

# The **lifecontingencies** Package: A Package for Performing Financial and Actuarial Mathematics Calculations in R

Giorgio Alfredo Spedicato, Ph.D

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## Abstract

It is possible to model life contingency insurances with the **lifecontingencies** R package, which is capable of performing financial and actuarial mathematics calculations. Its functions permit one to determine both the expected value and the stochastic distribution of insured benefits. Therefore, life insurance coverage can be priced and portfolios risk-based capital requirements can be assessed. This paper briefly summarizes the theory regarding life contingencies that is based on financial mathematics and demographic concepts. Then, with the aid of applied examples, it shows how the **lifecontingencies** package can be a useful tool for executing routine, deterministic, or stochastic calculations for life-contingencies actuarial mathematics.

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

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## 1. Introduction

As of December 2012, the **lifecontingencies** package, (Spedicato 2012), appears as the first R package that deals with life contingent actuarial mathematics. The R statistical programming environment (R Development Core Team 2012) has become the primary reference software for academics. Even in a business context, R is now considered a valid alternative to affirmed proprietary packages for statistics and data analysis, namely SAS (SAS Institute Inc. 2011), MATLAB (MATLAB 2010) and SPSS (IBM Corp 2012). Some packages for actuarial applications have already been developed within R. However, most of them mainly focus on non-life insurance. In fact, non-life insurance modelling involves more data analysis and applied statistical modeling than that of life insurance. Functions allowing one to fit loss distributions and perform credibility analysis are provided within the package **actuar** (Christophe Dutang, Vincent Goulet, and Mathieu Pigeon 2008). This package 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 that are capable of estimating loss reserves for non-life insurance. Generalized Linear Models (GLMs), widely used in non-life insurance rate-making, can be fit by functions bundled as base R distributions. (Zhang 2011). The Generalized Additive Models for Location, Shape and Scale (GAMLSS) and Tweedie Regression, which are both more advanced predictive models used by actuaries, are handled by specifically developed packages such as **gamlss** (Rigby and Stasinopoulos 2005), and **cplm** (Zhang 2011).

Life insurance actuarial work deals mainly with demographic and financial data. The Fi-

nance view on the CRAN site lists several packages tailored specifically for financial analysis. Packages **YieldCurve** (Guirrieri 2010), and **termstrc** (Ferstl and Hayden 2010), are capable of financial modelling for interest rates. Among the few packages that handle demographic data, **demography** (Rob J Hyndman, Heather Booth, Leonie Tickle, and John Maindonald 2011), and **LifeTables** (Riffe 2011) can be used to manage demographic projections and life tables. On the other hand, a lot of commercial software tailored specifically for the actuarial analysis of life insurance is already available. **Moses** and **Prophet** are currently the leading actuarial software packages for life insurance modelling. The **lifecontingencies** package aims to represent the computational R companion of the theoretical concepts exposed in textbooks like the classical Bowers, Jones, Gerber, Nesbitt, and Hickman (1997) and Dickson, Hardy, and Waters (2009) for actuarial mathematics and Broverman (2008) for financial mathematics. The examples used throughout this paper have been taken from Chris Ruckman and Joe Francis (2006) and Finan (2012), both freely available financial and actuarial mathematics textbooks. The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 outlines the statistical and financial mathematical theory regarding life contingencies, Section 3 overviews the structure of the **lifecontingencies** package, Section 4 gives a wide choice of applied **lifecontingencies** examples, and finally, Section 5 discusses the packages current and future development as well as its known limitations.

## 2. The statistical and financial foundations of Life Contingencies

The actuarial pricing and reserving of life contingent insurance involves the calculation of statistics regarding occurrences and amounts of future cash flows. For example, the insurance pure premium (also known as benefit premium) can be regarded as the expected value of the prospective benefits cash flow distribution, valued at time zero for a given interest rate structure. The probabilities of the prospective benefits cash flow are based on the occurrence of the policyholder's life events (life contingencies). In addition, the theory of interest is used to find the present value of these amounts that will occur in the future. Therefore, life insurance actuarial mathematics is based on concepts derived from demography and theory of interest.

A life table (also called a mortality table or actuarial table) is a table that shows how mortality affects subjects of a cohort across different ages. For each age  $x$ , it reports the number of  $l_x$  individuals living at the beginning of age  $x$ . It is a sequence of  $l_0, l_1, \dots, l_\omega$ , where  $l_\omega$ , the terminal age, represents the latest age that a subject of the cohort can survive until. Life tables are typically distinguished according to gender, year of birth and nationality, with different categories being used depending the type of life contingency (i.e assurance or annuity). As another example, businesses may have different customers with different underlying mortalities, so they will be in need of different life tables.

From a statistical point of view, a life table allows one to deduce the probability distribution of the future lifetime for a policyholder aged  $x$ . In particular, a life table also permits one to derive two key probability distributions:  $\tilde{T}_x$ , the complete future lifetime for a policyholder aged  $x$ , and its curtate form,  $\tilde{K}_x$ , the number of future years completed before death. Therefore, many demographic statistics can be derived from a life table, of which 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  ${}_tp_x$ .
- ${}_td_x$ , the number of deaths between age  $x$  and  $x + t$ .
- ${}_tL_x = \int_0^t l_{x+y} dy$ , the expected number of years lived by the cohort between ages  $x$  and  $x + t$ .
- ${}_tm_x = \frac{{}_td_x}{{}_tL_x}$ , the central mortality rate between ages  $x$  and  $x + t$ .
- $e_x$ , the curtate expectation of life for a subject aged  $x$ ,  $e_x = E \left[ \tilde{K}_x \right] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} {}_kp_x$ .

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

Classical financial mathematics deals with monetary amounts that can be available at different times. The present value of a series of cash flows, expressed by Equation 1, is probably the most important concept. The present value can be considered as the value – in current money – of a series of financial cash flows,  $CF_t$ , that are available at different periods of time.

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

The interest rate,  $i$ , represents the measure of the price of money available in future times. Like the interest rate, the time value of money can be expressed by the discount rate  $d = \frac{i}{1+i}$ . This paper will use the  $i$  symbol to express effective compound interest, with money invested once per period. In the case where money is invested more frequently, say  $m$  times per period, each fractional period is named 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 2 combines the various notations for interest and discount rates, both on an effective and convertible basis, to express what an amount of \$1 invested now will grow to at time  $t$ .

$$A(t) = (1 + i)^t = (1 - d)^{-t} = v^{-t} = \left(1 + \frac{i^{(m)}}{m}\right)^{t*m} = \left(1 - \frac{d^{(m)}}{m}\right)^{-t*m} \quad (2)$$

All financial mathematics functions (like annuities,  $a_{\overline{n}|}$ , or accumulated values,  $s_{\overline{n}|}$ ) can be rewritten as particular expressions of Equation 1, as shown in classical actuarial mathematics textbooks.

Actuaries use the probabilities inherent in life tables to price life contingent insurances. In fact, life contingencies are stochastic variables themselves. A life contingent insurance can be represented by a sequence of one or more payments whose occurrence, timing, and consequent

present value are not certain. In fact, their eventual occurrence and timing depend on events in the life of the policyholder; for this reason, they are named "life contingencies". Since the actuary focuses on the present value of such uncertain payments, future payments of life contingent insurances need to be discounted using interest rates that may also be considered stochastic. The **lifecontingencies** package provides functions that model most of the standard life contingent random variables,  $\tilde{Z}$ , and in particular their expected value, the Actuarial Present Value (APV). Of all the statistics used by actuaries, the APV is certainly the most important. In fact, it represents the average cost of the benefits guaranteed to the policyholder by the insurer. In a non-life insurance context, it would be named pure premium. The policyholder pays out the gross premium,  $G$ , which is a sum of benefit premiums, loading for expense, profits and taxes. Life contingencies can be either continuous or discrete, as cited actuarial mathematics textbooks explain. Directly, the **lifecontingencies** package can only model discrete life contingencies with a non-stochastic interest rate. Nevertheless, most continuous time life contingent insurances can be easily derived from their discrete form under broad assumptions that can be found in the cited textbooks.

A few examples of life contingent insurances follow:

1. An  $n$ -year term life insurance provides a payment of \$  $b$ , if the insured dies within  $n$  years from issue. If the payment is performed at the end of the year of death,  $\tilde{Z}$  can be written as  $\tilde{Z} = \begin{cases} v^{K+1}, & \tilde{K}_x = 0, 1, \dots, n-1 \\ 0, & \tilde{K}_x \geq n \end{cases}$  Its APV expression is  $A_{x:\overline{n}|}^1$ .
2. A life annuity consists of a sequence of benefits paid out as long as the insured life survives. In particular, a temporary life annuity due pays a benefit at the beginning of each period as long as the annuitant aged  $x$  survives, for up to a total of  $n$  years, or  $n$  payments.  $\tilde{Z}$  can be written 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.  $\tilde{Z}$  can be written as  $\tilde{Z} = \begin{cases} 0, & \tilde{K}_x < n \\ v^n, & \tilde{K}_x \geq n \end{cases}$ . Its APV expression is  $A_{x:\overline{n}|}^1$  (or  ${}_nE_x$ ).
4. An  $n$ -year endowment insurance will pay a benefit at the the year of death or the end of the  $n$ -th year, whichever occurs earlier.  $\tilde{Z}$  can be written as  $\tilde{Z} = \begin{cases} v^{K+1}, & \tilde{K}_x = 0, 1, \dots, n-1 \\ v^n, & \tilde{K}_x \geq n \end{cases}$ . Its APV expression is  $A_{x:\overline{n}|}$ .

Interested readers could see cited references for formulas regarding other life contingent insurances like  $(DA)_{x:\overline{n}|}^1$ , the decreasing term life insurance,  $(IA)_{x:\overline{n}|}^1$  or the increasing term life insurance. There are also common variations of payments that form arrangements like deferment or fractional payments. Similarly, it is possible to define insurances and annuities depending on the survival status of two or more lives. For example,  $A_{xy}$  and  $a_{\overline{xy}|}$  represent, respectively, the APV symbols for the two lives joint-live insurance and the two lives last-survivor annuity immediate.

The **lifecontingencies** package provides functions that allow an actuary to perform classical financial and actuarial mathematics calculations. In addition to standard deterministic modelling, a peculiar feature of **lifecontingencies** is that it allows one to generate variates from the stochastic distribution of the present value of future benefits,  $\tilde{Z}$ , for most life contingent insurances. This feature allows for a deeper assessment of the insurance liabilities variability.

### 3. The structure of the package

The package **lifecontingencies** contains classes and methods that handle life tables and actuarial tables in a convenient manner.

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

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

Two main S4 classes 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; it is different from the **lifetable** class because it has one more slot accounting for the interest rate.

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

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

```
Slots:
```

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

```
Extends: "lifetable"
```

A list of methods has been defined for **lifetable** and **actuarialtable** classes.

```
R> showMethods(classes=c("actuarialtable","lifetable"))
```

```
Function: coerce (package methods)
from="actuarialtable", to="data.frame"
from="actuarialtable", to="numeric"
from="data.frame", to="lifetable"
from="lifetable", to="data.frame"
from="lifetable", to="numeric"
```

```
Function "flat":
  <not an S4 generic function>
Function: head (package utils)
x="lifetable"
```

```
Function: initialize (package methods)
.Object="actuarialtable"
  (inherited from: .Object="ANY")
.Object="lifetable"
  (inherited from: .Object="ANY")
```

```
Function: length (package base)
```

```
Function: plot (package graphics)
x="lifetable"
```

```
Function: show (package methods)
object="actuarialtable"
object="lifetable"
```

```
Function: summary (package base)
object="actuarialtable"
object="lifetable"
```

```
Function: tail (package utils)
x="lifetable"
```

The computation of financial, demographic and actuarial quantities is based on dedicated functions that use `lifetable` and `actuarialtable` objects when required. Table 1 shows the naming convention for common input parameters used within the package. The sections that follow briefly present such functions with the aid of examples.

Parameter	Significance
x	the policyholder's age.
n	the coverage duration or payment duration.
i	interest rate (could be varying).
k	the frequency of payments.

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

Finally, the **lifecontingencies** package depends on the **methods** package, which defines its classes, and the **parallel** package, which is used to speed up computations. As detailed in the 'later future plans' paragraph, implementation of C or C++ code is expected to shorten computational times in the future versions of the package.

## 4. Code and examples

This section is structured as follows: Section 4.1 shows classical financial mathematics examples, Section 4.2 deals with life tables and actuarial table management, Section 4.3 shows classical actuarial mathematics examples, and Section 4.4 presents functions in the **lifecontingencies** package that perform simulation analysis.

### 4.1. Classical financial mathematics example

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

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

The **lifecontingencies** package provides functions that perform classical financial mathematics calculations listed in Table 2 lists.

Some of these implement closed form formulas and their inverses; this is also shown in financial mathematics textbooks. A broader discussion, however, shall be dedicated to the **presentValue** function. In fact, the **presentValue** function is internally called by most other financial and actuarial functions within the **lifecontingencies** package. This function calculates present values or APVs, by solving  $PV = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i * v^{t_i} * p_i$ . The terms in the sum are the cash flows vector,  $c_i$ , the corresponding discount factors vector,  $v^{t_i}$  and the occurrence probabilities vector,  $p_i$ . Many **lifecontingencies** package functions, like **axn** of an **annuity**, work by first defining the pattern vectors of cash flows, interest rate and probabilities (in case of actuarial functions), which are then passed as arguments to the **presentValue** function.

Examples that follow show how to handle interest and discount rates with different compounding frequencies, how to perform present value, annuity, and future value analysis, and how to deal with loan amortization and bond pricing.

*Interest rate functions*

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

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

The functions `interest2Discount`, `discount2Interest`, `convertible2Effective`, `effective2Convertible`, `interest2Intensity`, `intensity2Interest` have all been based on Equation 3; their inverse formulas are implied therein. Throughout the paper, an effective interest rate is used unless otherwise stated.

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

```
R> interest2Discount(0.03)
```

```
[1] 0.02912621
```

```
R> discount2Interest(interest2Discount(0.03))
```

```
[1] 0.03
```

The function `convertible2Effective` allows one to find the effective interest rate implied in a consumer - credit loan that offers a 10% convertible (nominal) interest rate with quarterly compounding.

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

```
[1] 0.1038129
```

*Analysis of present value and internal rate of return*

Performing a project appraisal means evaluating the net present value (NPV) of all projected cash flows. The 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
```

When interest rates vary and cash flows are uncertain, the `probabilities` parameter can be properly set as the following code shows:



```
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 NPV that allows financial investment projects to be ranked by the timing and amount of their cash flows. The following example displays how the **lifecontingencies** package can use base R functions to calculate the IRR.

```
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 a specified amount that is present valued. If it is valued at the end of the term of payment is called future value (or accumulated value). The code below shows examples of annuity,  $a_{\overline{n}|}$ , and accumulated value,  $s_{\overline{n}|}$ , evaluations. The PV of an annuity immediate \$100 payable at the end of each year for the next 5 years at an interest rate of 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  $\frac{1}{k}$  are received for each  $k$ -th of a period) can be evaluated properly by setting the functions' parameters as follows:

```
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 symbols are  $IA_x$ ,  $DA_x$  respectively. Assuming a ten-year 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 displays the calculation of the present value of a geometrically increasing annuity. If payment amounts increase by 3%, 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*

As this section exemplifies, **lifecontingencies** financial mathematics functions allow one to define the repayment schedule of any loan arrangement. Let  $C$  denote the loaned capital (principal). Assuming an interest rate  $i$ , the amount due to the lender at each installment is  $R = \frac{C}{a_{\overline{n}|i}}$ . Therefore, the  $R$  amount repays  $I_t = C_{t-1} * i$  as interest, while  $C_t = R - I_t$  is the amount of the loan still outstanding after installment  $t$  has been paid. The periodic installment of loan repayment,  $R$ , is calculated 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 the 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
```

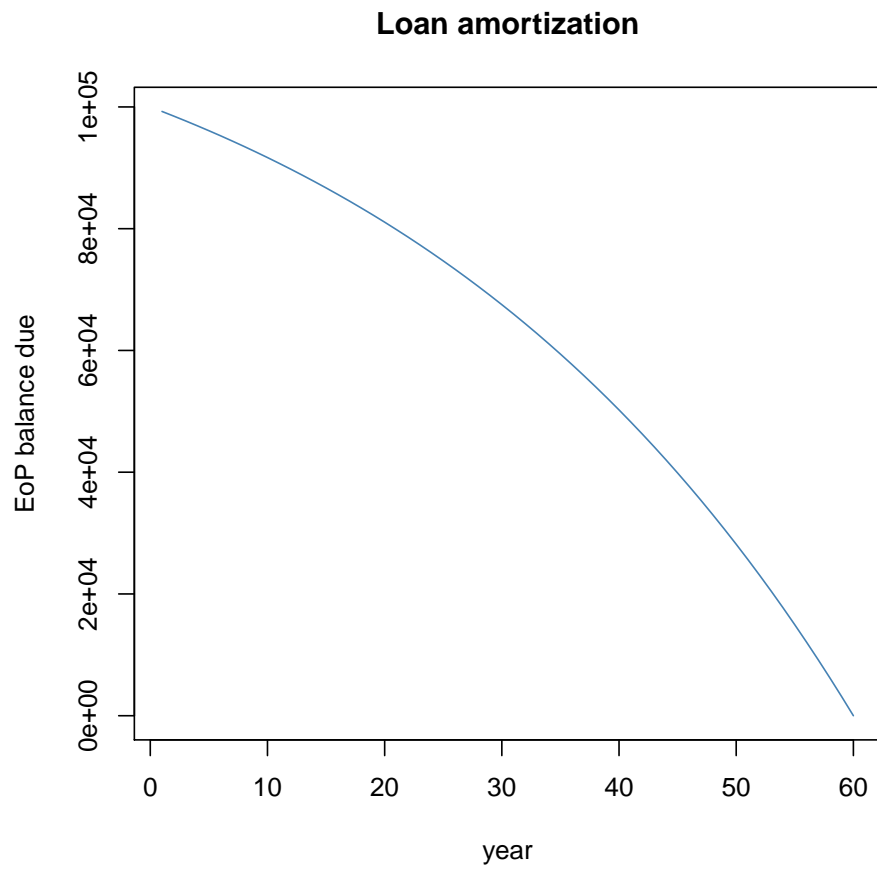


Figure 1: Loan amortization: EoP balance due.

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

### *Bond pricing*

Bond pricing represents another application of present value. A standard bond with face value  $C$  and term length  $T$  consists of equal coupons  $c$  paid at regular intervals. The final payment at time  $T$  is  $C_T + c$ . Equation 4 expresses the present value of a bond with  $n$  remaining coupons.

$$B_t = c * a_{\overline{n}|} + C * v^T \quad (4)$$

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

The following examples show how elementary functions in the **lifecontingencies** package can be combined to price bonds and perpetuities.

```
R> bond<-function(faceValue, couponRate, couponsPerYear, yield,maturity)
+ {
+     out <- numeric(1)
+     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 <- numeric(1)
+     out <- 1 / yield
+     out <- ifelse(immediate==TRUE, out, out*(1+yield))
+     return(out)
+ }
R>
```

As displayed below, the `bond` and `perpetuity` functions defined above can be used to price any bond, given face value, coupon rate, and term.

```
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*

As defined within the package, duration and convexity formulas are reported in Equation 5 and Equation 6 respectively. Their typical application lies within portfolios' asset - liability management (ALM). The interested reader can find details in [Chris Ruckman and Joe Francis \(2006\)](#) and [Broverman \(2008\)](#) textbooks. However, the following example shows how the Macaulay duration (**ex1**), modified duration (**ex2**), and convexity (**ex3**) of any series of cash flows can be calculated by **lifecontingencies** package functions.

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

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

```
R> cashFlows <- c(100,100,100,600,500,700)
R> timeVector <- seq(1:6)
R> interestRate <- 0.03
R> dur1 <-duration(cashFlows = cashFlows, timeIds = timeVector,
+                 i = interestRate, k = 1, macaulay = TRUE)
R> dur2 <-duration(cashFlows = cashFlows, timeIds = timeVector,
+                 i = interestRate, k = 1, macaulay = FALSE)
R> cvx1 <-convexity(cashFlows = cashFlows, timeIds = timeVector,
+                 i = interestRate, k = 1)
R> c(dur1, dur2, cvx1)
```

```
[1] 4.430218 4.563124 25.746469
```

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

```
R> GTCFin<- 10000 * (1 + 0.05)^7
R> GTCFin
```

```
[1] 14071
```

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

1. A five year bond with face value of 100 and 3% coupons paid annually.
2. A perpetuity-immediate. As a remark, the formulas for the PV, duration and convexity of a perpetuity immediate are  $PV_{pp} = \frac{1}{y}$ ,  $D_{pp} = \frac{1+y}{y}$ ,  $C_{pp} = \frac{2}{y^2}$  respectively, if the yield rate is  $y$ .

Assume the issuing company wants to hedge its liability with an investment portfolio that will not be affected adversely by changes in the investment yield. In order to solve the ALM problem, the composition of assets within the portfolio shall be chosen accordingly. Moreover, assume that the current market yield rate is 4%. The following lines of code figure out some parameters that are used within the example.

```
R> yieldT0 <- 0.04
R> durLiab <- 7
R> pvLiab <- presentValue(cashFlows = GTCFin, timeIds = 7,
+                         interestRates = yieldT0)
R> convLiab <- convexity(cashFlows=GTCFin, timeIds = 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)
```

Then the ALM problem can be set up as a three step problem, as the [Chris Ruckman and Joe Francis \(2006\)](#) textbook remarks:

1. Setting the initial 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 assets to be equal to the interest rate sensitivity of liabilities. This is done by solving the system of equations shown in Equation 7. The parameters  $w_i$  and  $D_i$  stand for asset hedging weights and duration values respectively.

$$\begin{cases} w_{\text{bnd}} D_{\text{bnd}} + w_{\text{ppt}} D_{\text{ppt}} = D_{\text{GTC}} \\ w_{\text{bnd}} + w_{\text{ppt}} = 1 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

3. Setting the convexity of assets to be greater than the convexity of liabilities. In other words, this means verifying that asset decline (growth) will be slower (faster) than liability decline in case of a change in the interest rate.

The 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 terms of bonds and perpetuities, 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] 99.0279
```

```
R> pptyNum
```

```
[1] 49.23485
```

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

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

```
[1] TRUE
```

The portfolio is immunized from yield rate variations because the present value of assets will be greater than the present value of the liabilities if the interest rate suddenly drops to 3% just after hedging the asset purchase. The same occurs in case of an upward shift in the interest rate 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
```

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

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

It is worthwhile to remember that asset allocation within the portfolio should be rebalanced with some frequency, since the portfolio's duration and convexity will change as time goes on.

## 4.2. Analysis of life tables and actuarial tables

`lifetable` and `actuarialtable` classes are designed to handle demographic and actuarial mathematics calculations. An `actuarialtable` class inherits from `lifetable` class; it adds one more slot for the rate of interest. Both classes have been designed using the **S4** R classes framework.

Table 3 lists the functions that have been developed for performing demographic analysis within **lifecontingencies** package. This section briefly exemplifies these functions.

### *Creating lifetable and actuarialtable objects*

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

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

There are three main approaches for creating a `lifetable` object:

1. Directly from the  $x$  and  $l_x$  vector.
2. By importing  $x$  and  $l_x$  from an existing `data.frame` object.
3. From using raw survival probabilities.

Creating a `lifetable` object directly can be done as shown by the code below:



```
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")
```

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

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

The following example shows how 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")]
```

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: Life tables and other data objects bundled within **lifecontingencies**.

```

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"

```

The same operation can be performed on IPS55 tables bundled in the `demoIta` data set. The purpose of the following example is to stress the importance of using a clean  $l_x$  series as an input for the `coerce` method. A "clean"  $l_x$  series is a decreasing series without zeroes or missing values.

```

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 final method of creating a `lifetable` object uses one year survival or death probabilities, combining the `probs2lifetable` function with `as.data.frame` coerce methods. Two potential benefits arise from using this function. The first benefit lies in the use of mortality projection method results. The Lee - Carter method (Lee and Carter 1992) allows one to vary mortality table by cohort of birth. Thus, demographic quantities, like the expected lifetime,  $e_0$ , can be projected as functions of the year of birth.

A second advantage lies in the creation of "cut-down" mortality tables. This latter application is exemplified in the code that follows, where a `itaM2002reduced` life table is obtained;

the one - year mortality rates of Italian males aged between 20 and 60 are cut down to 20% of their 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 an existing lifetable object.

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

When applied to either actuarialtable or lifetable classes, Method `getOmega` returns the terminal age,  $\omega$ .

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

```
[1] 9
```

Method `print` behaves differently for `lifetable` and `actuarialtable` objects. In fact, when the `print` method is applied on a `lifetable` object, it tabulates both the one year survival probability and the complete expected remaining life until death. Conversely, when the `print` method is applied on a `lifetable` object, classical commutation functions ( $D_x$ ,  $N_x$ ,  $C_x$ ,  $M_x$ ,  $R_x$ ), discussed later, are printed out.

```
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 into a `data.frame` object, as shown below.

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

Finally, a `plot` method can be applied to either `lifetable` or `actuarialtable` objects. The underlying survival function (which is the plot of  $x$  vs  $l_x$ ) is displayed in both cases. Figure 2 shows the `plot` methods applied on a Society of Actuaries (SoA) actuarial table at 6% interest, which comes bundled within the **lifecontingencies** package as `soa08Act` object.

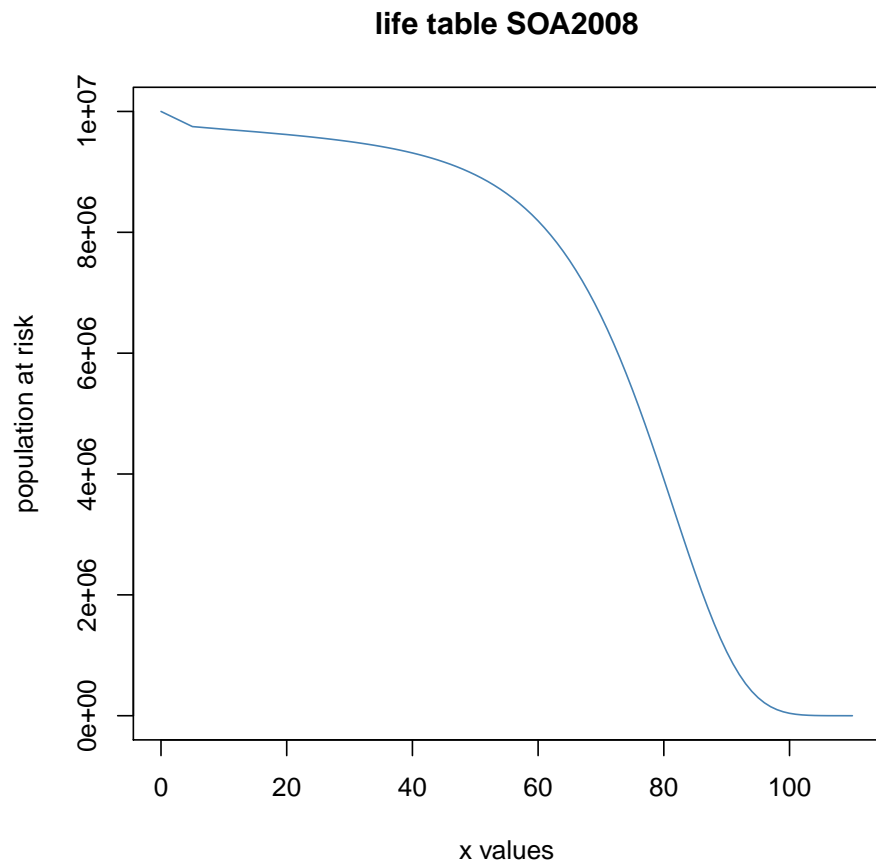


Figure 2: Underlying survival function of SoA illustrative life table.

*Basic demographic analysis*

Basic demography calculations can be performed on valid `lifetable` or `actuariatable` objects. The functions discussed in this section calculate proper ratios or sums on  $l_x$  or  $d_x$  values using functions that access to the lifetable object slots. This is all done in accordance with the demographic formula definitions.

The code below shows how  ${}_1p_{20}$ ,  ${}_2q_{30}$  and  ${}_e\ddot{e}_{50:\overline{20}|}$  are calculated respectively 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
```

The package allows one to calculate fractional survival probabilities through the use of linear interpolation, constant force of mortality and hyperbolic Balducci's assumptions as shown by the code below.

```
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
```

Calculations for survival probabilities on two (or more) lives can also be performed. As a remark, two different life statuses are defined within the analysis of multiple lives survival: "joint" survival status and "last" survival status. The "joint" survival status exists while all the members of the pool are alive, while the "last" survival status exists until the last member of the pool dies. All calculations assume that the multiple lives are independent. Equation 8 expresses the remaining future lifetime on a couple  $xy$  under the joint and last survival status respectively.

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{T}_{xy} &= \min(T_x, T_y) \\ \tilde{T}_{\bar{xy}} &= \max(T_x, T_y)\end{aligned}\tag{8}$$

The following code shows how the joint survival probability, last survival probability, and expected joint lifetime can be evaluated using functions in **lifecontingencies**.

```
R> tablesList <- list(ips55M, ips55F)
R> jsp <- pxyz(tablesList, x=c(65,63), t=2)
R> lsp <- pxyz(tablesList, x=c(65,63), t=2, status="last")
R> jelt <- exyz(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	APV symbol
Axn	one life insurance	$A_{x:\overline{n} }^1$
AExn	the n-year endowment	$A_{x:\overline{n} }^{\overline{1}}$
Axyzn	two lives life insurances	$\bar{A}_{xy:\overline{n} }^1$
axn	one life annuity	$\ddot{a}_x$
axyzn	two lives annuities	$\ddot{a}_{xy}$
Exn	pure endowment	${}_nE_x$
Iaxn	increasing annuity	$Ia_x$
IAxn	increasing life insurance	$(IA)_{x:\overline{n} }^1$
DAxn	decreasing life insurance	$(DA)_{x:\overline{n} }^1$
rLifeContingencies	generates variates from the $\tilde{Z}$ distribution.	
rLifeContingenciesXyz	multiple lives version of rLifeContingencies.	

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

Table 5 lists examples of functions contained in **lifecontingencies** that allow the user to perform classical actuarial mathematics calculations. In the selection of examples that follow, the SOA illustrative life table with an interest rate of 6% will be used unless otherwise stated

##### *Life insurance examples*

The evaluation of the APV has traditionally followed one of three approaches: the use of commutation tables, the current payment technique, or the expected value method.

Commutation tables extend the life table by tabulating special functions of age and rate of interest, as Anderson (1999) further considers. Ratios of commutation table functions allow an actuary to evaluate APV for standard insurances. However, commutation table usage has become less prominent in the computer era. In fact, these tables are not flexible enough and their usage is computationally inefficient. Therefore, the **lifecontingencies** package does not use the commutation table approach to evaluate APVs.

The current payment technique calculates the APV of a life contingency insurance,  $\bar{Z}$ , as the scalar product of three vectors:  $\bar{Z} = \langle \bar{c} \bullet \bar{v} \rangle \bullet \bar{p}$ ; this uses the vector of all possible uncertain cash flows,  $\bar{c}$ , the vector of discount factors,  $\bar{v}$ , and the vector of cash flow probabilities,  $\bar{p}$ . The **lifecontingencies** package implements the current payment technique by using actuarial functions listed in Table 5 to evaluate APVs. Finally, the expected value approach models  $\bar{Z}$  as the scalar product of two vectors:  $\bar{Z} = \langle \bar{p}k \bullet \bar{x} \rangle$ .  $\bar{p}k$  is  $Pr[\tilde{K} = k]$ , the probability that the future curtate lifetime will be exactly  $k$  years, where  $\bar{x}$  is the present value of benefits due under the policy term if  $\tilde{K} = k$ . **rLifeContingencies** and **rLifeContingenciesXyz** implement the expected value approach to generate  $\tilde{Z}$  variates.

Consider an  $n$  year annuity due. Its APV,  $\ddot{a}_{x:\overline{n}|}$ , using the commutation table approach is reported in Equation 9, while Equation 10 reports the same APV using the current payment

technique. Finally, Equation 11 calculates the APV using the expected value approach.

$$\text{APV} = \frac{N_x - N_{x+n}}{D_x} \quad (9)$$

$$\text{APV} = \sum_{k=0}^{\min(\omega-x, n)} {}_k p_x * v^k \quad (10)$$

$$\text{APV} = \sum_{k=0}^{\omega-x} \Pr \left[ \tilde{K}_x = k \right] * \ddot{a}_{\min(k, n)} \quad (11)$$

In order to understand how **lifepackage** implements the current payment technique in its actuarial function, it is worthwhile to look closer at the core of the **axn** function. This function takes the following parameters as inputs: **n**, the term of the annuity; **k** the fractional payment frequency; **x** the annuitant age; **m**, the deferring period. Then, it defines:

1. The vector of possible payments,  $\bar{c}$ , by

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

2. The vector timing of payments, by

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

3. The vector of payment probability,  $\bar{p}$ , by

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

4. Finally, the three vectors are passed as input parameters to the **presentValue** function as the following code shows:

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

In the examples that follow, the SoA illustrative actuarial table is used in the calculation of premiums and reserves of life contingencies.

The first example values a 40-year insurance on a policyholder aged 25, with benefits payable at the end of the month of death. Equation 12 would determine the benefit premium using the commutation table approach.

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

The following lines of code compute the benefit premium using **UComm**, the commutation technique, and **UCpt**, the current payment technique.



```

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,k=12)
R> c(UComm, UCpt)

[1] 0.04927622 0.04927622

```

If, while the policyholder is alive, the premium is paid in ten equal installments at the beginning of each year instead of a lump sum, then the yearly premium,  $P$ , would be determined as follows:

```

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

[1] 0.006351049

```

The **lifecontingencies** package allows one to evaluate APVs of endowment insurances; this can be calculated for increasing and decreasing life insurances as well. The lines of code that follow will prove the actuarial equivalence expressed by Equation 13 in a computational context.

$$(n + 1) * A_{x:\overline{n}|}^1 = (DA)_{x:\overline{n}|}^1 + (IA)_{x:\overline{n}|}^1 \quad (13)$$

```

R> (10 + 1) * Axn(actuarialtable=soa08Act, x=25, n=10)

[1] 0.1194393

R> DAXn(actuarialtable = soa08Act, x=25, n=10) +
+ IAXn(actuarialtable = soa08Act, x=25, n=10)

[1] 0.1194393

```

### *Life annuity examples*

Life contingent annuities form sequences of payments whose occurrence and duration depend the policyholder's future lifetime. The few examples that follow demonstrate how the **lifecontingencies** package can directly compute the APV for typical life contingencies using either bundled functions or classical commutation tables.

Equation 14 expresses the full premium of a ten-year deferred annuity-due for a policyholder aged 75 by means of commutation functions.

$$U = {}_{10|}\ddot{a}_{75} = \frac{N_{85}}{D_{75}} \quad (14)$$

```
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 premium were paid by means of five annual payments as long as the insured were alive, Equation 14 would be rewritten as Equation 15.

$${}_5P({}_{10|\ddot{a}}_{75}) = \frac{{}_{10|\ddot{a}}_{75}}{\ddot{a}_{75:\overline{5}|}} = \frac{\frac{N_{85}}{D_{75}}}{\frac{N_{75}-N_{80}}{D_{75}}} \quad (15)$$

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

```
[1] 0.2854726
```

```
R> PComm <- with(soa08ActDf, (Nx[86]/Dx[76]) /
+                  ((Nx[76]-Nx[81])/Dx[76]))
R> PComm
```

```
[1] 0.2854726
```

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

```
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 obligated future benefit payments due by the insurer and the APV of the projected inflows due by the policyholder. It represents the outstanding net insurer's obligation arising from the underwritten insurance policy. An example will clarify this concept.

The code below evaluates the benefit reserve for a 25 year old 40 - year life insurance of \$ 100,000, with benefits payable at the end of the year of death, assuming a level benefit premium payable at the beginning of each year. The benefit premium and reserve equations for this life contingent insurance are displayed by Equation 16.

$$\begin{aligned} P\ddot{a}_{25:\overline{40}|} &= 100000A_{25:\overline{40}|}^1 \\ {}_tV_{25+t:\overline{n-t}|}^1 &= 100000A_{25+t:\overline{40-t}|}^1 - P\ddot{a}_{25+t:\overline{40-t}|} \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

```

R> P=100000 * Axn(soa08Act,x=25,n=40)/axn(soa08Act,x=25,n=40)
R> reserveFun = function(t) return(100000*Axn(soa08Act,x=25+t,n=40-t)-P*
+                                     axn(soa08Act,x=25+t,n=40-t))
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 1109.885
At time 10 benefit reserve is 2401.368
At time 15 benefit reserve is 3825.879
At time 20 benefit reserve is 5256.249
At time 25 benefit reserve is 6421.796
At time 30 benefit reserve is 6789.186
At time 35 benefit reserve is 5328.029
At time 40 benefit reserve is 0

```

Another reserve calculation example shows the benefit reserve for a deferred annuity-due on a policyholder aged 25 when the annuity is deferred until age 65. The code below shows the reserve calculation while Figure 3 plots the outstanding reserve at the end of each contract year.

```

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)

```

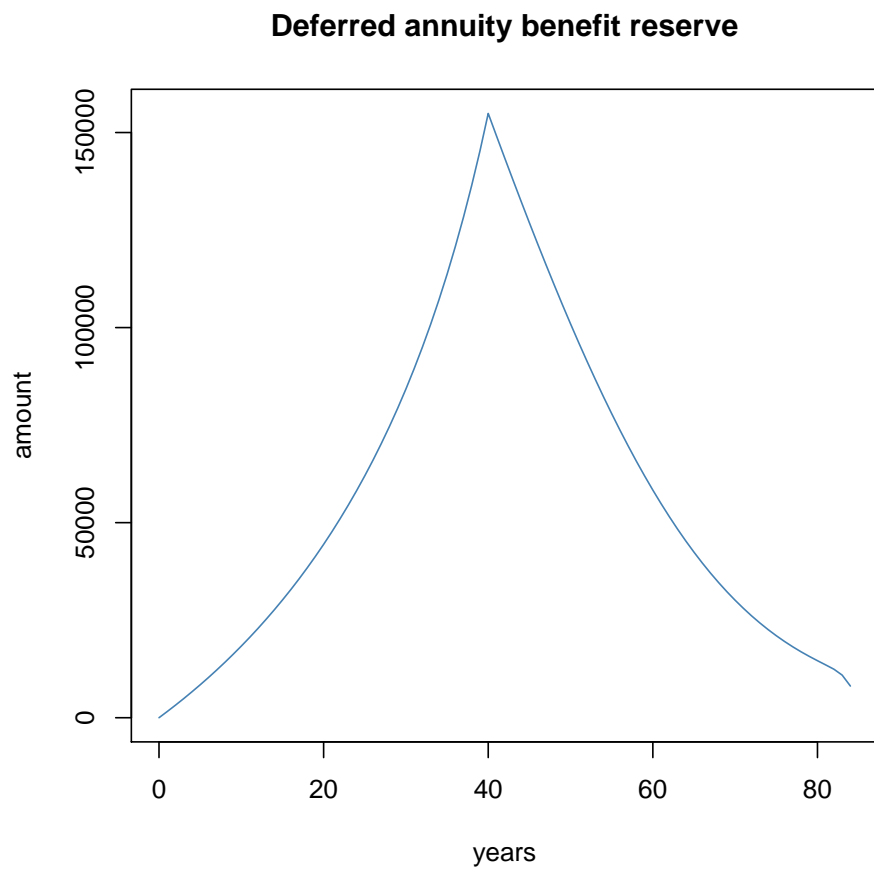


Figure 3: Benefit reserve profile for the exemplified annuity contract

*Expense considerations*

The premium paid by the policyholder usually contains an allowance for expenses and profit loading. Expenses cover policy servicing and the producers' commissions. The insurers' profit load is explicitly taken into account in the benefit premium as a flat amount, or, sometimes, as a percentage of the final premium. In other cases implicit profit loading is generated by using demographic and financial assumptions more prudentially than would be necessary. The equivalence principle can be extended to both the gross premium,  $G$ , and the expense augmented reserve,  ${}_tV^E$ , when expense allowances are taken into account by using Equation 17.

$$\begin{aligned} G &= \text{APV (Benefits)} + \text{APV (Expenses)} \\ {}_tV^E &= \text{APV (Benefits)} + \text{APV (Expenses)} - \text{APV (Gross Premium)} \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

The following example shows how an expense loaded premium  $G$  is calculated for a \$ 100,000 whole life insurance on a 35 year old policyholder. 10% of premium expense per year, 25 policy expenses per year, and annual maintenance expense of 2.5 per 1,000 units of capital are assumed.

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

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

```
[1] 1234.712
```

*Insurances and annuities on two lives*

The package provides functions designed to evaluate life insurances and annuities on two lives. The following example checks the actuarial mathematics identity on joint and last survival status annuities expressed by Equation 18.

$$a_{\overline{xy}} = a_x + a_y - a_{xy} \quad (18)$$

```
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
```

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

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

[1] 2.695232
```

#### 4.4. Stochastic analysis

This last section illustrates some stochastic analysis that can be performed by the **lifecontingencies** package, in both demographic ( Section 4.4.1 ) and life insurance contexts ( Section 4.4.2 ).

##### *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 the **lifecontingencies** package to draw a sample from either  $\tilde{K}_x$  or  $\tilde{T}_x$ . Drawing from  $K_x$  is quite simple: the distribution of the curtate future lifetime is defined as  $\Pr \left[ \tilde{K}_x = t \right] = \frac{d_{x+t}}{\sum_{j=0}^{\omega-x} l_{x+j}}$ , and it is passed as a **prob** parameter to base R **sample**

function. For example, the code below shows how the **rLife** function can be used to draw a sample of size five from the curtate future lifetime of a policyholder aged 45 as implied by the SOA life table.

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

[1] 40 18 29 12 51
```

**rLifexyz** represents the multiple lives extension of the **rLife** function. It returns a matrix of sampled expected future lifetimes of  $J$  policyholders given a list of  $J$  lifetables. The simulation approach is useful in evaluating demographic quantities when the analytical approach is not feasible. One example could be the expected years of widowhood, which Equation 19 defines.  $\tilde{T}_x$  and  $\tilde{T}_y$  in Equation 19 stand for complete future lifetimes for the husband and the wife respectively.

$$E \left[ \tilde{W}_y \right] = \max \left( 0, \tilde{T}_y - \tilde{T}_x \right) \quad (19)$$

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

```
R> futureLifetimes <- as.data.frame(rLifexyz(n=numSim,
+           tablesList=list(husband=ips55M,wife=ips55F),
+           x=c(68,65), type="Tx"))
R> names(futureLifetimes) <- c("husband","wife")
```

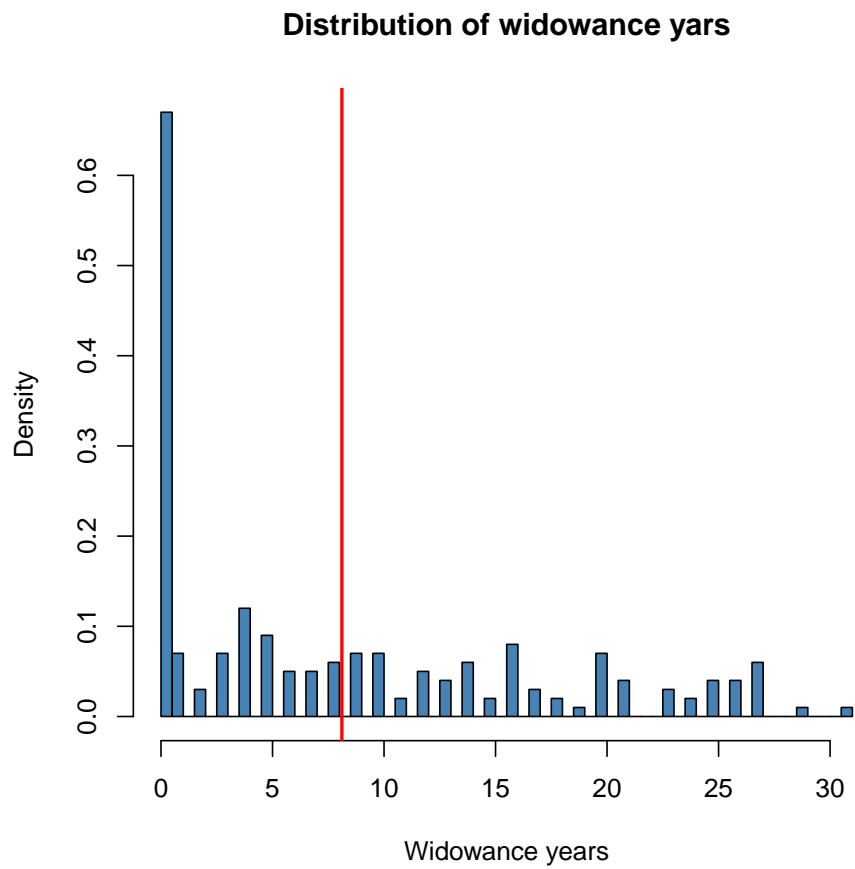


Figure 4: Years of widowance distribution, where the red line represents the expected value.

```
R> temp <- futureLifetimes$wife - futureLifetimes$husband
R> futureLifetimes$widowance <- sapply(temp, max,0)
R> mean(futureLifetimes$widowance)
```

```
[1] 8.11
```

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

### *Actuarial mathematics examples*

The present value of the future benefits cash flows distribution,  $\tilde{Z}$ , is a random variable. It is a function of both the interest rate and the indicator variables which are determined by the life status of the insured. Both of these quantities can be deemed stochastic. However, interest rates are considered deterministic within the framework of the current version of **lifecontingencies** package.

The generation of  $n$ -size variates from  $\tilde{Z}$  is performed by the following algorithm:

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

The code below shows the internal function `.faxn`, which returns the present value of a life contingent insurance. `.faxn` is internally called by the `rLifeContingencies` function, as 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, and the fractional payment frequency respectively.

```
.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 contingency insurance functions return the APV,  $E[\tilde{Z}]$ , as a default value. The functions in Table 5 compute APVs by using the current payment technique. Another possible approach for evaluating APVs, even if computationally inefficient, could be to draw a sample from the underlying  $\tilde{Z}$  distribution and compute its sample mean.

Every function in Table 5 returns a sample of size one if the `type` parameter default value, "EV" ( expected value), is overridden by the string "ST" ( stochastic).



However, when samples of greater size are required, the most straightforward approach is the `rLifeContingencies` function. The code below shows how to generate  $\tilde{Z}$  variates from either term life insurances, increasing term insurances, temporary annuities, or endowment insurances respectively. For each example, the lack of bias is verified by comparing the mean of the sample with the theoretical APV using a classical t - test. All examples refer to an individual aged 20 with a 40 year insurance. 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] 0.9902633 0.3826659 0.4360037 0.2228864
```

The full distribution of a life contingent insurance variable  $\tilde{Z}$ , can be used to compute premiums using the percentile premium principle. Under this approach, the premium is set to

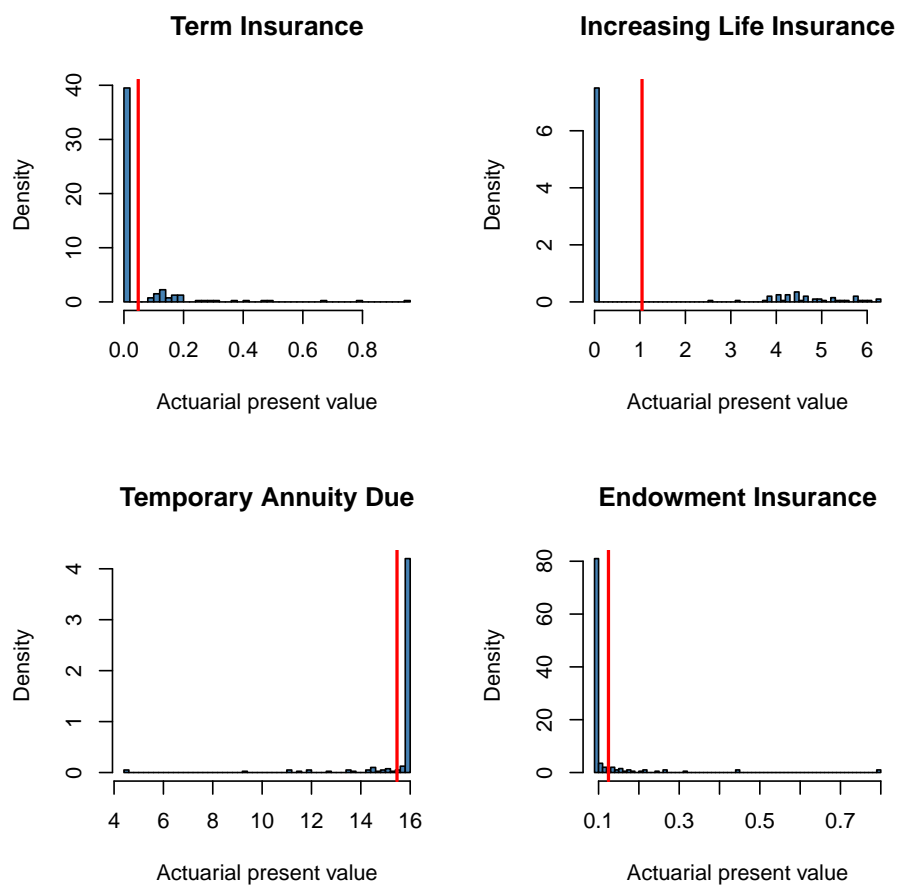


Figure 5: Life insurance stochastic variables distributions. Red vertical line represents APV.

ensure that the insurer will suffer financial loss with a sufficiently low probability (made explicit by the percentile).

An example will clarify the concept. For a 40 - year insurance on a single policyholder aged 25, the actuarial present value of benefits, i.e. the expected value of discounted future benefits, would be

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

```
[1] 0.0479709
```

while the benefit premium at the 90th percentile, that is, the premium that would make the insurer incur an underwriting loss with 10% probability, would be

```
R> samples <- rLifeContingencies(n=numSim, lifecontingency = "Axn",
+                               object= soa08Act, x=25,t=40,paralle=TRUE)
R> pct90Pr <- as.numeric(quantile(samples,.90))
R> pct90Pr
```

```
[1] 0.1461862
```

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, as computed below.

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

```
[1] 0.05250107
```

The final example in this paper shows how the stochastic functions bundled in the **lifecontingencies** package can be used to make an actuarial appraisal of embedded benefits.

Suppose a corporation grants its 100 employees life insurance benefits equal to their annual salary and payable at the month of death. Moreover, suppose that:

1. The expected value and the standard deviation of the salary are \$ 50,000 and \$ 15,000 respectively and the salaries follow a log-normal distribution.
2. The distribution of the employees' age is uniform on [25,65]. Assume 65 is the 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, or the fair value of the insured benefits according to both IFRS accounting standards and risk margin measure. In this example, the risk margin measure, which is the difference between the 75th percentile and the best estimate, will be used. IFRS standards ([Post, Grandl, Schmidl, and Dorfman 2007](#)) define the fair value of an insurance liability as the sum of its best estimate and its risk margin.

In the initial part of the example, we set up the parameter of the model and configured the parallel computation facility available with the package **parallel**. The code parallelization has been adapted from examples found in the ([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

[[3]]
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] 29011.67

R> riskMargin

[1] 14249.83

R> totalBookedCost

[1] 43261.5

```

## 5. Discussion

### 5.1. Advantages, limitations, and future perspectives

The **lifecontingencies** package allows actuaries to perform demographic, financial and actuarial mathematics calculations within R; in particular, life contingent insurance contracts can be priced and reserved. In addition, a peculiar feature of **lifecontingencies** is its ability to generate variates from the future life time and the underlying stochastic distributions of life contingent insurances .

One of the most significant limitations of the most recent (0.9.7) **lifecontingenciess** package release is that only single decrements tables can be handled. In addition, continuous-time life contingent models are currently not handled explicitly.

We expect to remove such limitations in the future. In addition, we expect to provide coerce methods for packages that specialize in demographic analysis, like **demography** and **LifeTables**. Furthermore, we wish to allow easier sharing of analyses with interest rate modelling

packages like **termstreR**.

Finally, code optimization and improvement is carried out continuously. The extension of parallel computation features, memory usage profiling, and the use of C or C++ code fragments in select parts of the code have been planned for the near future.

## 5.2. Accuracy

The accuracy of the calculations has been verified by checking numerical examples reported in Bowers *et al.* (1997) textbook and in the lecture notes of Actuarial Mathematics taken by the author years ago at The Catholic University of Milan (Mazzoleni 2000). The numerical results are identical to those reported in the cited references for most functions, with the exception of fractional payment annuities; for these, the answer is only reported up to the fifth decimal. The reason for such inaccuracy is that the package calculates the APV using the direct sum of fractional survival probabilities, while the results reported in the cited references are obtained by closed formulas.

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

## Acknowledgments

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### Affiliation:

Giorgio Alfredo Spedicato

StatisticalAdvisor

Via Firenze 11 20037 Italy

Telephone: +39/334/6634384

E-mail: [lifecontingencies@statisticaladvisor.com](mailto:lifecontingencies@statisticaladvisor.com)

URL: [www.statisticaladvisor.com](http://www.statisticaladvisor.com)