code shows

```
times=m+seq(from=0, to=(n-1/k),by=1/k)
```

3. The vector of payment probability, $\bar{p}$ is defined as following line of code shows

```
for(i in 1:length(times)) probs[i]=pxt(actuarialtable, x,times[i])
```

4. Finally the three vectors are passed as input parameters to `presentValue` function as following line of code shows

```
presentValue(cashFlows=payments, timeIds=times, interestRates=interest,
probabilities=probs)
```

Examples within this section make use of SOA illustrative actuarial table unless otherwise stated.
The first example values a 40-year term insurance on a policyholder aged 25, with benefits payable at the end of the month of death. Equation 11 would determine the net premium using the commutation table approach.

$$U = \frac{M_{25} - M_{65}}{D_{65}} \frac{i}{i^{(12)}} \tag{11}$$

Following lines of code compute the benefit premium using both the commutation, `UComm`, and the current payment technique, `UCpt`.

```
R> data(soa08Act)
R> UComm=Axn(actuarialtable=soa08Act, x=25, n=65-25,k=12)
R> UCpt=((soa08ActDf$Mx[26]-soa08ActDf$Mx[66])/soa08ActDf$Dx[26])*0.06/real2Nominal(i=0.06
R> c(UComm,UCpt)
```

```
[1] 0.04927622 0.04927622
```

Assume that instead of being paid in a lump sum, the premium is paid in ten equal installments at the beginning of each year the policyholder is alive. The yearly premium, `P`, is determined as follows.

```
R> P=UCpt/axn(actuarialtable=soa08Act,x=25,n=10)
R> P
```

```
[1] 0.006351049
```

lifecontingencies allows to evaluate APVs of endowment insurances as well as increasing and decreasing life insurances. The code lines that follow will computationally prove the actuarial equivalence expressed in Equation 12.

$$(n+1) * A^{1}_{x:\overline{n}|} = (DA)^{1}_{x:\overline{n}|} + (IA)^{1}_{x:\overline{n}|} \tag{12}$$

```
R> (10 + 1 ) *Axn(soa08Act, 25,10)
```

```
[1] 0.1194393
```

```
R> DAxn(soa08Act, 25,10)+IAxn(soa08Act, 25,10)
```

```
[1] 0.1194393
```

Life annuities examples

Life contingent annuities consist in sequences of payments whose occurrence and duration depend on future policyholder's lifetime. Few examples follows, showing how **lifecontingencies** package can easily compute APV for the typical life contingent annuities insurances directly using bundled functions as well as using the classical commutation table approach.

Equation 13 expresses the full premium for a ten-year deferred annuity due for a policyholder aged 75 by means of commutation functions.

$$U = {}_{10|}\ddot{a}_{75} = \frac{N_{85}}{D_{75}} \tag{13}$$

```
R> UCpt=axn(actuarialtable=soa08Act,x=75,m=10)
R> UComm=with(soa08ActDf,Nx[86]/Dx[76])
R> c(UCpt,UComm)
```

```
[1] 1.146484 1.146484
```

If the annuity is paid by means of 5 annual payments, as long as the insured is alive, Equation 13 would be rewritten as Equation 14.

$$ {}_5\bar{P}({}_{10|}\ddot{a}_{75}) = \frac{{}_{10|}\ddot{a}_{75}}{\ddot{a}_{75:\overline{5}|}} \tag{14} $$

```
R> P=axn(actuarialtable=soa08Act,x=75,m=10)/axn(actuarialtable=soa08Act,x=75,n=5)
R> P

[1] 0.2854726
```

If amounts of $\frac{1}{m}$ were paid at the beginning of each month, the APV of the annuty would be $U = {}_{10|}\ddot{a}^{(12)}_{75}$.

```
R> U=axn(actuarialtable=soa08Act,x=75,m=10,k=12)
R> P=axn(actuarialtable=soa08Act,x=75,m=10,k=12)/axn(actuarialtable=soa08Act,x=75,n=5)
R> c(U,P)

[1] 1.0325685 0.2571079
```

Benefit reserves examples

The (prospective) benefit reserve consists in the difference between the APV of future insurers' benefits payments obligations and the APV of projected inflows (remaining scheduled premiums). It represents the outstanding insurer's obligation to the policyholder for the underwritten insurance policy. An example will better exemplify this concept.
We will evaluate the benefit reserve for a 25 years old 40 years duration life insurance of \$ 100,000, with benefits payable at the end of year of death, with level benefit premium payable at the beginning of each year. Assume 3% of interest rate and SOA life table to apply.
The benefit premium and reserve equations for this life contingency insurance are displayed in Equation 15.

$$ \begin{aligned} P\ddot{a}_{25:\overline{40}|} &= 100000 A^{1}_{25:\overline{40}|} \\ {}_tV^{1}_{25+t:\overline{n-t}|} &= 100000 A^{1}_{25+t:\overline{40-t}|} - P\ddot{a}_{25+t:\overline{40-t}|} \end{aligned} \tag{15} $$

```
R> P=100000*Axn(soa08Act,x=25,n=40,i=0.03)/axn(soa08Act,x=25,n=40,i=0.03)
R> reserveFun=function(t) return(100000*Axn(soa08Act,x=25+t,n=40-t,i=0.03)-P*
+                                          axn(soa08Act,x=25+t,n=40-t,i=0.03))
R> for(t in 0:40) {if(t%%5==0) cat("At time ",t,
+                                    " benefit reserve is ", reserveFun(t),"\n")}

At time  0  benefit reserve is  0
At time  5  benefit reserve is  1575.179
At time  10  benefit reserve is  3221.986
At time  15  benefit reserve is  4848.873
```

```
At time  20  benefit reserve is  6290.505
At time  25  benefit reserve is  7258.187
At time  30  benefit reserve is  7250.61
At time  35  benefit reserve is  5380.243
At time  40  benefit reserve is  0
```

The calculation of the benefit reserve for a deferred annuity due is the final example of this section.

We assume policyholder's age to be 25 and the annuity to be deferred until age 65.

```
R> yearlyRate=12000
R> irate=0.02
R> APV=yearlyRate*axn(soa08Act, x=25, i=irate,m=65-25,k=12)
R> levelPremium=APV/axn(soa08Act, x=25,n=65-25,k=12)
R> annuityReserve<-function(t) {
+          out<-NULL
+          if(t<65-25) out=yearlyRate*axn(soa08Act, x=25+t,
+      i=irate,m=65-(25+t),k=12)-levelPremium*axn(soa08Act,
+                x=25+t,n=65-(25+t),k=12) else {
+                  out=yearlyRate*axn(soa08Act, x=25+t, i=irate,k=12)
+          }
+          return(out)
+  }
R> years=seq(from=0, to=getOmega(soa08Act)-25-1,by=1)
R> annuityRes=numeric(length(years))
R> for(i in years) annuityRes[i+1]=annuityReserve(i)
R> dataAnnuityRes<-data.frame(years=years, reserve=annuityRes)
```

Expenses considerations

The premium the policyholder is usually charged to contains an allowance for expenses and profit loading. Those expenses cover the policy servicing, the producers' commission. In some case the insurer profit load is explicitly taken into account in the benefit premium as a flat amount or as a percentage of final premium. In other cases an implicit profit loading is generated by using demographic and financial assumptions more prudential than would be necessary when pricing and reserving the policy. The equivalence principle can be extended to the gross premium, G, and expense augmented reserve, ${}_tV^E$, considering expenses allowance by using Equation 16

$$\begin{aligned} G &= APV\left(Benefits\right) + APV\left(Expenses\right) \\ {}_tV^E &= APV\left(Benefits\right) + APV\left(Expenses\right) - APV\left(GrossPremium\right) \end{aligned} \tag{16}$$

The following example shows how to a expense loaded premium G for a \$ 100,000 whole life insurance on a 35 year old insured $100,000A_{35}$ is calculated assuming the following: 10% of premium expense per year, 25 per year of policy expense, annual maintenance expense of 2.5 per 1,000 unit of capital.

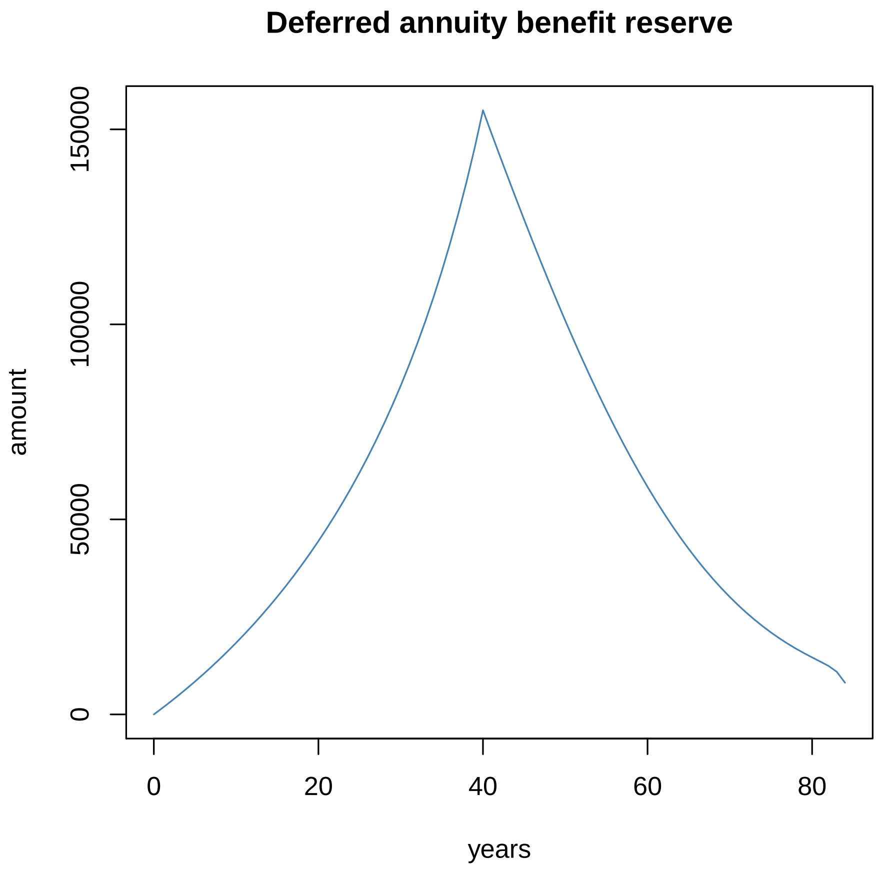

Figure 3: Benefit reserve profile for the exemplified annuity contract

The equation to be solved is $G\ddot{a}_{35} = 100000A_{35} + (2.5 * 100000/1000 + 25 + 0.1G)\,\ddot{a}_{35}$.

```
R> G=(100000*Axn(soa08Act, x=35)+ (2.5*100000/1000 + 25)*axn(soa08Act,x=35))/((1-.1)*axn(s
R> G

[1] 1234.712
```

Insurances and annuities on two lives

lifecontingencies package provides functions designed to evaluate life insurance and annuities on two lives. Following example checks the actuarial mathematics identity $a_{\overline{xy}} = a_x + a_y - a_{xy}$.

```
R> twoLifeTables=list(maleTable=soa08Act, femaleTable=soa08Act)
R> axn(soa08Act, x=65,m=1)+axn(soa08Act, x=70,m=1)-
+                    axyn(soa08Act,soa08Act,        x=65,y=70,status="joint",m=1)

[1] 10.35704

R> axyzn(tablesList=twoLifeTables, x=c(65,y=70), status="last",m=1)

[1] 10.35704
```

Reversionary annuities (annuities payable to life y upon death of x) APV, $a_{x|y} = a_y - a_{xy}$, can also be computed combining **lifecontingencies** functions as the code below shows.

```
R> axn(actuarialtable = soa08Act, x=60,m=1)-axyzn(tablesList = twoLifeTables, x=c(65,60),s

[1] 2.695232
```

4.4. Stochastic analysis

This last section illustrates some stochastic analysis that can be performed by our package, both in demographic analysis and life insurance evaluation. Section 4.4.1 applies stochastic analysis on demographic issues, while Section 4.4.2 applies stochastic analysis on insurance pricing.

Demographic examples

The age-until-death, both in the continuous, $\tilde{T}_x$, or curtate form, $\tilde{K}_x$, is a stochastic variable whose distribution is intrinsic in the deaths within a life table. Therefore a dedicated function, `rLife`, has been designed within **lifecontingencies** package to draw sample from K_x or T_x. Drawing from K_x is quite simple: the distribution of curtate future lifetime is defined, $\Pr\left[\tilde{K}_x = t\right] = \frac{d_{x+t}}{\sum_{j=0}^{\omega-x} l_{x+j}}$, and it is passed as `prob` parameter to base **R** `sample` function. For example, the code below shows how `rLife` function can be used to draw sample of size 5 from the curtate future lifetime of a policyholder aged 45 implicit in the SOA life table.

```
R> rLife(n=5,object=soa08Act,x=45,type="Kx")

[1] 40 18 29 12 51
```

`rLifexyz` represent the multiple heads extension of `rLife` function. It returns a matrix of sampled expected future lifetime of J policyholders given a list of J lifetables. The simulation approach could be useful to evaluate demographical quantities difficult to estimate analitically. One example could be the expected years of widowhood, that Equation 17 defines. $\tilde{T}_x$ and $\tilde{T}_y$ in Equation 17 stand for complete future liftimes for the husband and the wife respectively.

$$E\left[\tilde{W}_y\right] = \max\left(0, \tilde{T}_y - \tilde{T}_x\right) \tag{17}$$

Following example shows how this function could be used to evaluate the expected years of widowhood for a wife within a couple. The example makes use of the Italian projected lifetables ips55M and ips55F, whose derivation was shown in Section 4.2.

```
R> futureLifetimes<-as.data.frame(rLifexyz(n=10000, tablesList=list(husband=ips55M,wife=ip
R> names(futureLifetimes)=c("husband","wife")
R> temp=futureLifetimes$wife-futureLifetimes$husband
R> futureLifetimes$widowance=sapply(temp, max,0)
R> mean(futureLifetimes$widowance)

[1] 8.2497
```

Finally, Figure 4 shows the distribution of widowance years determined in previous example.

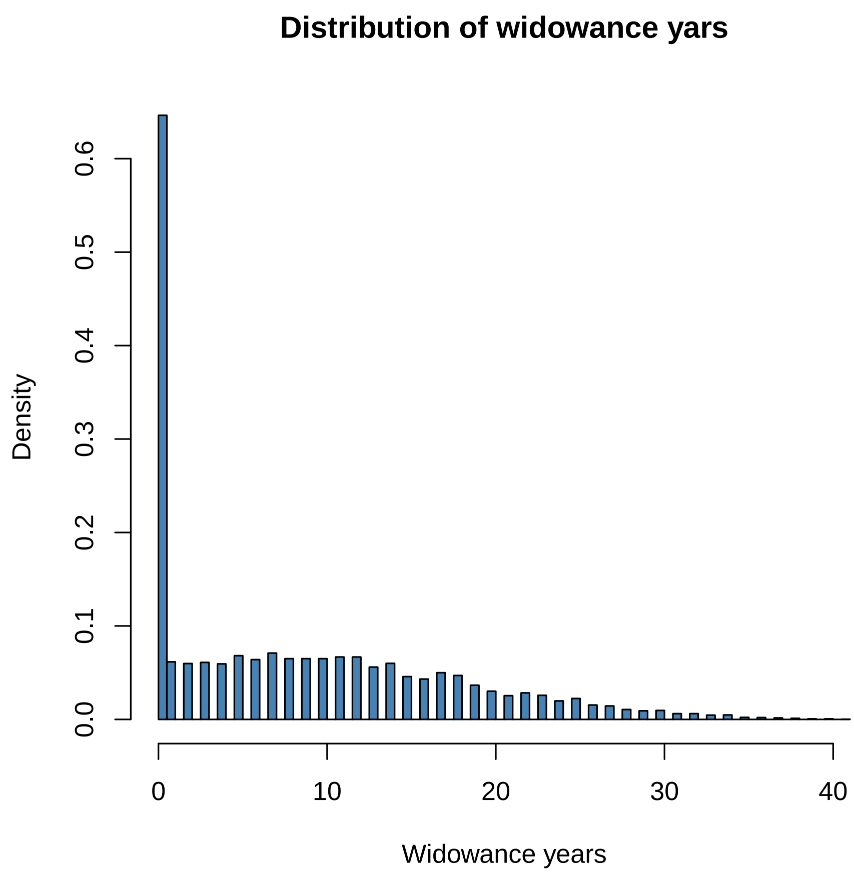

Figure 4: Years of widowance distribution.

Actuarial mathematics examples

The distribution of the present value of future benefits cash flows, $\tilde{Z}$, is a random variable. It is a function of the interest rate and indicator variables regarding the life status of the insured that can both deemed as stochastic, even if no random interest rates are allowed within **lifecontingencies** package framework.
Generating n-size variates from $\tilde{Z}$ can be performed by the following algorithm:

1. Define a function that returns the present value of the benefits, given the age at death of the policyholder, T_0, $PV(T_0)$. Within **lifecontingencies** package, present value functions have been defined for most important life contingent insurances. Such functions are not visibly exported in package namespace.
2. Sample n variates from T_0.
3. Give these variates as inputs to $PV(T_0)$.

Code below shows the internal function `.faxn` that represents the $f(T_0)$ for an annuity life contingent insurance. `.faxn` is internally called by `rLifeContingencies` function, discussed below. `T`, `y`, `n`,`i`,`m`,`k` represent the age at death, the attained age, the term of the annuity, the interest rate, the deferring period as well as the fractional payment frequency.

```
.faxn<-function(T,y,n, i, m, k=1)
{
        out=numeric(1)
        K=T-y
                if(K<m) {
                        out=0
                } else {
                  times=seq(from=m, to=min(m+n-1/k,K),by=1/k)
                   out=presentValue(cashFlows=rep(1/k, length(times)),
          timeIds=times, interestRates=i)
                }
        return(out)
}
```

Life contingencies insurance functions return the APV, that is $E\left[\tilde{Z}\right]$ as default value. Functions in Table 5 compute APVs by the current payment technique. Another possible, even if computationally inefficient approach, could be drawn a sample from the underlying $\tilde{Z}$ distribution and computing its sample mean.
Every function in Table 5 returns a sample of size one if the `type` parameter default value, "EV" (that stands for expected value), is overridden by the string "ST" (that stands for stochastic).
However, when samples of greater dimension are required, the most straightforward approach is the use of the `rLifeContingencies` function. `rLifeContingencies` function draws a sample of size n from the future lifetime at birth of the given actuarial table that are passed to functions like `.faxn` that return the present value of insured benefit considering the simulated life span of the policyholder.

Code below will show how to generate $\tilde{Z}$ variates from term life insurances, increasing term insurances, temporary annuity and endowment insurances respectively. For each example, the unbiaseness is verified by comparing the mean of simulated variate with the theoretical APV using a classical t - test. All examples are referred to an individual aged 20 years old for an insurance duration of 40 years. Figure 5 shows the resulting $\tilde{Z}$ distributions.

```
R> APVAxn=Axn(soa08Act,x=25,n=40,type="EV")
R> APVAxn

[1] 0.0479709

R> sampleAxn=rLifeContingencies(n=numSim, lifecontingency="Axn",
+                   object=soa08Act,x=25,t=40,parallel=TRUE)
R> tt1<-t.test(x=sampleAxn,mu=APVAxn)$p.value
R> APVIAxn=IAxn(soa08Act,x=25,n=40,type="EV")
R> APVIAxn

[1] 1.045507

R> sampleIAxn=rLifeContingencies(n=numSim, lifecontingency="IAxn",
+                   object=soa08Act,x=25,t=40,parallel=TRUE)
R> tt2<-t.test(x=sampleIAxn,mu=APVIAxn)$p.value
R> APVaxn=axn(soa08Act,x=25,n=40,type="EV")
R> APVaxn

[1] 15.46631

R> sampleaxn=rLifeContingencies(n=numSim, lifecontingency="axn",
+                   object=soa08Act,x=25,t=40,parallel=TRUE)
R> tt3<-t.test(x=sampleaxn,mu=APVaxn)$p.value
R> APVAExn=AExn(soa08Act,x=25,n=40,type="EV")
R> APVAExn

[1] 0.1245488

R> sampleAExn=rLifeContingencies(n=numSim, lifecontingency="AExn",
+                   object=soa08Act,x=25,t=40,parallel=TRUE)
R> tt4<-t.test(x=sampleAExn,mu=APVAExn)$p.value
R> c(tt1, tt2,tt3, tt4)

[1] 0.06394469 0.09655588 0.49715724 0.61709515
```

The full distribution of a life contingent insurance $\tilde{Z}$ variable can be used to compute premiums using the percentile premium principle. Under this approach, premium is assessed to ensure the insurer suffers financial loss with sufficiently low probability.
An example will better exemplify such concept: consider a 40 - year term insurance on a single policyholder aged 25. The actuarial present value of benefit, i.e. the expected value of discounted future benefits, would be

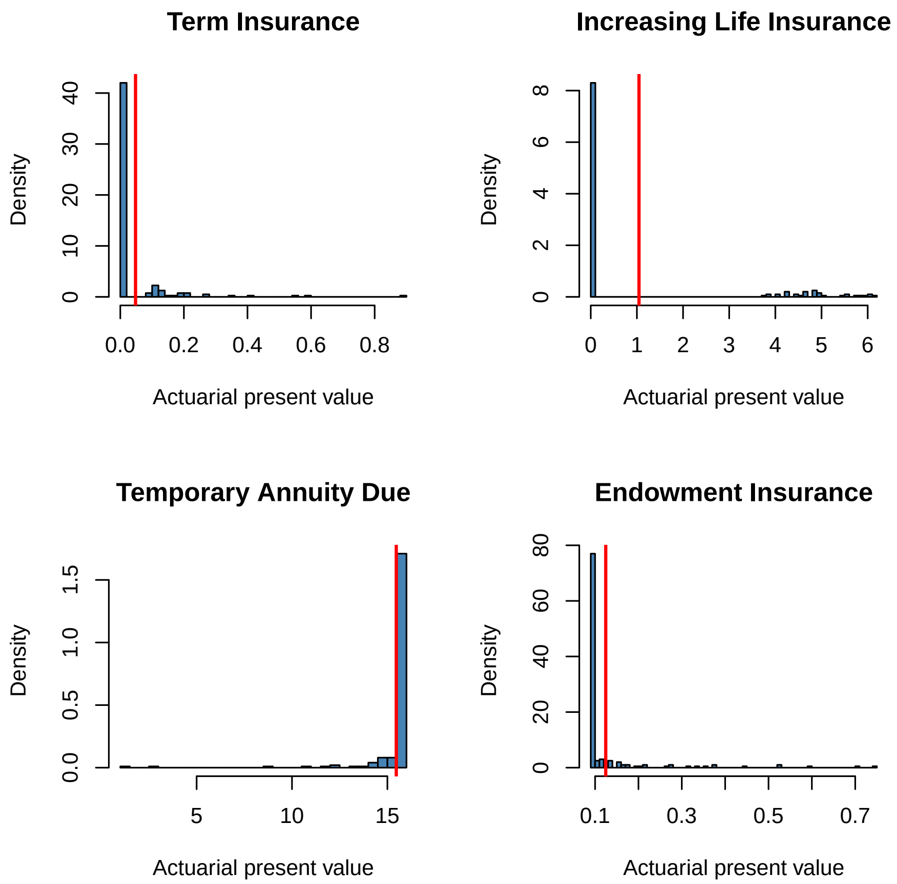

Figure 5: Life insurance stochastic variables distributions. Red vertical line represents APV.

```
R> APV=Axn(actuarialtable = soa08Act, x=25,n=40)
R> APV

[1] 0.0479709
```

while the premium at 90th percentile, that is the premium that would make the insurer to incurr in an underwriting with 10% of probability, would be

```
R> samples=rLifeContingencies(n=numSim, lifecontingency = "Axn", object= soa08Act, x=25,t=
R> pct90Pr=quantile(samples,.90)
R> pct90Pr

      90%
0.1568727
```

Finally, if $N = 1000$ similar policyholders were insured, the law of large numbers would lead to a strong reduction in the premium charged on each policyholder.

```
R> pct90Pr2=qnorm(p=0.90,mean=APV, sd=sd(samples)/sqrt(1000))
R> pct90Pr2

[1] 0.05282758
```

The final example of the paper shows how the stochastic functions bundled in **lifecontingencies** can be used to make an actuarial appraisal of embedded benefits as following example shows. Suppose a corporation grants its 100 employees a life insurance benefit equal to the annual salary, payable at the month of death. Suppose moreover that:

1. The expected value and the standard deviation of the salary are \$ 50,000 and \$ 15,000 respectively and salary distribution follows a log-normal distribution.
2. The employees distribution is uniform in the range 25 - 65. Assume 65 to be retirement age.
3. The SOA illustrative table represents an unbiased description of the population mortality.
4. Assume no lapse to hold.
5. The policy length is annual.

We evaluated the best estimate, that is the fair value of the insured benefits according to IAS 19 accounting standards (another word for benefit premium), and a risk margin measure. As risk margin measure we are using the difference between the 75th percentile and the best estimate. IFRS standards, Post, Grandl, Schmidl, and Dorfman (2007), define the fair value of an insurance liability as the sum of its best estimate plus its risk margin.

In the initial part of the example, we set out the parameter of the model and configure the parallel computation facility available by the package **parallel**. The code parallelization has been adapted from examples found in McCallum and Weston (2011) textbook.

```
R> nsim=100
R> employees=100
R> salaryDistribution=rlnorm(n=employees,m=10.77668944,s=0.086177696)
R> ageDistribution=round(runif(n=employees,min=25, max=65))
R> policyLength=sapply(65-ageDistribution, min,1)
R> getEmployeeBenefit<-function(index,type="EV") {
+         out=numeric(1)
+         out=salaryDistribution[index]*Axn(actuarialtable=soa08Act,
+                         x=ageDistribution[index],n=policyLength[index],
+                         i=0.02,m=0,k=1, type=type)
+         return(out)
+ }
R> require(parallel)
R> cl <- makeCluster(detectCores())
R> worker.init <- function(packages) {
+         for (p in packages) {
+                 library(p, character.only=TRUE)
+         }
+         invisible(NULL)
+ }
R> clusterCall(cl,
+                 worker.init, c('lifecontingencies'))

[[1]]
NULL

[[2]]
NULL

R> clusterExport(cl, varlist=c("employees","getEmployeeBenefit",
+                                 "salaryDistribution","policyLength",
+                                 "ageDistribution","soa08Act"))
```

Then we perform best estimate and risk margin calculations.

```
R> employeeBenefits=numeric(employees)
R> employeeBenefits<- parSapply(cl, 1:employees,getEmployeeBenefit, type="EV")
R> employeeBenefit=sum(employeeBenefits)
R> benefitDistribution=numeric(nsim)
R> yearlyBenefitSimulate<-function(i)
+ {
+         out=numeric(1)
+         expenseSimulation=numeric(employees)
+         expenseSimulation=sapply(1:employees, getEmployeeBenefit, type="ST")
+         out=sum(expenseSimulation)
+         return(out)
+ }
```

```
R> benefitDistribution <- parSapply(cl, 1:nsim,yearlyBenefitSimulate )
R> stopCluster(cl)
R> riskMargin=as.numeric(quantile(benefitDistribution,.75)-employeeBenefit)
R> totalBookedCost=employeeBenefit+riskMargin
R> employeeBenefit

[1] 25950.95

R> riskMargin

[1] 20226.9

R> totalBookedCost

[1] 46177.84
```

5. Discussion

5.1. Advantages, limitations and future perspectives

The **lifecontingencies** package allows actuaries to perform demographic, financial and actuarial mathematics calculations within R software. In particular, pricing and reserving of life contingent insurance contracts can be performed using R. In addition, an peculiar feature of **lifecontingencies** is the ability to generate samples from both life tables and life insurances underlying stochastic distributions.

One of the most important limitations of **lifecontingencies** is that currently only single decrements tables are handled within. Another current limitation is that currently it does not allow continuous - time life contingencies to be modeled.

We expect to remove such limitations in the future. In addition, we expect to to provide coerce methods toward packages specialized in demographic analysis, like **demography** and **LifeTables** packages as well as communication with interest rates modelling packages, as **termstrcR** will be also explored in order to allow **lifecontingencies** package to be used in a broader range of real life business tasks.
Finally code optimization is continuously carried on. The extension of parallel computation features, memory usage profiling as well as the use of C code fragments in select parts of the code have been planned.

5.2. Accuracy

The accuracy of calculation have been verified by checking with numerical examples reported in Bowers *et al.* (1997) and in the lecture notes of Actuarial Mathematics the author attended years ago at Catholic University of Milan, Mazzoleni (2000). The numerical results are identical to those reported in the Bowers *et al.* (1997) textbook for most function, with the exception of fractional payments annuities where the accuracy leads only to the 5th decimal. The reason of such inaccuracy is due to the fact that the package calculates the APV by directly sum of fractional survival probabilities, while the formulas reported in Bowers *et al.* (1997) textbook uses an analytical formula.

Finally, it is worth to remember that the package and functions herein are provided as is, without any guarantee regarding the accuracy of calculations. The author disclaims any liability arising by eventual losses due to direct or indirect use of this package.

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