

1 modelling on the market field of life insurance and the epistemic field of  
 2 actuarial science? This is the question I turn to in the next section.

### 4 5 **Living in a stochastic world?**

6 Most unit-linked insurance funds were heavily invested in equities and real  
 7 estate. With the stock market slump of 1973–74, therefore, the riskiness  
 8 of maturity guarantees suddenly appeared very real. Insurers that had sold  
 9 ‘guaranteed income bonds’ got into significant trouble. The collapse of  
 10 Nation Life, a mid-sized company, contributed to increasing public pressure  
 11 on the actuarial profession to deal with the riskiness of guarantees. In an  
 12 article entitled ‘The Men Who Decide What Your Life Assurance Is Worth  
 13 Should Wise Up’, *The Economist* (1974, p 86), for instance, cited the ‘absence  
 14 of an actuarial code of practice’ as an ‘important reason why these companies  
 15 boomed and bust’. Actuaries from the Government Actuary’s Department,  
 16 which carried out supervisory tasks on behalf of the Department of Trade and  
 17 Industry, also started taking an active interest in the controversy, attending,  
 18 for instance, the sessional meetings at which the issue of maturity guarantees  
 19 were discussed. At one such meeting, at which Corby’s paper was discussed,  
 20 the Government Actuary Edward Johnston noted “that there is no general  
 21 agreement on the mechanical models which should be used for assessing  
 22 ... reserves”. Although he did not perceive active government interference  
 23 with the substance of the debate as appropriate (“I am certainly not going  
 24 to venture any opinion on which mathematical model is right”), he did  
 25 emphasize the need for “a practical answer ... because companies do have to  
 26 set up reserves of some size or other” (Johnston in Corby, 1977, p 284). By  
 27 emphasizing the systemic impact of maturity guarantees, moreover, Wilkie  
 28 also sought to enrol actuaries at non-linked offices. At one of the debates,  
 29 for instance, he estimated that roughly £2,000 million worth of maturity  
 30 guarantees had been written and that companies were ‘short of around  
 31 £1,000 million of reserves’. The maturity guarantees that had already been  
 32 written, he continued to argue, therefore posed a ‘practical problem’ for the  
 33 ‘Department of Trade’ as well as for ‘other life assurance companies because  
 34 ... they are going to foot the bill when the companies writing this business  
 35 – if they go bust – do go bust. So it is up to all life offices as well to think  
 36 about how it should be done’ (Wilkie in Corby, 1977, p 412).

37 Such pressures undoubtedly contributed to generating acceptance of the  
 38 results produced by the Maturity Guarantees Working Party’s modelling  
 39 exercises. Maturity guarantees on unit-linked contracts were increasingly  
 40 perceived as rather costly, and the volume of such policies quickly diminished.  
 41 Although it is likely that the working party’s model contributed to this  
 42 perception among actuaries, it is less clear to what extent it also influenced  
 43 decision making at the level of corporate management. Wilkie suspects, for

1 instance, that the decisive moment for the decline of maturity guarantees  
2 was not the publication of the working party's report itself but would come  
3 later when Standard Life – Wilkie's employer after he left Scottish Widows –  
4 declined to participate in the underwriting of one of the major unit-linked  
5 offices founded by Weinberg, Hambro Life. At the time, Wilkie noted, it  
6 was common practice for institutional investors to take small stakes in a  
7 company when it could not sell all its shares to the public. When Standard  
8 Life's investment manager asked Wilkie for his opinion on Hambro Life,  
9 he replied: "I think we shouldn't touch it", because Hambro had a lot of  
10 this [maturity guarantee] business, I knew that it was risky.' Wilkie suspects  
11 that 'since it was Standard Life' – a leading Scottish life office – 'those in  
12 the market thought that there might be something serious about it – one  
13 insurer not being sure about another' (Wilkie in personal communication).

14 Yet, even if the results produced by this modelling were accepted as  
15 legitimate, this did not necessarily imply that stochastic modelling had  
16 become part of actuarial expertise and had a major impact on the market  
17 field of life insurance. Most actuaries, after all, remained unfamiliar with  
18 risk theory and stochastic simulation modelling, and usage of the working  
19 party's model by company actuaries remained limited. Of the 22 companies  
20 whose regulatory returns the working party member Ben Rowe had seen  
21 in late 1980 – ten months after initial publication of the working party's  
22 report – only two companies had used the working party's model (Rowe  
23 in Benjamin et al, 1980). Many actuaries appeared to have been concerned  
24 with the limited practicality of the model – for instance because they  
25 had insufficient familiarity with programming or the model's underlying  
26 mathematics so that they could adjust it to the specific characteristics of  
27 different portfolios – and preferred some deterministic approximation of  
28 the model over the stochastic one.

29 So how, then, did the controversy over financial risk influence the  
30 epistemic field of actuarial science? First, a small group of actuaries  
31 continued doing research on stochastic simulation modelling of investment  
32 returns. Most notable, in this regard, was Wilkie himself, who continued to  
33 refine the working party's model in subsequent years (Wilkie, 1984, 1995)  
34 and developed what became known as the 'Wilkie model'. Although it  
35 is difficult to assess how widely the model was used in corporate decision  
36 making, interviews indicate that most life offices used the Wilkie model, or  
37 some alternative specification thereof, to get some "insight into how bad  
38 things might get" (Interviewee EA). What facilitated the model's uptake  
39 was that it was specifically designed for long-term actuarial applications,  
40 'was relatively easy to apply – it could be coded into a spreadsheet' and was  
41 'consistent' with the 'prior belief' that stock markets follow a mean-reverting  
42 process (Jakhria et al, 2019). In the 1990s, Wilkie's model was increasingly  
43 scrutinized within the profession (see, for example, Geoghegan et al, 1992;

1 Huber, 1997), and some practitioners developed alternative stochastic asset  
2 models (for example Yakoubov et al, 1999), which indicates widespread  
3 interest in stochastic asset models. Worries about the implications for  
4 actuarial judgement, however, remained. One of the working party reports  
5 on the Wilkie model noted for instance that a central topic of debate had  
6 been ‘the extent to which “actuarial judgement” might comfortably over-  
7 ride purely theoretical and statistical considerations’ (Geoghegan et al, 1992,  
8 p 185). Usage of and familiarity with stochastic investment models thus  
9 significantly expanded throughout the 1980s and ’90s, even if the extent  
10 to which it informed and constrained decision making seems to have been  
11 limited for most companies.

12 Second, with the report of the Maturity Guarantees Working Party,  
13 stochastic simulation modelling made inroads into the educational syllabus of  
14 the actuarial profession too. Initially, the report was listed as recommended  
15 reading under the chapter on the practice of life insurance funds, which  
16 in the latter half of the 1980s was replaced by an entry into the syllabus  
17 on stochastic methods. These were minimal changes in the structure of  
18 actuarial education, but they nonetheless had an impact as interview evidence  
19 indicates, because some of the newly trained actuaries had at least some  
20 basic familiarity with the concept of stochastic simulation modelling. More  
21 substantial reforms of the educational syllabus, however, came only towards  
22 the end of the 1990s, when stochastic modelling, financial mathematics,  
23 financial economics and an optional specialist certificate in derivatives were  
24 taught as distinct subjects.

25 Third, the now widely held belief that maturity guarantees on unit-linked  
26 funds invested in equities were expensive pushed actuaries to think about  
27 the relation between investment strategy and the riskiness of guarantees,  
28 which built on some early notable works in this regard and anticipated later  
29 developments in asset-liability modelling. Particularly noteworthy in this  
30 regard is a paper by the Irish actuary Colm Fagan (1977), who maintained  
31 close relationships with British colleagues, and who suggested that it was  
32 possible to adopt an investment strategy that would ‘immunize’ the risk  
33 embedded in the maturity guarantees. Fagan’s approach, which some later  
34 argued replicated the option pricing theory developed by the financial  
35 economists Black, Scholes and Merton, was examined by the Maturity  
36 Guarantees Working Party too. Although the working party concluded  
37 that Fagan’s immunization strategy ‘does seem to have serious practical  
38 disadvantages because it depends upon several underlying assumptions’, it  
39 also noted that it ‘merits further investigation’ (Ford et al, 1980, p 112).  
40 Fagan’s immunization approach and option pricing remained a marginal  
41 topic in actuarial science, but actuaries like Wilkie nevertheless started to  
42 consider their potential actuarial applications in the years that followed (see,  
43 for example, Wilkie, 1987).