

# ACTUARIAL MATHEMATICS NOTES

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## 1. CLASS 01.09.2020

### 1.1. General Introduction.

- introduction of professor
- this is course 1 of 2
- quite popular elective course – he is not sure why
- we'll dig deep inside the workings of insurance and the like
- it's a very well paid profession
- who is an actuary:
  - completely independent professional
  - actuarial association assigns audits to actuaries
  - basically a type of auditor
  - actuarial expertise is needed to make investments
- this course will teach us the basics
- to become an actuary, you will have to pass 6 exams, we'll learn stuff for the first 2
- re-insurance: some of the richest companies in the world
- Parmenter is the main text book
- **course content:** chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4

### 1.2. Accumulation Function.

- the simplest financial transaction is an investment

- **principal:** initial investment
- **accumulated value:** total amount the money grows to
- **Amount Function:** amount of money at time  $t$  from investment of the principal –  $A(t)$ ,  $t$  is measured in years,  $A(0)$  is the principal
- **Accumulation Function:** how much money increases as a percent value, where  $a(0) = 1$  (as there has been no change)

$$a(t) = \frac{A(t)}{A(0)}$$

- accumulation functions can be any function where  $a(0) = 1$ , additionally one would hope that it is increasing
- continuity is not required, depends on how interest is paid – if fractional values of  $t$  make sense it may be continuous, but if interest is paid discretely, it may be stepwise
- three types of accumulation functions
  - (1) amount of interest earned each year is constant – linear graph, simple interest
  - (2) the amount of interest increases over the years – exponential graph, compound interest
  - (3) if interest is paid out at fixed periods of time a piecewise function is used – the amount of interest might be constant or increasing
- **Interest = Accumulated Value - Principal**
- to make this more practical, the *effective rate of interest*  $i$  is used
- $i$  is the interest earned on a principal of 1 over the period of 1 year – amount of interest earned over 1 year divided by the value at the beginning of the year

$$i = a(1) - 1$$

- $i$  can also be calculated with the amount function

$$i = \frac{a(1) - a(0)}{a(0)} = \frac{A(1) - A(0)}{A(0)}$$

- $i$  can be calculated for the  $n$ th year by

$$i = \frac{a(n) - a(n-1)}{a(n-1)} = \frac{A(n) - A(n-1)}{A(n-1)}$$

### 1.3. Simple Interest.

- primarily used between integer periods of time
- $a(t)$  is a straight line here – the increase is linear
- general form of the equation is

$$a(t) = 1 + it$$

- interest earned each year is constant – interest does not earn interest
- if the principal is  $k$  at  $t = 0$

$$A(t) = k(1 + it)$$

- the effective rate of interest is not constant, it decreases over time

$$i_n = \frac{i}{1 + i(n-1)}$$

- **exact simple interest:** count the last day, not the first

$$t = \frac{\text{number of days}}{365}$$

- **ordinary simple interest (Banker's Rule):** count the last day, not the first

$$t = \frac{\text{number of days}}{360}$$

- international markets use ordinary simple interest

## 2. CLASS 03.09.2020

### 2.1. Compound Interest.

- most important special case
- effective interest rate is fixed
- interest earns interest itself
- because the interest affects itself, the function is exponential

$$a(t) = (1 + i)^t, \quad t \geq 0$$

- amount function for compound interest is

$$A(t) = k(1 + i)^t$$

- the effective interest rate for compound interest is constant
- what values to choose for  $t$  is done like with simple interest, either *exact* or *ordinary*
- if we want to find some value between integers, we linearly interpolate it

$$A(t) = A(\lfloor t \rfloor) + (t - \lfloor t \rfloor) \cdot (A(\lceil t \rceil) - A(\lfloor t \rfloor))$$

- to find the time it takes a principal to accumulate to a certain value, use logs

$$t = \frac{\log\left(\frac{\text{future value}}{\text{principal}}\right)}{\log(1 + i)}$$

- compound and simple interest graphs only intersect at  $(0, 1)$  and at  $(1, 1 + i)$ , this furthermore gives two cases

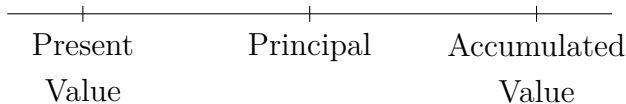
$$\begin{cases} \text{simple i.} > \text{compound i.} & \text{for } 0 < t < 1 \\ \text{compound i.} > \text{simple i.} & \text{for } t > 1 \end{cases}$$

## 3. CLASS 08.09.2020

## 3.1. Present Value and Discount.

3.1.1. *Present Value.*

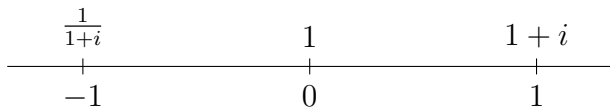
- we define the *present value  $t$  years in the past* as the amount of money that will accumulate to the principal in  $t$  years
- this is the reverse of what we have been calculating thus far



- $v$  is the amount of money needed to accumulate to 1 within 1 year

$$v = \frac{1}{1+i}$$

- how  $v$  works can be seen in this timeline that shows the evolution of  $a(t)$



- for compound interest,  $v$  is

$$v^t = \frac{1}{(1+i)^t} \quad (3.1)$$

- this is simply an inverted formula of  $a(t)$  for compound interest
- for simple interest the present value is called  $x$

$$x = \frac{1}{1+it}$$

3.1.2. *Discount.*

- imagine \$100 was invested and accumulated to \$112 in 1 year
- \$100 was the starting figure and interest (\$12) was added to it

- we could look at it the other way around and say \$112 is the starting value and at the start of the year \$12 was subtracted from it
- \$12 here is an amount of *discount*
- it's the same as interest, only the point of view is different
- discount focuses on the end of the year, so it is defined as

$$d = \frac{a(1) - 1}{a(1)}$$

- this only differs from the definition of  $i$  in the denominator, which is  $a(0)$  for  $i$  because the beginning of the year is the focus
- effective rate of discount in the  $n$ th year is

$$d_n = \frac{a(n) - a(n-1)}{a(n)}$$

- some identities relating to  $i$  are

$$d < i$$

$$d = \frac{i}{1+i}$$

$$1 - d = v$$

$$i = \frac{d}{1-d}$$

- now the rules for finding the present and accumulated values are reversed

$$\text{present value : } (1-d)^t$$

$$\text{accumulated value : } \frac{1}{(1-d)^t}$$

## 4. CLASS 10.09.2020

## 4.1. Nominal Rate of Interest.

- $a(t) = (1 + i)^t$  will be assumed in this section
- effective rates of interest can be given for any length of time
- to apply our previous formulae, we need to make sure that  $t$  is the number of *effective interest periods*
- generally, these periods are not years, but shorter periods
- a yearly rate of 12% "convertible semiannually" actually means that you pay 6% twice a year – in this case it would actually be 12.36%
- the effective interest rate increases the shorter the intervals between payments are
- the 12% is a **nominal rate of interest**, meaning it is convertible over a period other than 1 year
- $i^{(m)}$  denotes the nominal rate of interest convertible  $m$  times a year

$$1 + i = \left[ 1 + \frac{i^{(m)}}{m} \right]^m$$

- we can also define a nominal rate of discount  $d^{(m)}$

$$1 - d = \left[ 1 - \frac{d^{(m)}}{m} \right]^m$$

- we also see that

$$\left[ 1 + \frac{i^{(m)}}{m} \right]^m = \left[ 1 - \frac{d^{(n)}}{n} \right]^{-n}$$

## 4.2. Force of Interest.

- our goal is to find nominal rates of interest that are equivalent to a certain effective annual rate of interest
- for example  $i = 0.12$  with the functions above gives the values



$m$	1	2	5	10	50
$i^{(m)}$	0.12	0.1166	0.1146	0.1140	0.1135

- we see that  $i^{(m)}$  decreases as  $m$  increases
- $m$  is approaching a limit, using L'Hopital's rule we can find it

$$\delta = \ln(1 + i)$$

$$e^\delta = 1 + i$$

- $\delta$  is called the **force of interest**
- it represents the nominal rate of interest that is convertible *continuously* – serving as a good approximation of  $i^{(m)}$  for large  $m$ , like daily conversions
- the second form of  $\delta$  is useful because it makes conversions easier
- the derivative of  $(1 + i)^t$  by  $t$  ( $D$ ) can be rewritten to be

$$\delta = \ln(1 + i) = \frac{D[(1 + i)^t]}{(1 + i)^t} = \frac{D[a(t)]}{a(t)}$$

- for compound interest  $\delta = \ln(1 + i)$ , but for arbitrary accumulation functions it is

$$\delta_t = \frac{D[a(t)]}{a(t)}$$

$$\delta_t = D[\ln(a(t))]$$

- if  $\delta_r$  is given and we want to find  $a(t)$  we use

$$a(t) = e^{\int_0^t \delta_r dr}$$

- we note that  $i > \delta$
- the force of discount is the same as the force of interest

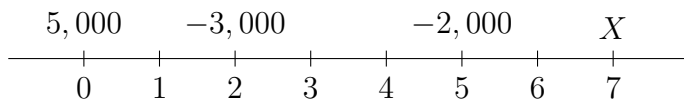
## 5. CLASS 15.09.2020

## 5.1. Equation of Value.

- interest problems only involve 4 quantities:
  - (1) principal value
  - (2) accumulated value
  - (3) period of investment
  - (4) rate of interest
- each one of them can be calculated if the other 3 are known
- when multiple investments are made, the time diagram is the most important tool
- then an *equation of value* is set up to find the value
- again, be careful with interpolation between integral durations with compound interest
- finding an appropriate rate of interest such that money increases generally involves logarithms involves

## 5.1.1. Example 1.

- Alice borrows 5,000 at 18% convertible semiannually
- after 2 years, she pays back 3,000
- 3 years after that she pays 2,000
- how much does she owe 7 years after taking out the loan?
- time diagram:



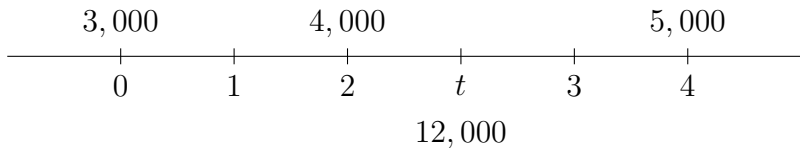
- because the interest rate is convertible semiannually, our nominal rate is  $i = 0.09$
- using the diagram we see

$$X = 5,000(1.09)^{14} - 3,000(1.09)^{10} - 2,000(1.09)^4 = 6,783.38$$

- in the same way payments here are negative loans, withdrawals can be seen as negative deposits

5.1.2. *Example 2.*

- John borrows 3,000
- 2 years later he borrows another 4,000
- 2 years after that he borrows 5,000
- $i = 0.18$
- at what time would a single loan of 12,000 be equivalent? – at what time would the amount owed be the same as a loan of 12,000?
- draw a timeline:



- solution:

$$12,000v^t = 3,000 + 4,000v^2 + 5,000v^4$$

$$v = \frac{1}{1.18}$$

$$v^t = \frac{3 + 4v^2 + 5v^4}{12}$$

$$t = \frac{\ln(3 + 4v^2 + 5v^4) - \ln(12)}{\ln(v)}$$

$$t = 2.11789$$

## 6. CLASS 24.09.2020

## 6.1. Arithmetic and geometric sequences.

## 6.1.1. Arithmetic sequences.

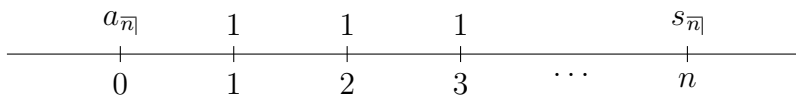
- $a, a + d, a + 2d, a + 3d$
- $n$ th term:  $a_n = a + (n - 1)d$
- sum of first  $n$  terms:  $S_n = \frac{n}{2} [2a + (n - 1)d]$

## 6.1.2. Geometric sequences.

- $a, ar, ar^2, ar^3$
- $n$ th term:  $a_n = ar^{n-1}$
- sum of first  $n$  terms:  $S_n = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{a-r}$

## 6.2. Basic Results.

- *annuity* – payments made of regular intervals
- generally, all the payments are of the same magnitude
- annuity is generally a payment of 1 over  $n$  periods
- we do have to find the equivalent rate of interest for the payment periods
- a payment plan for a general annuity



- present value of the annuity is  $a_{\overline{n}|}$

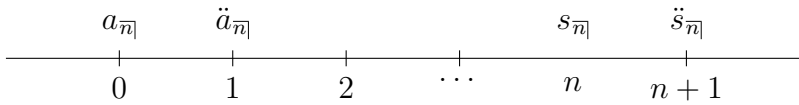
$$a_{\overline{n}|} = \frac{v(1 - v^n)}{1 - v} = \frac{1 - v^n}{i}$$

- accumulated value of the annuity is  $s_{\overline{n}|}$

$$s_{\overline{n}|} = a_{\overline{n}|}(1 + i)^n = \frac{(1 + i)^n - 1}{i}$$

- to find actual value, we can multiply the present value with the actual value

- other symbols and values for annuities



- present value of the annuity described on the first payment

$$\ddot{a}_{\overline{n}|}$$

$$\ddot{a}_{\overline{n}|} = \frac{1 - v^n}{d}$$

- accumulated value one period after the last payment  $\ddot{s}_{\overline{n}|}$

$$\ddot{s}_{\overline{n}|} = \frac{(1 + i)^n - 1}{d}$$

- we note two more identities

$$\ddot{s}_{\overline{n}|} = \ddot{a}_{\overline{n}|}(1 + i)^n$$

$$1 = d \cdot \ddot{a}_{\overline{n}|} + v^n$$

## 7. CLASS 06.10.2020

7.1. **Annuities.**

- annuities can be viewed from many different angles with the same result
- *annuity-immediate* are payments at the end of periods
- *annuity-due* are payments made at the beginning of periods

7.2. **Perpetuities.**

- annuity whose payments continue forever

$$\begin{aligned} a_{\overline{\infty}|} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{\overline{n}|} \\ &= \frac{1}{i} \end{aligned}$$

- we also have the perpetuity at the time of the first payment

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{a}_{\overline{\infty}|} &= a_{\overline{\infty}|}(1+i) \\ &= \frac{1}{d} \end{aligned}$$

7.3. **Unknown time and unknown rate of interest.**

- a fund of 5,000 will be used to award scholarships of 500 for as long as possible. If  $i = 0.09$ , how many scholarships can be awarded?

$$500 \cdot a_{\overline{n}|} \leq 5,000 < 500 \cdot a_{\overline{n+1}|}$$

$$a_{\overline{n}|} \leq 10 < a_{\overline{n+1}|}$$

$$a_{\overline{n}|} = 10$$

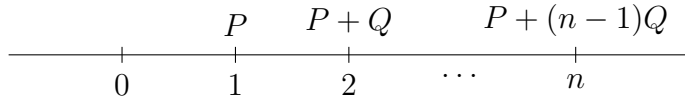
$$\frac{1 - v^n}{i} = 10$$

$$n = \frac{\ln(1 - 10i)}{\ln(v)}$$

## 8. CLASS 13.10.2020

### 8.1. Varying Annuities.

- general type of a varying annuity



- we can find the value 1 year before the first payment with

$$A = Pa_{\overline{n}|} + Q \left[ \frac{a_{\overline{n}|} - nv^n}{i} \right]$$

- the accumulated value of these payments is

$$A(1+i)^n = Ps_{\overline{n}|} + Q \left[ \frac{s_{\overline{n}|} - n}{i} \right]$$

#### 8.1.1. Increasing Annuity.

- here  $P = Q = 1$
- the present value for this annuity is

$$(Ia)_{\overline{n}|} = \frac{\ddot{a}_{\overline{n}|} - nv^n}{i}$$

- the accumulated value for this annuity is

$$(Is)_{\overline{n}|} = \frac{\ddot{s}_{\overline{n}|} - n}{i}$$

#### 8.1.2. Decreasing Annuity.

- here  $P = 1$  and  $Q = -1$
- the present value for this annuity is

$$(Da)_{\overline{n}|} = \frac{n - a_{\overline{n}|}}{i}$$

- the accumulated value for this annuity is

$$(Ds)_{\overline{n}|} = \frac{n(1+i)^n - s_{\overline{n}|}}{i}$$

8.1.3. *Geometric Annuity.*

- here  $Q$  changes in a geometric way, by  $c$
- then the sum of this annuity can be found with

$$r = \frac{1+i}{c}$$

$$S_n = Q(c)^{n-1} \left[ \frac{1-r^n}{1-r} \right]$$

- to find the present value

$$r = \frac{1+i}{c}$$

$$P_n = Q(c) \left[ \frac{1-r^n}{1-r} \right]$$



## 9. CLASS 15.10.2020

## 9.1. Amortization.

- repay a loan by the *amortization method* – installment payments at periodic intervals
- knowing the outstanding principal is important because you need to know how much you owe
- *prospective method*: outstanding principal is the present value of the outstanding payments at that time
- *retrospective method*: original principal accumulated until then minus the accumulated value of all the payments made until then
- this means that we either need to find  $a_{\overline{n}|}$  or "original principal  $s_{\overline{n}|}$  – payments  $s_{\overline{n}|}$ "

## 9.2. Amortization Schedules.

- a payment  $X$  can be divided into its principal and interest parts like so:
  - (1) know or find the outstanding principal 1 time interval before  $X$ , let's call it  $P$
  - (2) the interest portion of  $X$  is  $iP$
  - (3) the principal portion of  $X$  is  $X - iP$
- if a loan is paid back in equal payments of  $X$  for  $n$  years, the interest part of the  $k$ th payment is

$$X(1 - v^{n-k+1})$$

- the principal part of the  $k$ th payment is

$$Xv^{n-k+1}$$

- an amortization schedule is simply a table showing the payments and how they are made up

Duration	Payment	Interest	Principal Repaid	Outstanding Principal
0				1,000.00
1	150	110.00	40.00	960.00
2	150	105.60	44.40	915.60
3	150	100.72	49.28	866.32
$\vdots$	150	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$
12	150	23.93	126.07	91.51
13	101.58	10.07	91.51	0.00

## 10. CLASS 22.10.2020

10.1. **Sinking Funds.**

- you pay interest each month but nothing more
- at the end you simply pay the full loan amount back
- generally you invest the money into a **sinking fund** in the meantime – if you get a higher interest rate than you pay, you could even make money

10.2. **Yield Rates.**

- only the payments made directly by or to the person(s) should be considered for that person(s)'s yield rate
- simply solve the problem you are given using a calculator