
Property-liability Insurance Underwriting Cycles

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Defining Underwriting Profits

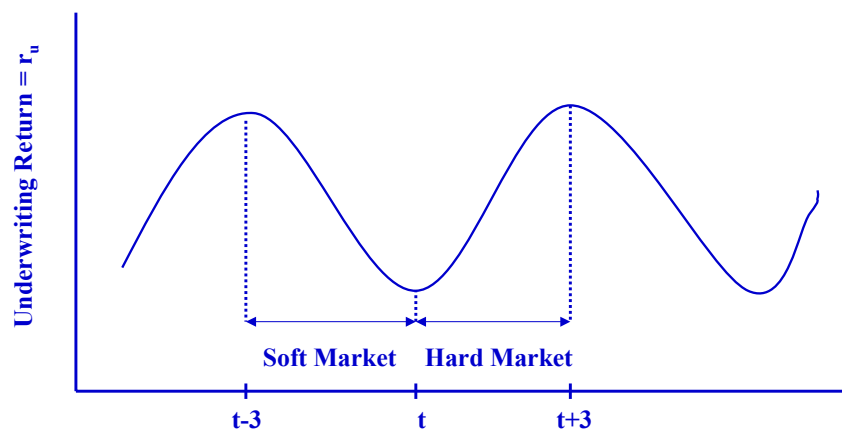
Underwriting profits = Premiums – Losses – Expenses

$$\begin{aligned} r_U &= \text{Return on underwriting} = \text{Und profits/Premiums} \\ &= 1 - \text{Losses/Premiums} - \text{Expenses/Premiums} \\ &= 1 - \text{Loss Ratio} - \text{Expense Ratio} \end{aligned}$$

$r_U > 0$ Underwriting Profit

$r_U < 0$ Underwriting Loss

Underwriting Cycles: Hard and Soft Markets



Why Underwriting Return Doesn't Tell the Whole Story

Net Income = Underwriting Income (UI)
+ Investment Income (II)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Return on Equity} &= \text{Net Income/Equity} \\ &= \text{UI/Equity} + \text{II/Equity} \\ &= r_U * (\text{P/E}) + A_I \\ &= r_U * (\text{P/E}) + r_A * (\text{A/E}) \end{aligned}$$

More About Return on Equity

$$\text{Return on Equity} = r_U * (P/E) + r_A * (A/E)$$

P/E = premiums to surplus ratio (insurance leverage)

A/E = assets to surplus ratio (investment leverage)

Implication of ROE Equation

$$\text{Return on Equity} = r_U * (P/E) + r_A * (A/E)$$

- r_U can be negative and ROE can still be positive as long as r_A is positive and investment earnings are sufficiently large

Further Analysis of ROE

$$\text{Return on Equity} = r_U * (P/E) + r_A * (A/E)$$

Assume that $A = P + E$ and define $k = P/E$,

$$\text{ROE} = r_U * k + r_A * (P+E)/E$$

$$= r_U * k + r_A * (k+1) = r_A + k*(r_U+r_A)$$

Implications of ROE Model

$$\text{ROE} = r_A + k*(r_U+r_A)$$

- If $P = 0$ (firm writes no insurance), $\text{ROE} = r_A$ and the firm is a mutual fund (Recall that $k = P/S$)
- If $P > 0$, $\text{ROE} \geq r_A$ as long as $r_U \geq -r_A$

Why r_u Should Be Negative I

Assume:

- Premiums (P) paid at time 0
- Losses (L) paid at time 1
- Interest rate = r_D
- Expenses = 0
- L is not random

Then: $P = L/(1+r_D)$

Why r_u Should Be Negative II

- Loss ratio = $L/P = L/[L/(1+r_D)] = 1+r_D$
- Underwriting return = $r_u = 1 - \text{Loss Ratio}$
- $r_u = -r_D$
- $\therefore r_D = \text{interest paid for use of policyholder funds}$

ROE Model Revisited

- Because $r_U = -r_D$ in competitive equilibrium,
- $ROE = r_A + k*(r_U+r_A) = r_A + k*(-r_D+r_A)$
- $\rho = r_A - r_D = \text{“net interest margin,”}$ and
- $ROE \geq r_A$ as long as $r_A - r_D > 0$

Possible Sources of Profit Cycles

Recall: $ROE = r_A + k*(r_U+r_A)$

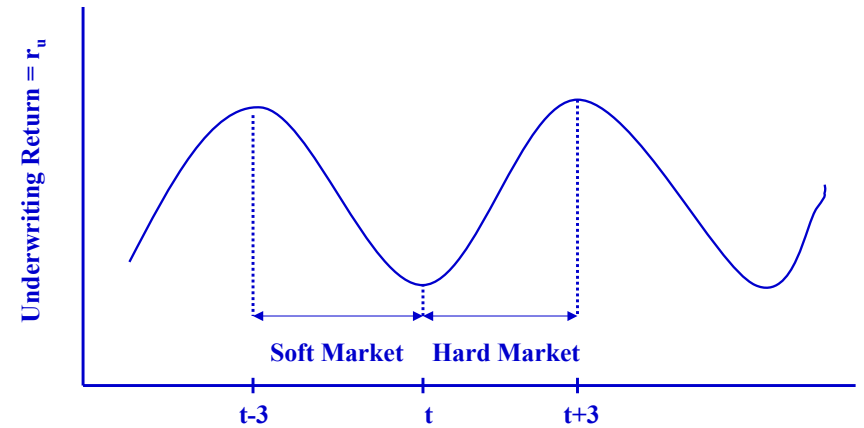
$$r_U = 1 - \text{Losses/Premiums}$$

- ◆ ROE cycle could come from cycles in:
 - r_A ,
 - Losses, and/or
 - Premiums
- ◆ Expenses are not cyclical so it is safe to ignore expenses for modeling purposes

Research Findings:

- ◆ Losses are not cyclical
- ◆ Cycles primarily come from premium changes triggered by
 - Interest rate shocks
 - Loss shocks

Recall the Underwriting Cycle Graph



Mathematical Representation of the Cycle

$$r_{u,t} = a_0 + a_1 r_{u,t-1} + a_2 r_{u,t-2} + \omega_t$$

Cycle is present if:

- $a_1 > 0$
- $a_2 < 0$
- $a_1^2 + 4 a_2 < 0$

Formula for Cycle Period

Recall: $r_{u,t} = a_0 + a_1 r_{u,t-1} + a_2 r_{u,t-2} + \omega_t$

Assume $a_1 > 0$, $a_2 < 0$, and $a_1^2 + 4 a_2 < 0$

Then Period = $P = 2\pi / \text{acos}(a_1 / (2\sqrt{-a_2}))$ _____

where $\text{acos} = \text{arccosine}$ [if $\cos(x) = r$, then $\text{arccosine}(r) = x$]

Example: If $a_1 = 0.9$ and $a_2 = -0.8$, then $a_1^2 + 4 a_2$
and $P = 2\pi / \text{acos}(0.503115) = 6.557$.

Implication of Cycle Formula

Recall: $r_{u,t} = a_0 + a_1 r_{u,t-1} + a_2 r_{u,t-2} + \omega_t$

If a_1 and a_2 are non-zero, then $r_{u,t}$ is second-order autoregressive, i.e.,

$$E(r_{u,t} | r_{u,t-1}) \neq 0$$

$$E(r_{u,t} | r_{u,t-2}) \neq 0$$

and $r_{u,t}$ is correlated with its own lags.

If we can determine the source of autocorrelation, we may have a clue regarding the cause of cycles.

Rational Expectations I

◆ Now assume that L is random but insurer estimates of $E(L)$ are unbiased so that:

- $L_t = E(L_t) + \epsilon_t$
- $\epsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon)$, i.e., ϵ_t is “white noise”
- $E(\epsilon_t \epsilon_{t-i}) = 0, i \neq 0$

◆ Also assume: $r_D = 0$

Rational Expectations II

Then underwriting profit is:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pi_U &= P - L \\ &= E(L) - L \\ &= E(L) - [E(L) + \epsilon_t] \\ &= -\epsilon_t\end{aligned}$$

$$r_U = \Pi_U / P = -\epsilon_t / P$$

⇒ r_U cannot be autocorrelated under RE, because ϵ_t is white noise

Rational Expectations III

If r_u is empirically observed to be autocorrelated, then:

◆ Insurance pricing does not follow RE, i.e., insurers make systematic pricing errors

or

◆ Autocorrelation enters r_U in some other way

Rational Expectations IV

Assuming that insurers are RE decision makers, i.e., that they utilize all available information in pricing, how could autocorrelation enter observed r_U ? Two possible explanations:

- ◆ Pricing lags
- ◆ Accounting conventions

Insurance Pricing Lags: Pricing at Time t (end of year t)

- ◆ Center of loss data $t - 0.5$
- ◆ Data available to actuaries $t + 0.25$
- ◆ Rates filed with regulator $t + 0.5$
- ◆ Rates approved by regulator $t + 1.0$
- ◆ Average renewal date $t + 1.5$
- ◆ Avg claim under new rates $t + 2.0$
- ◆ Total elapsed time 2.5 years

Rational Pricing With Lags I

Model of loss evolution:

$$L_t = E(L_t) + \epsilon_t + \nu_t$$

where ϵ_t = “transitory” error
 ν_t = “permanent” error

$$\therefore E(L_{t+1}) = E(L_t) + \nu_t$$

Rational Pricing With Lags II

Assume pricing at time t using data that are one year old, i.e., due to lags, insurer does not observe ν_t and sets price as follows:

$$P_{t+1} = E(L_t)$$

Rational Pricing With Lags III

$$\begin{aligned}\Pi_{U,t+1} &= P_{t+1} - L_{t+1} \\ &= E(L_t) - [E(L_{t+1}) + \epsilon_{t+1} + \nu_{t+1}] \\ &= E(L_t) - [E(L_t) + \nu_t + \epsilon_{t+1} + \nu_{t+1}] \\ &= -(\nu_t + \epsilon_{t+1} + \nu_{t+1})\end{aligned}$$

Likewise, $\Pi_{U,t} = -(\nu_{t-1} + \epsilon_t + \nu_t)$

$$\therefore E(\Pi_{U,t+1} \Pi_{U,t}) = E(\nu_t^2) \neq 0$$

Accounting Averaging: 2nd Order Effect

Insurance accounting leads to averaging of prices from different time periods, i.e., reported underwriting profits are:

$$\Pi_{U,t+1}^R = \alpha \Pi_{U,t+1} + (1 - \alpha) \Pi_{U,t}$$

$$\Pi_{U,t+1}^R = f(\nu_{t-1}, \nu_t, \nu_{t+1})$$

and $\therefore \Pi_{U,t+1}^R$ is 2nd order autoregressive, a function of its own lagged values

Implications of Model

With data lags and accounting averaging,

- ◆ Observed r_U will be cyclical, even if insurers price according to rational expectations
- ◆ Therefore, the cycle is at least partly *illusory*

Hypotheses

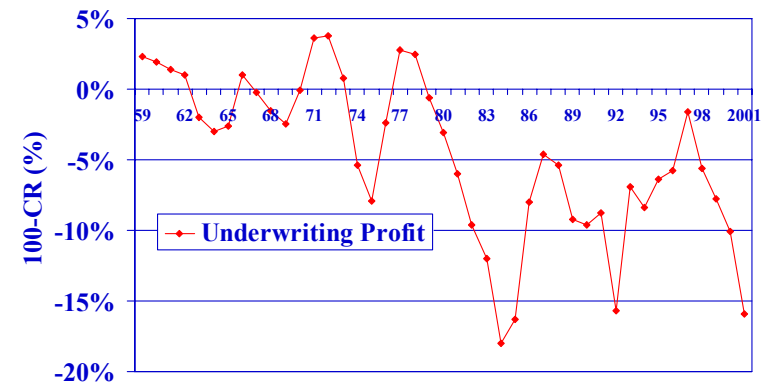
The model predicts that:

- ◆ H1: r_U will be second order autoregressive
- ◆ H2: r_U will be inversely related to interest rates

Traditional Finding

- ◆ Underwriting profits are cyclical
- ◆ The cycle is approximately 6 years in length (Cummins & Outreville 1987, and numerous other researchers)

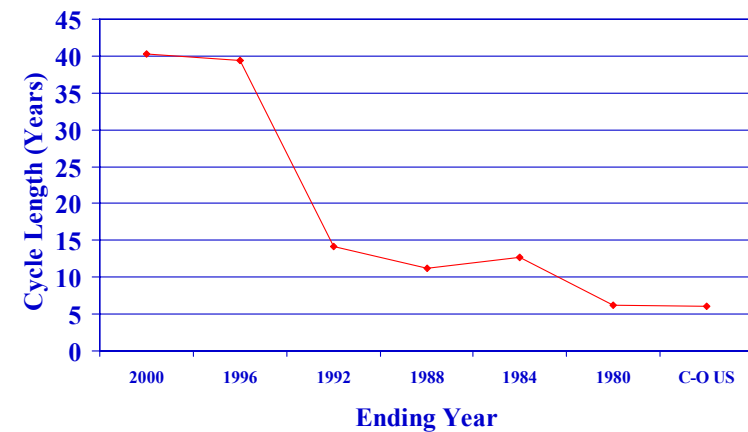
The P/L Underwriting Cycle



Underwriting Profit Regressions

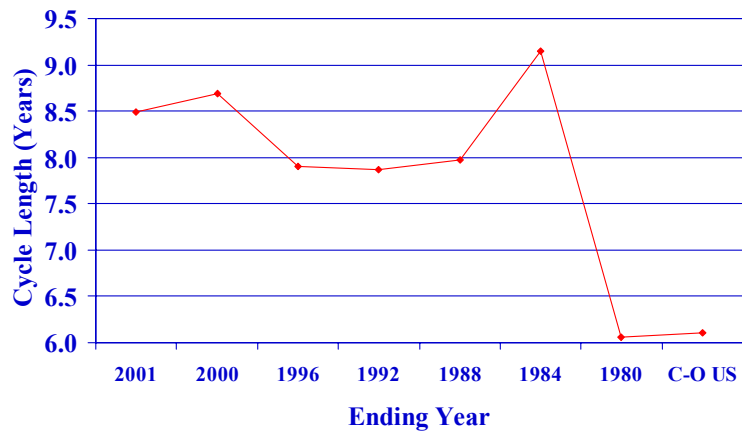
UNDERWRITING PROFIT REGRESSIONS							
1961-1980				1981-2001			
Method: Least Squares				Method: Least Squares			
Sample: 1961-1980				Sample: 1981-2001			
Included observations: 20				Included observations: 21			
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Stat	Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Stat Prob.
C	-0.55	0.36	-1.54	C	-5.55	2.04	-2.72 0.02
ULOSSL1	0.93	0.14	6.63	ULOSSL1	0.66	0.24	2.69 0.02
ULOSSL2	-0.82	0.14	-5.95	ULOSSL2	-0.25	0.23	-1.10 0.45
R-squared	0.755			R-squared	0.333739		
Adjusted R	0.727			Adjusted R	0.255356		
Conditions for Cycle:				Conditions for Cycle:			
a1 > 0	Yes			a1 > 0	Yes		
a2 < 0	Yes			a2 < 0	Yes, not significant		
a1'2 + 4 a2 < 0	Yes			a1'2 + 4 a2 < 0	Yes		
Cycle Period	6.10			Cycle Period	7.35		

The Vanishing Underwriting Cycle? Cycle Length: 1960 to Ending Year

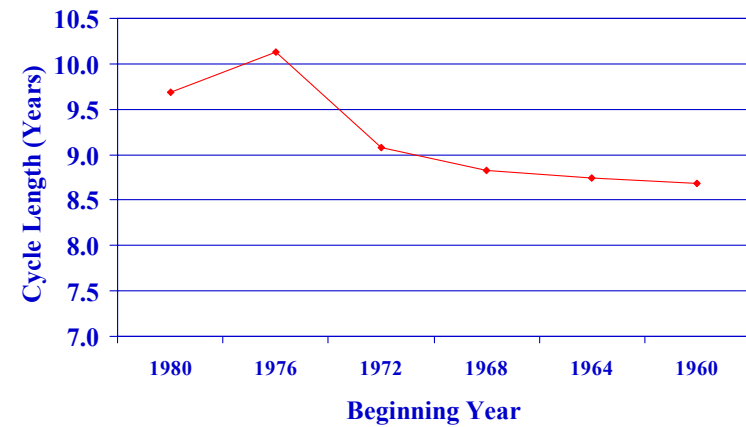


Note: Cycle length from 1960-2001 is undefined (does not exist mathematically).

Time Trend Corrected Cycle Length: 1960 to Ending Year



Time Trend Corrected Cycle Length: 2000 to Beginning Year



Why the Cycle May Be Lengthening or Vanishing

- ◆ Computer technology has reduced data lags
- ◆ Price regulation has become less stringent:
 - ◆ Workers' compensation "loss cost" filings
 - ◆ Commercial lines deregulation
- ◆ Price changes are more frequent due to intensified competition

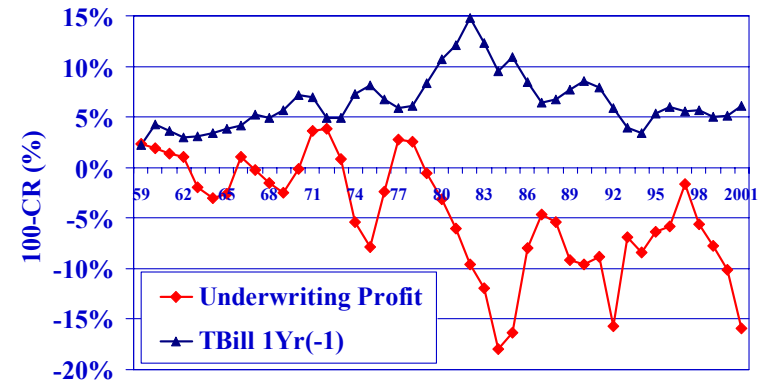
Conclusion: Hypothesis I

- ◆ H1: Underwriting profits are second order autoregressive
- ◆ Result: Mixed support
 - ◆ Strong support prior to 1980s
 - ◆ Cycle may be lengthening
 - ◆ Cycle may be disappearing (2nd order term insignificant in most recent periods)

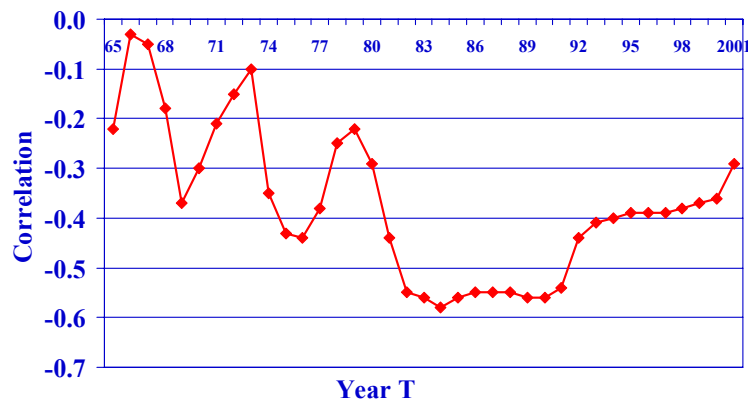
Investigating H2: Interest Rates

- ◆ H2: Underwriting profits are inversely related to interest rates

Underwriting Profit versus 1 Year Treasury Bill Yield (Lagged one year)



Correlation Between Underwriting Profit and T-Bill Rate: 1958-Year T



Underwriting Profit and Interest Rates: AR(1) Regression: 1961-2001

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	6.542	4.151	1.576	0.146
TBILL(-1)	-0.774	0.372	-2.079	0.044
TIME	-0.311	0.128	-2.436	0.042
AR(1)	0.634	0.140	4.531	0.000
R ²	0.674	Mean DepVar		-5.188
Adj R ²	0.647	S.D. DepVar		5.599

Conclusion: Hypothesis 2

- ◆ Strong support: Univariate and multivariate results show an inverse relationship

“Real Cycles”: Hard and Soft Markets

Traditional cycle may be partly illusory and lengthening, but hard and soft markets seem to persist.

- ◆ Hard market: Supply of coverage is limited and prices are high
- ◆ Soft market: Supply of coverage is high and prices are low

Explanations for Hard/Soft Markets I

- ◆ Supply side view (naïve)
 - ◆ When underwriting profits are high, companies cut prices to gain market share and obtain funds to invest (*cash flow underwriting*).
 - ◆ Prices and profits fall until insurers incur “excessive” underwriting losses and are forced to reduce supply and raise prices.

Explanations for Hard/Soft Markets II

- ◆ Supply side view (more sophisticated)
Recall: $ROE = r_A + k*(r_U+r_A) = r_A + k*(-r_D+r_A)$
 - ◆ When net interest margin ($r_A - r_D$) > 0 , insurers cut prices (raise r_D) to gain market share and obtain assets to invest (*cash flow underwriting*).
 - ◆ Due to unexpected interest rate or underwriting shocks, $\Delta r_A < 0$ or $\Delta r_u < 0$, leverage ratios (e.g., premiums/surplus) become “too high”
 - ◆ Insurers cut supply (reduce premium writings) and increase prices to reduce leverage to “more acceptable” levels

Sophisticated Supply Side View: Predictions

- ◆ Hard markets follow adverse interest rate and underwriting shocks
- ◆ Soft markets follow favorable interest rate and underwriting shocks
- ◆ Relatively large changes in leverage ratios trigger market turning points

Underwriting Profit, Interest Rates, and Leverage (Prem/Surplus): 1961-2001

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-1.76	3.26	-0.54	0.592
TBILL1	-1.06	0.28	-3.82	0.0005
TIME	-0.17	0.06	-2.74	0.0095
PS1	5.47	2.19	2.49	0.0174
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R ²	0.568	Mean DepVar		-5.027
Adj R ²	0.533	S.D. DepVar		5.623

Changes In Und Profit, Interest Rates, and (Prem/Surplus): 1961-2001

- ◆ Dependent Variable = Log[CRAD/CRAD(-1)]

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.02	0.01	2.41	0.0225
D[TBILL(-1)]	0.06	0.03	2.16	0.0392
D[Surplus(-1)]	-0.27	0.10	-2.68	0.0119
D[Prem/Surp(-1)]	-0.32	0.11	-3.01	0.0054
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R ²	0.350	Mean DepVar		0.004
Adj R ²	0.283	S.D. DepVar		0.037

Discussion of Regression

- ◆ Hard markets driven by shocks (changes in)
 - ◆ Investment return shocks
 - ◆ Underwriting return shocks
 - ◆ Increases in leverage ratios
- ◆ Regression considers
 - ◆ Change in Combined Ratio
 - ◆ Increases associated with soft markets
 - ◆ Decreases association with hard markets
 - ◆ In response to changes in interest rates, equity, and leverage

Why the Lags?

- ◆ Premiums can't be adjusted instantaneously (see discussion of lags above)
- ◆ Needed to avoid merely modeling accounting relationships, e.g., if underwriting returns are high this year, surplus will go up because end of year surplus is a function of the same year's underwriting profit (loss), lagging helps to deal with this problem

Conclusions: Supply Side View

- ◆ Hypothesis: Hard markets driven by shocks to
 - ◆ Investment return
 - ◆ Underwriting return
 - ◆ Leverage ratios
- ◆ Results
 - ◆ Increases in equity inversely related to combined ratio change – more equity reduces combined ratio, contrary to supply side view
 - ◆ Increases in P/S ratio inversely related to combined ratio change – more leverage reduces combined ratio, supporting supply side view

Conclusions: Supply Side View II

- ◆ Hypothesis: Hard markets driven by shocks to
 - ◆ Investment return
 - ◆ Underwriting return
 - ◆ Leverage ratios
- ◆ Results
 - ◆ Increases in interest rates associated with increase in combined ratio – consistent with pricing model, neutral with respect to supply side view
- ◆ Conclusion – there is mixed evidence regarding the predictions of supply-side interpretation of cycle

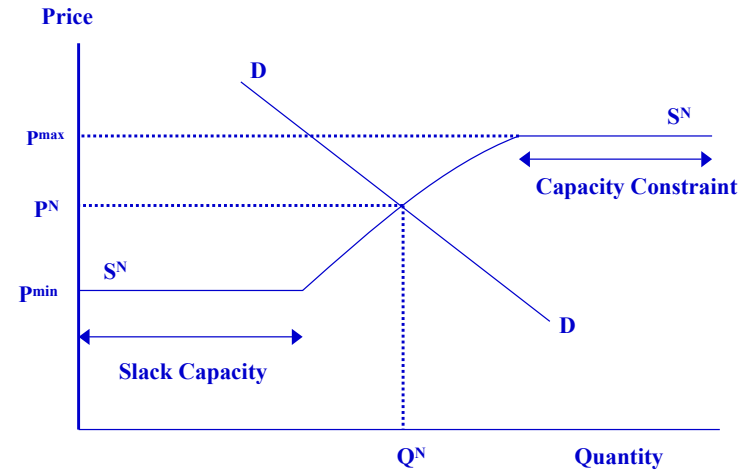
Explanations for Hard/Soft Markets III: The Capacity Constraint Theory

- ◆ Capacity constraint theory (Winter 1994)
Formalizes the sophisticated supply side hypothesis and introduces demand.

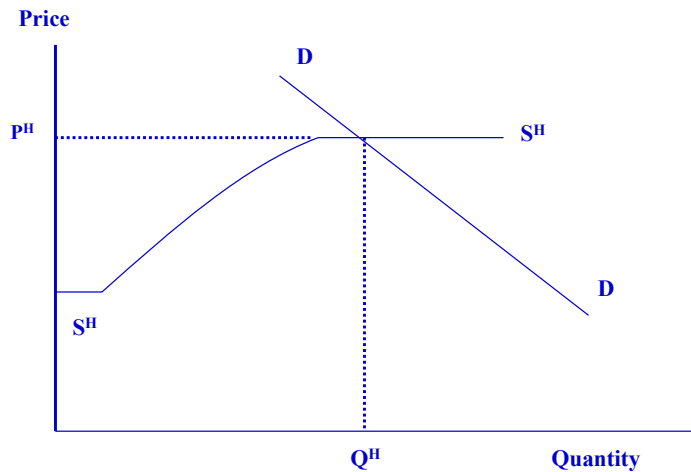
Capacity Constraint Theory: Key Assumptions

- ◆ Insured losses are correlated – so insurers hold equity to guarantee promise to pay claims
- ◆ Insurers hold sufficient capital to reduce insolvency probability to zero
- ◆ External capital more costly than internal capital

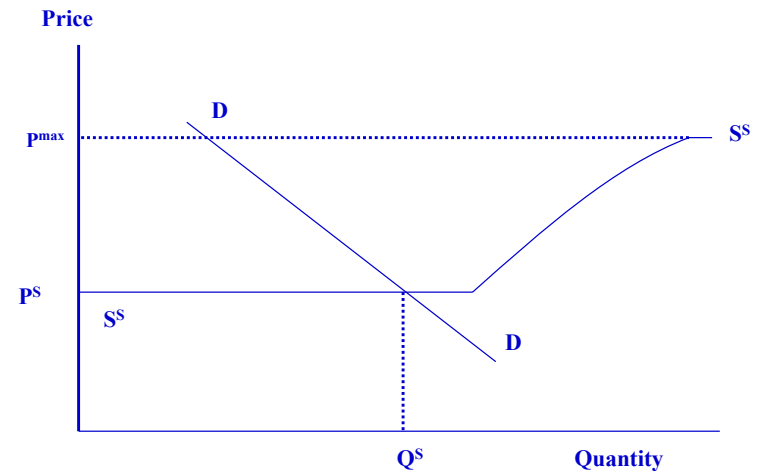
Capacity Constraint Theory: Normal Equilibrium



Capacity Constraint Theory: Hard Market



Capacity Constraint Theory: Soft Market



Capacity Constraint Theory: Empirical Prediction

$$P = PV(L) (D/K)^a e^\epsilon$$

$$\log[P/PV(L)] = a \log(D) - a \log(K) + \epsilon$$

where P = price, L = expected losses, D = demand, K = capital, ϵ = random error, and

$[P/PV(L)]$ = “economic premium ratio”

Prediction: $a > 0$

Capacity Constraint Theory: Further Discussion

- ◆ The theory predicts that:
 - ◆ Hard markets occur when demand is high relative to capital (capital constraint)
 - ◆ Soft markets occur when capital is high relative to demand (slack capacity)
- ◆ To test: Define
 $Relcap = Surplus_t / Average(Surp_{t-1}:Surp_{t-5})$

Capacity Constraint Theory: Dependent Variable = Premium/Losses, 1961-2000

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.923	0.045	20.701	0.000
TBILL1	-0.007	0.003	-2.894	0.007
TIME	-0.003	0.001	-3.307	0.002
RELCAP	0.115	0.029	3.955	0.000
AR(1)	0.606	0.139	4.369	0.000
R ²	0.782	Mean Dep Var		0.956
Adj R ²	0.757	S.D. Dep Var		0.048

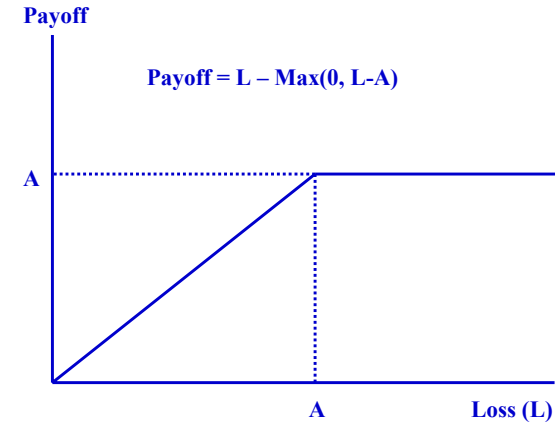
Conclusion: Capacity Constraint Theory

- ◆ Theory predicts Relcap inversely related to price ratio but regression shows positive relationship
- ◆ There is some support for the theory elsewhere in the literature
 - ◆ However, it fails to predict prices during the 1980s liability crisis (Winter, Gron)

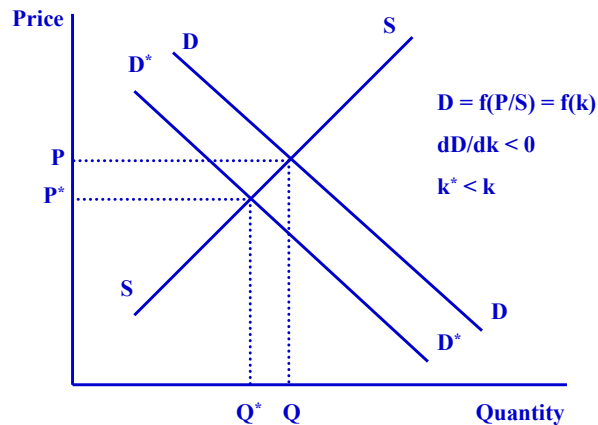
Risky Debt Hypothesis

- ◆ Insurance is priced as risky debt (i.e., insolvency can occur – opposite of capacity constraint hypothesis)
 - ◆ Price = $E(L) - E[\text{Max}(0, L-A)]$
= expected loss – insolvency put option
- ◆ Demand for insurance is inversely related to expected insolvency costs – therefore, insurers have optimal capital structure
- ◆ Insurers have some market power, allowing some control over prices

Risky Debt Hypothesis: Loss Payoff to Policyholders



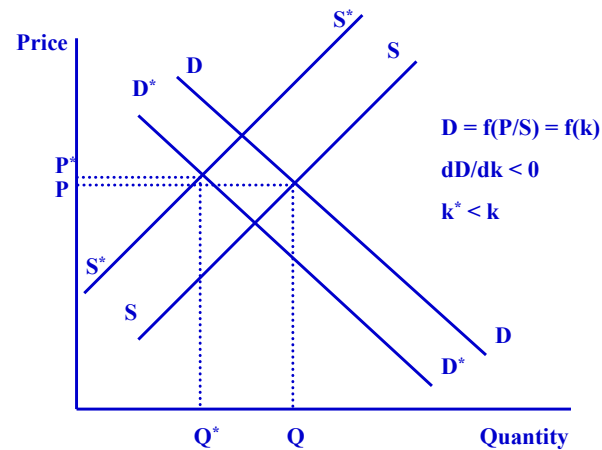
Risky Debt Hypothesis: Supply and Demand



Risky Debt Hypothesis: Hard Market Scenario

- ◆ Shock to capital occurs driving insurers away from optimal capital structure
 - ◆ $P^*/K^* > P/K$
- ◆ Insurers restrict supply – restore optimal capital structure through retained earnings
- ◆ If price increase is sufficient, insurers will raise external capital

Risky Debt Hypothesis: Supply and Demand



Risky Debt Hypothesis: Predictions

- ◆ Price will be inversely related to leverage: higher $P/S \Rightarrow$ lower prices because of higher default risk
- ◆ Quantity supplied will fall and price may increase following a capital shock
- ◆ Insurers will raise capital following a shock-induced price increase

Capacity Constraint vs Risky Debt

- ◆ Capacity constraint: High capital implies relatively low price because of slack capacity
- ◆ Risky debt: High capital implies relatively high price due to lower insolvency risk

Reconciling the Capacity Constraint and Risky Debt Models

- ◆ Capacity constraint could hold for the market as a whole (time series relationship)
- ◆ Risky debt model could explain price differences among insurers at any given time (cross-sectional relationship)

Underwriting Cycles: Conclusions

- ◆ The underwriting cycle is at least partly an illusion resulting from pricing lags and accounting rules
- ◆ Insurance prices are inversely related to interest rates
- ◆ Hard and soft markets are caused by unfavorable and favorable loss or investment shocks

Underwriting Cycles: Conclusions II

- ◆ Empirical evidence provides only mixed support for the capacity constraint theory's prediction of an inverse relationship between price and capital
- ◆ Empirical evidence provides stronger support for the risky debt theory's prediction of a positive relationship between price and capital
- ◆ Supply is restricted and prices rise following an adverse shock to capital
- ◆ Insurers tend to raise new external capital following a shock-induced price increase