

Mortality: A statistical approach to detect model misspecification

Life colloquium presentation



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SUMMARY

1 Introduction

- Motivation
- Mathematical foundations

2 Mortality backtesting

- Definition
- Validation
- Monitoring

3 Application with fixed sample size

4 Conclusion & Orientation

MOTIVATION

- Regulatory requirement: Solvency II
 - Best-estimate evaluation
 - Art. 83, comparison against experience
- Risk management good practice:
 - Primary risk factor in annuity business
 - Cash-flow projection model input
- Validation of complex data manipulation
- Simplicity for practical applications

MATHEMATICAL FOUNDATIONS

The underlying model is classical in mortality analysis, considering life-time as a random variable T . Under usual notations:

Annual death probability at age x

$$q_x = P(T \leq x+1 | T > x) = 1 - \frac{S(x+1)}{S(x)} = 1 - \exp\left(-\int_x^{x+1} h(u) du\right) \quad (1)$$

S , h being respectively the survival and hazard functions. Thus, considering an annual step and a population of n_x individuals, deaths are independent binomial random variables (no other exit causes are taken in account):

$$\forall x \in [x_1, x_p], D_x \sim \mathcal{B}(n_x, q_x) \quad (2)$$

PRACTICAL APPROXIMATIONS

In our practical application, we suppose a given annual mortality table q^γ . As we consider monthly observations, we apply the following approximation for analysis (piecewise constant hazard function):

$${}_m q_x = 1 - (1 - q_x)^{\frac{1}{12}} \quad (3)$$

which leads to the following statistical model, assuming a normal approximation and an exact renewal of population under risk each time steps:

Statistical model

$$\mathcal{M}_G = (\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{N}^p, \mathcal{P}_Q = \mathcal{N}_p(n_m q, \Sigma) | {}_m q \in Q) \quad (4)$$

with $Q = [0, 1]^p$ the parameter space, \mathcal{N}_p the p-dimensionnal normal law and Σ the variance-covariance matrix.

MORTALITY BACKTESTING: DEFINITION

A **backtest** is an **ex-post** model validation method. In mortality analysis, it corresponds to tables **validation** and **monitoring**. Let q^γ be the mortality table to test and q^0 the real set of death probabilities. A natural criterion for comparison is to decide between the two following hypotheses:

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 &= \{(q^\gamma, q^0) \in Q^2, \|q^\gamma - q^0\| = 0\} = \{q^\gamma \in Q_0\}, \\ H_1 &= \{(q^\gamma, q^0) \in Q^2, \|q^\gamma - q^0\| > 0\} = \{q^\gamma \in Q_1\}, \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

$\|\cdot\|$ a convenient norm and $Q_0 \cap Q_1 = \emptyset$. Backtesting procedures will be compared according to first and second type errors probabilities, α and β . Multiple purposes can be achieved through backtesting:

- Hypothesis **validation**: Mortality table validation (Statistical and sequential tests).
- Hypothesis **monitoring**: Continuous control (Change-point detection algorithms).

BACKTESTING: VALIDATION

Consider a **fixed** number of vectorial observations N : $d^N = (d_1, \dots, d_N)$ or equivalently $\hat{q}^N = (\hat{q}_1, \dots, \hat{q}_N)$. Based on the statistical model \mathcal{M}_G , it's straightforward to derive likelihood based tests:

Likelihood based tests, Gouriéroux and Monfort (1996)

Wald, Score and Likelihood Ratio tests are defined respectively as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\xi^W &= (\hat{q} - q^\gamma)^t \mathcal{I}(\hat{q}) (\hat{q} - q^\gamma), \\ \xi^S &= \frac{\partial \ln \mathcal{L}(D, q^\gamma)^t}{\partial q} \mathcal{I}^{-1}(q^\gamma) \frac{\partial \ln \mathcal{L}(D, q^\gamma)}{\partial q}, \\ \xi^R &= 2(\ln \mathcal{L}(D, \hat{q}) - \ln \mathcal{L}(D, q^\gamma)).\end{aligned}\tag{6}$$

In case of one observation, the rejection region being $\{\xi \geq \chi_{(1-\alpha)}^2(\rho)\}$ in case of a test of level α .

These tests are asymptotically convergent, of coverage 1, equivalent and χ^2 distributed.

BACKTESTING: VALIDATION

Consider N observations and $\bar{q} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{q}^i$ its mean vector.

Likelihood based tests, applications in the binomial case

The Wald, Score and Likelihood Ratio tests are defined respectively as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\xi^W &= \sum_{x=x_1}^{x_p} \frac{n_x (\bar{q}_x - q_x^\gamma)^2}{\bar{q}_x (1 - \bar{q}_x)} \\ \xi^S &= \sum_{x=x_1}^{x_p} \frac{n_x (\bar{q}_x - q_x^\gamma)^2}{q_x^\gamma (1 - q_x^\gamma)} \\ \xi^R &= \sum_{x=x_1}^{x_p} D_x \ln \left(\frac{\bar{q}_x}{q_x^\gamma} \right) + (n_x - D_x) \ln \left(\frac{1 - \bar{q}_x}{1 - q_x^\gamma} \right)\end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Very good results for large portfolios (asymptotic in n_x) but unknown β .

BACKTESTING: VALIDATION

The SPRT is designed to accept additional observations as long as statistical significance (in both α and β) can't be assessed. Thus, the sample size N (number of required observations before decision) is a random variable. This test requires an indecision region.

Sequential Probability Ratio Test (SPRT), Wald (1947)

The sequential probability ratio test is defined as follows:

- reject H_0 , if $\Lambda_n \geq A$
- accept H_0 , if $\Lambda_n \leq B$
- continue otherwise

with Λ_n a likelihood ratio with n observations and $A > B$ two constants.

$$N = \inf\{n, \Lambda_n \notin [B, A]\} \quad (8)$$

Difficulty: Choose likelihood ratio Λ_n , A and B (Possibly 0).

BACKTESTING: VALIDATION

SPRT Properties, Wald (1947)

- The SPRT test is optimal for simple hypotheses.
- Wald's approximations for closed tests i.e. $P(N < \infty) = 1$:
 - $\alpha \simeq \frac{1-B}{A-B}$
 - $\beta \simeq \frac{B(A-1)}{A-B}$
- In addition, if observations are i.i.d, $E(N)$ is available under both hypotheses.

Wald proposes two methods for composite hypotheses, based on a weighted likelihood ratio $\tilde{\Lambda}_n$ or a maximum likelihood estimator $\hat{\Lambda}_n$:

$$\tilde{\Lambda}_n = \frac{\int_{Q_1} \mathcal{L}(\hat{q}_1, \dots, \hat{q}_n, q) dF(q)}{\int_{Q_0} \mathcal{L}(\hat{q}_1, \dots, \hat{q}_n, q) dF(q)} \text{ and } \hat{\Lambda}_n = \frac{\sup_{Q_1} \mathcal{L}(\hat{q}_1, \dots, \hat{q}_n, q)}{\sup_{Q_0} \mathcal{L}(\hat{q}_1, \dots, \hat{q}_n, q)} \quad (9)$$

Difficulty: choice of priors F , unknown error probabilities for $\hat{\Lambda}_n$ (not a distribution).

BACKTESTING: VALIDATION

Prior choice: Least favorable functions, Basseville and Nikiforov (1993). The method of *frequency functions* considers observations as sequence of test-statistics and is supported by the following theorem (Invariant Sequential tests):

Cox's theorem, related from Jackson and Bradley (1961)

Let $x = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be random variables whose probability density function (p.d.f.) depends on unknown parameters $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p$. The x_i themselves may be vectors. Suppose that:

- (i) t_1, \dots, t_n are a functionally independent jointly sufficient set of estimators for $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p$,
- (ii) the distribution of t_1 involves θ_1 but not $\theta_2, \dots, \theta_p$,
- (iii) u_1, \dots, u_m are functions of x functionally independent of each other and t_1, \dots, t_p ,

BACKTESTING: VALIDATION

Cox's theorem (suite)

- (iv) there exists a set S of transformations of $x = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$ into $x^* = [x_1^*, \dots, x_n^*]$ such that
 - (a) t_1, u_1, \dots, u_m are unchanged by all transformations in S ,
 - (b) the transformation of t_2, \dots, t_p into t_2^*, \dots, t_p^* is one-to-one,
 - (c) if T_1, \dots, T_p and T_2^*, \dots, T_p^* are two set of values of t_2, \dots, t_p each having non-zero probability density under at least one of the distributions of x , then there exists a transformation in S such that if $t_2 = T_2, \dots, t_p = T_p$, then $t_2^* = T_2^*, \dots, t_p^* = T_p^*$.

Then the joint p.d.f. of t_1, u_1, \dots, u_m factorizes into

$$g(t_1, \theta_1)l(u_1, \dots, u_m, t_1) \quad (10)$$

where g is the p.d.f. of t_1 and l doesn't involve θ_1 .

BACKTESTING: VALIDATION

Based on slightly different hypotheses (no contact between Q_0 and Q_1), Jackson and Bradley first derived χ^2 -SPRT.

Application of Cox's theorem, from Jackson and Bradley (1961)

Considering previous problem of testing:

- $H_0 = \{q^0 \in Q, (q^0 - q^\gamma)\Sigma^{-1}(q^0 - q^\gamma)' = 0\}$
- $H_1 = \{q^0 \in Q, (q^0 - q^\gamma)\Sigma^{-1}(q^0 - q^\gamma)' = \lambda^2\}$

and the χ^2 statistic, it comes:

$$\tilde{\Lambda}_n = \exp\left(-n\frac{\lambda^2}{2}\right) {}_0F_1\left(\frac{p}{2}, \frac{n^2\lambda^2\chi_n^2}{4}\right) \quad (11)$$

with $\chi_n^2 = (\bar{q} - q^\gamma)\Sigma^{-1}(\bar{q} - q^\gamma)'$ and ${}_0F_1$ the generalized hypergeometric function.

Difficulty: Choice of λ in Life insurance context.

BACKTESTING: MONITORING

From now on, the mortality table q^γ is supposed to be true in the beginning and the objective will be to continue approval or detect shifts.

Change-point detection problem

Consider a sequence of independent random variables $(Y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ distributed under \mathbb{P}_0 until an unknown observation Y_ν (ν being possibly infinite) and then \mathbb{P}_1 . Let τ be a stopping time associated to a detection algorithm, the objective is to minimize the following criterion from Lorden (1971):

$$\sup_{\nu \geq 1} E_\nu (\tau - \nu + 1 | \tau \geq \nu) \quad (12)$$

subject to $E_\infty (\tau) \geq \text{large constant}$.

Multiple techniques exist: Shewart control charts, Geometric moving averages and other statistical process control (SPC), sequential tests, repeated fixed sample size tests...

BACKTESTING: MONITORING

Change-point detection algorithms seek to minimize the worst mean delay for detection for a large mean-time between false alarms. Consider a change-point detection algorithm represented by its stopping time τ :

Mean-time between false alarms

$$\bar{\tau} = E_{\infty}(\tau) \quad (13)$$

Worst mean delay for detection

$$\tau^* = \sup_{\nu} \text{ess sup}_{\nu} E_{\nu}(\tau - \nu + 1 | \tau \geq \nu, Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \quad (14)$$

Optimality of change-point algorithm

An optimal algorithm minimizes the Worst mean delay for a predefined mean-time between false alarm (Asymptotically optimal when $\bar{\tau} \rightarrow \infty$).

BACKTESTING: MONITORING

Lorden's theorem, Lorden (1971)

Let N be a stopping time (or equivalently a sample size) with respect to y_1, y_2, \dots such that

$$P_0(N < \infty) \leq \alpha \quad (15)$$

For $k = 1, 2, \dots$, let N_k be the stopping time obtained by applying N to y_k, y_{k+1}, \dots . Define the extended stopping time $\tau = \min(k, N_k)$, then:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\tau} &\geq \frac{1}{\alpha} \\ \tau^* &\leq E_1(N) \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

This result gives a lower boundary for mean-time between false alarm, useful in practice.

BACKTESTING: MONITORING

Cumulative Sums (Cusum), Page (1954)

The Cusum algorithm is a stopping time defined as follows:

$$\tau = \inf\{n, \Lambda_n - \min_{1 \leq j \leq n} \Lambda_j \geq A\} = \inf\{n, \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \Lambda_j^n \geq A\} \quad (17)$$

Page showed that this method can be seen as a repetition of one-sided SPRT ($B \rightarrow 0$), each starting at a different date.

Relation between Cusum and SPRT

Noting N_k the sample size associated with the SPRT starting from observation k and τ the Cusum stopping time, Page showed the following connection:

$$\tau = \min(k, N_k) \quad (18)$$

BACKTESTING: MONITORING

As for the SPRT test, two different methods can be applied to composite hypotheses:

Weighted Cusum

$$\tilde{\Lambda}_j^k = \frac{\int_{q \in Q_1} \mathcal{L}(\hat{q}_j, \dots, \hat{q}_k, q) dF_1(q)}{\int_{q \in Q_0} \mathcal{L}(\hat{q}_j, \dots, \hat{q}_k, q) dF_0(q)} \quad (19)$$

Generalized likelihood ratio

$$\hat{\Lambda}_j^k = \frac{\sup_{q \in Q_1} \mathcal{L}(\hat{q}_j, \dots, \hat{q}_k, q)}{\sup_{q \in Q_0} \mathcal{L}(\hat{q}_j, \dots, \hat{q}_k, q)} \quad (20)$$

BACKTESTING: MONITORING

χ^2 Cusum algorithm, Basseville and Nikiforov (1993)

$$\tilde{\Lambda}_j^k = \exp\left(- (k-j+1) \frac{\lambda^2}{2}\right) {}_0F_1\left[\frac{\rho}{2}, \frac{\lambda^2(k-j+1)^2 \chi_j^k}{4}\right] \quad (21)$$

GLR, Basseville and Nikiforov (1993)

$$\hat{\Lambda}_j^k = \exp\left((k-j+1) \left(\lambda \chi_j^k - \frac{\lambda^2}{2}\right)\right) \quad (22)$$

with $\chi_j^k = (\bar{q}_j^k - q^\gamma) \Sigma^{-1} (\bar{q}_j^k - q^\gamma)'$ and $\bar{q}_j^k = \frac{1}{k-j+1} \sum_{i=j}^k \hat{q}^i$

BACKTESTING: APPLICATION

Simulation of misspecification

In order to generate model misspecification, we'll consider the following transformation. The first application consist in a gaussian noise applied on mortality logits.

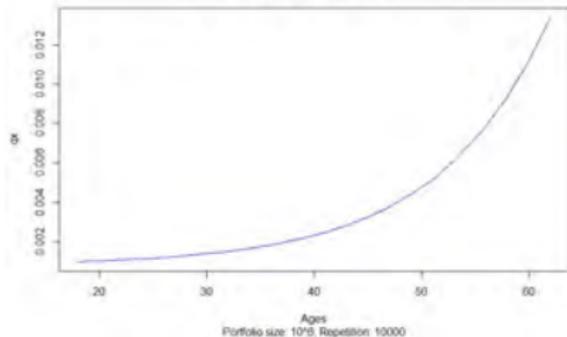
$$\forall x \in [x_1, x_p], \text{logit}(q_x^0) = \text{logit}(q_x^\gamma) + \epsilon_x \quad (23)$$

The second step in unbiasing the resulting mortality rates, which finally leads to the following relation:

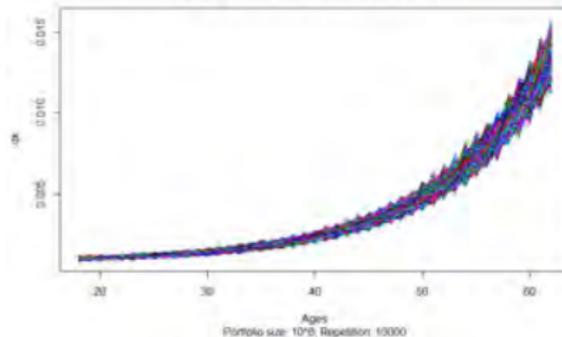
$$\forall x \in [x_1, x_p], q_x^0 = \frac{e^{\epsilon_x} q_x^\gamma}{1 + q_x^\gamma (e^{\epsilon_x} - 1)} - E \left(\frac{e^{\epsilon_x} q_x^\gamma}{1 + q_x^\gamma (e^{\epsilon_x} - 1)} - q^\gamma \right). \quad (24)$$

BACKTESTING: APPLICATION

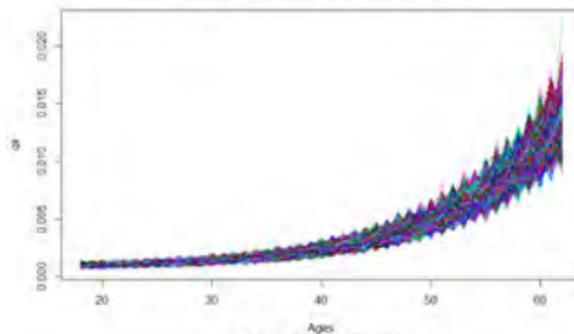
Mortality rates with no specification risk



Mortality rates with specification risk (5%)



Mortality rates with specification risk (10%)



BACKTESTING: APPLICATION

The following table presents equivalence between noise volatility on logits and incertitude on life remaining expectancy for a 65 years old men.

$$\delta = \frac{q_{95\%}(e_{65}) - E(e_{65})}{E(e_{65})}. \quad (25)$$

Table : Correspondence between σ and δ for a 65 years old person and $N = 10^6$

σ	e	δ
0%	16.21	0.00000
5%	16.34	0.00708
10%	16.48	0.01556
20%	16.75	0.03051
30%	17.00	0.04770
40%	17.23	0.06508

BACKTESTING: APPLICATION

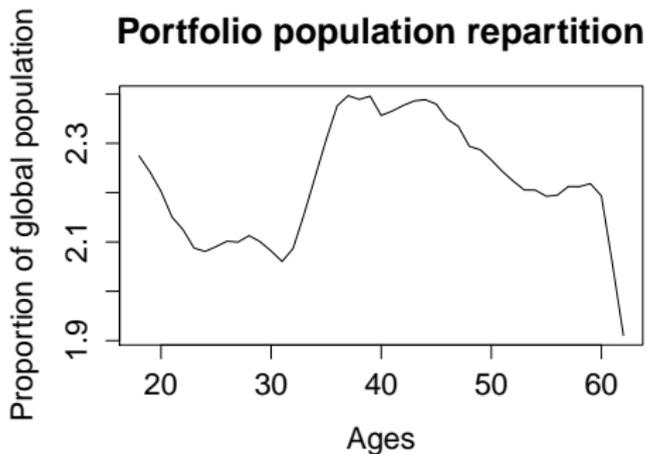


Figure : Population repartition over ages in proportions. source: Insee RP09, french demography.

BACKTESTING: APPLICATION

Table : Test results with $n = 10^6$, $\alpha = 5\%$, $nMonths = 60$, $\lambda = 1.6$ and $\sigma = 0\%$.

σ	$E(N N \leq nMonths)$	$P(reject)$
χ^2 -SPRT	12.46	0.032
χ^2 -Cusum	31.84	0.385
ξ^S	12 (fixed)	0.057

Table : Test results with $n = 10^6$, $\alpha = 1\%$, $nMonths = 60$, $\lambda = 1.6$ and $\sigma = 0\%$.

σ	$E(N N \leq nMonths)$	$P(reject)$
χ^2 -SPRT	16.33	0.003
χ^2 -Cusum	37.07	0.082
ξ^S	12 (fixed)	0.007

BACKTESTING: APPLICATION

Table : Test results with $n = 10^6$, $\alpha = 5\%$, $nMonths = 60$, $\lambda = 1.6$ and $\sigma = 10\%$.

σ	$E(N N \leq nMonths)$	$P(reject)$
χ^2 -SPRT	9.613	1
χ^2 -Cusum	9.114	1
ξ^S	12 (fixed)	0.927

Table : Test results with $n = 10^6$, $\alpha = 5\%$, $nMonths = 60$, $\lambda = 1.6$ and $\sigma = 20\%$.

σ	$E(N N \leq nMonths)$	$P(reject)$
χ^2 -SPRT	3.92	1
χ^2 -Cusum	3.916	1
ξ^S	12 (fixed)	1

CONCLUSION & ORIENTATION

- Insurance applications require composite hypotheses tests, complex setups,
 - Asymptotic optimality results
 - Difficult parameters tuning (λ, \dots), prior on λ
- Practical advantage of sequential tests:
 - Good power in comparison with fixed sample tests,
 - Controlled error probabilities.
- GLR method: Numerical difficulties
- Include alternative outgoes: Censure, Disability
- Derive tests without parameter indifference region

Main References & Bibliography

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