



International Actuarial Association  
Association Actuarielle Internationale

# Implications of COVID-19 Data and Modelling a Pandemic

**Pandemics  
Task Force**

*Exposure Draft  
11 March 2025*



## IAA Paper

### Data and Modeling a Pandemic

This paper was prepared by the Pandemics Task Force of the International Actuarial Association (IAA).

The IAA is the worldwide association of professional actuarial associations, with several special interest sections and working groups for individual actuaries. The IAA exists to encourage the development of a global profession, acknowledged as technically competent and professionally reliable, which will ensure that the public interest is served.

The role of the Pandemics Task Force is to deliver on the Statement of Intent for IAA Activities on Pandemics (SOI) as adopted by Council on 8 April 2022.

The paper was authored by a drafting group appointed by the Pandemics Task Force consisting of:

Marc Tardif (Lead) FSA, FCIA (Canada)

Chris Daykin MA Hon DSc FIA FSA (UK)

Dale Hall FSA (USA)

Kees Thiers MSc (Netherlands)

Kasun Amarasuriya FIAA (Australia)

Ash Bhalerao FIAA (Australia)

[This paper has been approved for IAA publication by the Pandemics Task Force in accordance with the IAA's Communications Policy.]

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International Actuarial Association  
Association Actuarielle Internationale

**Tel:** +1-613-236-0886 **Fax:** +1-613-236-1386

**Email:** [secretariat@actuaries.org](mailto:secretariat@actuaries.org)

1203-99 Metcalfe, Ottawa ON K1P 6L7 Canada

[www.actuaries.org](http://www.actuaries.org)

## Table of Contents

Executive Summary .....	1
1. Introduction .....	2
2. What Data is Needed and How to Improve Quality .....	2
2.1 Methodology Options .....	2
3. Enhancing or Improving Existing Models and How Actuaries can Assist .....	4
4. Provide Independent Audits of Projections by Others .....	7
5. Sharing Learnings Across Time and Across Countries .....	8
6. Scenario Building .....	9
7. Conclusions .....	10
APPENDIX.....	12
References.....	14

## 1 Executive Summary

2 A pandemic, such as that caused by COVID-19, can result in a massive global health care crisis which  
3 requires significant analysis and quick decision-making in both the public and private sectors. This  
4 paper draws out lessons from COVID-19 in terms of data and modeling. In particular, it identifies  
5 issues that may need to be addressed to improve quality and quantity of data, allowing stakeholders  
6 to make quicker and better decisions. The paper also focusses on model features that could provide  
7 more accurate measures of risk. The intended audience for this paper includes actuaries and  
8 supervisors but should be of interest to other relevant stakeholders in the insurance industry,  
9 epidemiologists, public health experts and the medical profession.

10 Actuaries have many strengths in data and modeling, including an understanding of the  
11 development of suitable assumptions; an understanding of how to segregate data and develop  
12 reliable measures; and the development of sensitivities and scenarios. Actuaries also operate under  
13 a strong professional framework.

14 Whilst in a perfect world complete data on the impacts of the pandemic would be available, in  
15 practice, the complexity and fast-moving nature of a pandemic means that this is rarely the case.  
16 Therefore, key definitions and parameters ideally need to be agreed upon between jurisdictions.  
17 Where direct pandemic data is not available, other measures, such as excess deaths, can be used.  
18 In addition, indirect impacts such as impacts on deaths from other causes due to delayed diagnosis  
19 should be looked at.

20 Actuaries can assist in enhancing models of others. Actuaries can help develop simple models  
21 where extra features can be added later as more data becomes available. Actuaries can help to  
22 interpret model outcomes and can assist with the calculation and testing of the fundamental model  
23 parameters, as well as providing external independent review of models developed and run by  
24 others. A particular area where actuaries can play a role is in pointing out weaknesses in the models  
25 and the assumptions implicit in the models.

26 COVID-19 and the HIV/AIDS epidemic are two examples of where there was international  
27 cooperation between actuaries. Whilst there is scope for leveraging international sharing of data and  
28 models to a greater extent than happened in practice in these two pandemics, care needs to be taken  
29 in parameterising models to take fully into account the situation pertaining to the particular country  
30 being studied.

31 The experience with COVID-19 points strongly to actuaries developing information-sharing networks  
32 and active contribution to scientific research and pandemic model development, both at the national  
33 and international levels, at times when a real pandemic seems remote.

34 Finally, COVID-19 highlighted the need to undertake scenario analysis, particularly where there is  
35 uncertainty of ultimate outcomes. Actuarial work in scenario-building, probability-weighted  
36 outcomes, and sensitivity analysis are essential components of effective risk management. By  
37 carefully constructing scenarios, assigning probabilities, and testing key assumptions, actuaries  
38 provide valuable insights that enable organizations to navigate uncertain futures with greater  
39 confidence.

## 40 1. Introduction

41 The purpose of this paper is to draw out lessons from COVID-19 in terms of data and modeling. In  
42 particular, this paper identifies data issues that may need to be addressed to improve quality and  
43 quantity of data, allowing decision makers to make quicker and better decisions. The paper also  
44 focusses on model features that could provide more accurate measures of risk. In each of its  
45 sections, the paper identifies areas where actuaries can help to improve data collection and analysis  
46 and enhance model development, so that actuarial input could make a positive contribution in  
47 assisting public bodies and governments in their decision-making and cooperating with other  
48 professionals called upon to build models projecting the potential impact of future pandemics.

49 It is hoped that this paper will contribute to cooperation and coordination among stakeholders in  
50 data and modeling of pandemics. The intended audience for this paper includes actuaries and  
51 supervisors but should be of interest to other relevant stakeholders in the insurance industry,  
52 epidemiologists, public health experts and the medical profession.

## 53 2. What Data is Needed and How to Improve Quality

### 54 2.1 Methodology Options

55 The core requirement when preparing analysis for insights and data-driven decisions is the extent  
56 of data available. The availability of the quality, quantity and relevance of data will make a significant  
57 difference to the analysis prepared. Therefore, it is critical to establish the data requirements as  
58 early as possible. There are two potential approaches when analysing the impacts of a pandemic:

- 59 a) Use the counts of deaths, causes of death etc. to analyze the pandemic's impact; and
- 60 b) Use statistical techniques to analyze mortality and morbidity during the pandemic.

61 Both these approaches have advantages and disadvantages, which are discussed further below.

#### 62 **The Best-Case Scenario – Data Availability**

63 In an ideal world, with available data complete and consistent, the impact of a pandemic on mortality  
64 and morbidity would be calculated using the count of deaths, c of death and other exposed-to-risk  
65 information such as population counts or completed tests. Additionally, when analysing the impact  
66 on mortality, the data would indicate whether the death was directly or indirectly caused by the  
67 pandemic. Similarly, when analysing the impact on morbidity, information such as the number of  
68 tests, the number of positive cases detected, and the proportion of the population's positive test  
69 outcomes would all be relevant.

70 Unfortunately, the complexity of a pandemic inherently makes it difficult to gather complete and  
71 comprehensive data, particularly during the early stages, when understanding of the pandemic is  
72 limited. For instance, during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic, testing was not as extensive  
73 and established as in later stages, as most countries had limited infrastructure and policies for  
74 conducting tests. Because of this, the COVID-19 casualties were understated, as some COVID-19  
75 deaths were assigned as other causes of death. At later stages of the pandemic, vaccines became  
76 available and then people were tested less frequently, making measurement less representative.

77 In addition, data is rarely available in a complete and consistent format across provinces, districts,  
78 states, not to mention countries. Many jurisdictions reported significant issues in collecting data  
79 resulting in incomplete data. Each region often has its own definitions and methodologies for  
80 recording information. For example, within some jurisdictions, the definition of a pandemic-related  
81 death changed over the course of the COVID-19 pandemic. The change in definition resulted in a  
82 restatement of the number of COVID-19 related deaths in those jurisdictions.

#### 83 **Making Data Sets Consistent**

84 Each pandemic will take a slightly different course and present unique challenges. However, setting

85 a broad principles-based approach will improve global communication. Improving the data will  
86 require professional bodies and health authorities to work closely together and define a co-ordinated  
87 approach to develop a uniform framework for assessing pandemic-related mortality and morbidity.  
88 The uniform framework will enable the data to be aggregated across regions and countries more  
89 easily. The International Actuarial Association (IAA) is uniquely placed to coordinate discussions  
90 on a uniform approach, as it brings together professionals from many different jurisdictions.

91 To achieve such a goal, key parameters and definitions must be set. These will be fed into the  
92 analysis and decision-making process early on. This should include a definition of pandemic-related  
93 deaths, location of deaths to be included (e.g. whether care homes are included as well as hospitals)  
94 and the population being tested, against which positive tests can be measured. Another key  
95 consideration is to apply the learnings from the COVID-19 pandemic to any future pandemics.  
96 Consensus on the parameters and definitions early on will support ongoing analysis and improve  
97 comparability between regions and countries.

### 98 **Indirect Consequences of the Pandemic**

99 Analysing the impact of the pandemic solely based on counts of direct deaths or infections  
100 attributable to the pandemic fails to capture the full impact, as it overlooks some indirect impacts  
101 of the pandemic. For example, during the COVID-19 pandemic, many health care appointments or  
102 procedures were skipped because of the quarantine measures, leading to delays in treatment and  
103 hence potentially contributing to a risk of increased morbidity and mortality. In addition, several  
104 countries reported a surge in mental health issues related to the pandemic lockdowns, which may  
105 have contributed to deaths, as well as physical sickness. This means that some cases of mortality  
106 or morbidity were not considered to be pandemic-related even though they were a direct or indirect  
107 result of the pandemic. The instances of mortality or morbidity from delayed diagnosis, delayed  
108 treatment or mental health issues is of great importance for decision-makers who can work to  
109 minimise such instances in the future if there are sufficient data-driven insights available.

### 110 **Statistical Approaches**

111 Another approach adopted by several professional actuarial bodies across the world was to monitor  
112 the number of 'excess deaths' resulting from the pandemic. This approach benefits from not relying  
113 on a pre-defined definition for 'pandemic-related death' which, as stated earlier, could vary  
114 significantly. However, this approach requires mortality to be monitored for several years in order to  
115 get useful indications of a change in experience, so the investigation would need to be carried out  
116 over a period. The lag in obtaining insightful data would not be helpful to health authorities who need  
117 to make decisions rapidly during the pandemic. With this limitation in mind, the excess deaths  
118 approach is a powerful tool to support analysis around the implication of the pandemic over an  
119 extended period.

120 The approach will also support insights into how the pandemic evolved into a global catastrophe  
121 and to identify key drivers of the process so that future pandemics or similar events that have the  
122 same paralysing effects can be predicted and/or mitigated.

### 123 **Consideration for Comprehensiveness and Completeness of Data**

124 The 'excess deaths' approach requires that regions have an existing mechanism to regularly monitor  
125 mortality or morbidity experience in the given region. Having such monitoring mechanisms in place  
126 would ensure that the exposure to risk is calculated consistently between different regions. There  
127 are a number of jurisdictions which already have some form of 'continuous mortality investigation'  
128 which carries out research into mortality and morbidity experience on a regular basis. Similar to the  
129 co-operative and co-ordinated approach discussed above, supranational organizations can support  
130 entities to develop their infrastructure and to standardise definitions across regions.

131 The approach benefits from having unambiguous data since it is maintained consistently over time  
132 and the analysis focuses on how the actual experience has increased compared to previous periods  
133 not impacted by a pandemic. For example, the number of deaths taken into account does not depend  
134 on how cause of death is recorded in particular cases or on the specifics of testing policy and

135 definitions. This approach also facilitates comparisons across jurisdictions.

136 An important consideration when comparing excess deaths is to focus on the increase in the *rate* of  
137 mortality rather than the absolute increase in the number of deaths. This approach will make  
138 comparisons across regions more meaningful.

### 139 **3. Enhancing or Improving Existing Models and How Actuaries can Assist**

140 Building an appropriate model requires a systematic approach. The following structure, developed  
141 from the paper ‘Philosophy of Modelling’<sup>1</sup>, could be an acceptable approach to separate out the  
142 different stages of the process:

- 143 • Model scoping: identification of the subset of the real world that the model aims to represent;
- 144 • Model specification and coding: Moving from model scoping to realized model, including data  
145 gathering and assumption-setting;
- 146 • Model running and Interpretation;
- 147 • Communication of results to stakeholders;
- 148 • Decision-making based on the results;
- 149 • The model ‘loop’: improvements based largely on experience using the model;
- 150 • Model review / independent validation;
- 151 • Review and updating of parameters;
- 152 • Sensitivity analysis; and
- 153 • Setting plausible alternative scenarios for stress-testing.

154 Actuaries may be involved in any or all of the above stages, both as modelers and in contributing to  
155 the development and application of other models in use. A broad classification of the ways in which  
156 actuaries can be involved in enhancing models might be categorized in terms of:

- 157 • Assisting with ‘simplified models’: strictly speaking almost any actuarial thought and logical  
158 analysis relates in some way to a model, if at times implicit, without necessarily having a formal  
159 mathematical model structure. There are useful contributions that might not be thought of as a  
160 ‘model’ with the formality of other pandemic models, such as the analysis and interpretation of  
161 excess deaths;
- 162 • Development of a new model;
- 163 • Assisting others (non-actuaries) with developing their existing and/or new models;
- 164 • Validation of models developed by others (including informal review or formal independent  
165 audit). Validation and audit are discussed further in Section 4 below;
- 166 • Review of results, including consideration of the plausibility of the results ‘in isolation’, i.e. not  
167 reviewing the underlying model; and
- 168 • How the results are interpreted and communicated, including model weaknesses / limitations  
169 and degree of uncertainty and how this has impacted on decision-making.

170 These two ‘dimensions’ of the question – (1) different stages of the modeling process and (2) scope  
171 of involvement – lead naturally to the following matrix of possible combinations, with rows for the  
172 stages and columns for the scope of involvement of actuaries. The letters allocated to each cell of  
173 the matrix are then discussed in the text below.

174 In principle each cell could be analyzed separately, but many cells raise similar questions to others,  
175 have obvious implications, or are perhaps naturally empty without forcing some involvement where

176 little or no involvement might be a more realistic option. We set out below some thoughts on how  
 177 actuaries can assist, based on this matrix structure.

178 **Table 1: Model Building - Matrix of Possible Combinations**

	“Non-models”	Actuaries’ new model	Help others - new model	Help others - existing model	Validation	Output
Model scoping	A	B	B	B	B	n/a
Specification /coding	A	C	C	C	E	n/a
Parameterization	A	D	D	D	E	n/a
Model running & interpretation	A	F	F	F	n/a	G
Communication	A	F	F	F	n/a	G
Other implications	A	H	H	H	H	H
Feedback loop	A	I	I	I	I	I

179 *A: Regarding ‘simplified models’, or models which many would not think of as formal ‘models’*

180 Actuaries can contribute substantially to scoping and specifying ‘excess deaths’ models and,  
 181 subsequently, disaggregating the excess into key components. Problems experienced with some  
 182 non-actuarial attempts to do this arose from reliance on numbers of deaths without adjusting for  
 183 age-sex standardization. Another challenge in making this analysis successful and useful is setting  
 184 the expected baseline, which itself is a non-trivial actuarial task. Overall, the analysis of excess  
 185 deaths is an example of a useful ‘simplified model’ analysis using actuarial skills to provide insights  
 186 into pandemic mortality. Similar work could also be done regarding morbidity, although we focus  
 187 here on mortality aspects.

188 Extending the definition of a ‘simplified model’, some relatively simplistic approaches may also help  
 189 understanding of the development of the pandemic, either as early quasi-models, or later ‘back of  
 190 the envelope’ checks on full models. For instance, in March 2020 simply fitting curves to the  
 191 recorded statistics of cases and mortality in European countries worked well to help in predicting  
 192 cases and deaths (with timescales of weeks), as the early stages of transmission were not affected  
 193 by numbers of infected-now-immune individuals (in effect, zero) or social controls (since there were  
 194 none early on).

195 *B: Model scoping*

196 Although fundamental to the success of modeling exercises, insufficient attention is often given to  
 197 defining the scope and purpose of the model and actuaries should be able to contribute substantially  
 198 to this. There are three particularly relevant areas:

- 199 • Scope limitations: What elements would we want to model, but doing so is impractical for  
 200 reasons of lack of suitable or sufficient data (this is particularly important early on in any  
 201 emerging pandemic), limited understanding of the impact of possible interventions or potential  
 202 model complexity?
- 203 • Future expansion: Given these constraints, how can we start to develop a model in a way that  
 204 allows extra features to be added later as data and research emerge? How can we include  
 205 results about impacts and interactions as data become available and there is more time to  
 206 introduce extra model features, as part of the same continuing model, rather than creating a new  
 207 model?



- 208 • Out of model adjustments: To what extent can we develop plausible parallel model or ‘out of  
209 model’ adjustments to reflect as usefully as possible the out-of-scope elements, even if these  
210 adjustments do not fit with standard academic approaches? In a pandemic context, the obvious  
211 example is measuring and incorporating the impact of significant non-pharmaceutical  
212 interventions (such as social distancing, travel restrictions and lockdowns) on the economy, on  
213 longer-term health via their economic and social impact, and on shorter-term health via indirect  
214 impacts such as deferral of primary care consultations, diagnostic tests and treatment, as well  
215 as the impact on people’s mental health.

216 *C: Model specification and coding*

217 Although some actuaries may have strong technical expertise in developing code for models, there  
218 may be relatively little that actuaries can do in the details of model implementation that uniquely  
219 adds value, except perhaps in acting as an intermediary between coders and users.

220 *D: Parameterization*

221 Actuaries can assist, regarding both calculation and testing of the fundamental model parameters  
222 (or review of the calculations of others), and an awareness of where parameters may be  
223 ‘conceptually’ inappropriate, in particular:

- 224 • Basis risk (parameters from one population applied to a wider or different population);  
225 • Lack of appropriate stratification (e.g. by socio-economic category, age distribution or ethnicity);  
226 • Lack of awareness of sensitivity to other areas, such as social deprivation and housing (in  
227 particular if such areas are out-of-scope of the model).

228 Actuaries’ experience of involvement in risk and capital analysis for insurers lends itself well to work  
229 on developing plausible scenarios and stresses, ideally appreciating wider aspects in scenario  
230 construction (where scenario design may help as first-order compensation for elements outside  
231 model scope, or perhaps to allow manually for known inadequacies in the risk aggregation elements  
232 of the model). This is explored further in Section 6 below.

233 *E: Validation:*

234 Actuaries can provide external independent review of models developed and run by others. In an  
235 emerging pandemic such review can usefully be carried out in stages – for instance, starting with  
236 definitions and scope, with reporting back as soon as possible, before moving on to specification  
237 and then to interpretation and presentation of results.

238 A particular aspect of model validation which has been found useful in other contexts is clarification  
239 of known model weaknesses and limitations, to feed into both framing communication of model  
240 results and the later model improvement (feedback) loop.

241 One other point to note is the nature of independence. Some aspects of the role of actuaries as  
242 independent reviewers are discussed in more detail in Section 4 below.

243 *F: Model runs, interpretation, communications*

244 Actuarial skills include appropriate interpretation of model results, in particular with regard to how  
245 much reliance should be placed on results, given the model weaknesses (which may relate largely  
246 to scope limitations, and parameter uncertainty in the light of sparse data and insufficiently  
247 understood impacts of interventions when there has been no time for any reliable research).  
248 Likewise, actuarial skills include effective communication of model results.

249 *G: Results Validation*

250 Validation of results is within the actuarial skill set, including:

- 251 • Reasonableness of results;  
252 • Evidence of checks or ‘internal validation’ by the modelers;

- 253 • Awareness of model weaknesses and limitations and possible influence of those; and
- 254 • Interpretation of uncertainty in model results.

#### 255 *H: Other Implications*

256 Wider implications include providing an overview of models using generic reasoning or common  
257 sense and making adjustments in respect of scope limitations or known model weaknesses. The  
258 conclusions here may perhaps be broad (perhaps even only indicating the ‘direction’ of the outcome,  
259 rather than being able to provide quantification), for instance: “The parameterization knowingly has  
260 little regard for heterogeneity owing to data limitations, and this is expected to make the model  
261 [overestimate] [underestimate] ...”

#### 262 *I: Feedback loop*

263 More developed models should have the capacity to take account of feed-back loops, whereby  
264 assumptions and model behavior in later periods are programmed to respond to developments in  
265 the earlier periods. This is a technique with which actuaries are very familiar from other applications,  
266 such as in modelling solvency of insurance companies.

#### 267 *Conclusion*

268 The extent to which actuaries are operating in the areas of cooperation implied above depends not  
269 only on the theoretical ‘fungibility’ or usefulness of skills, but on the practical agreement and  
270 professional respect of Government, statistical services, academics, consultation mechanisms with  
271 experts and public health bodies (including supranationals). Optimum levels of cooperation may be  
272 difficult to establish from the outset, especially in the early stages of a pandemic, unless some  
273 preliminary frameworks have been established previously. This points strongly to actuaries  
274 developing information-sharing networks and active contribution to scientific research and  
275 pandemic model development, both at the national and international levels, at times when a real  
276 pandemic seems remote.

## 277 **4. Provide Independent Audits of Projections by Others**

278 The concept of independent audit or review of other people’s projections has been touched on  
279 above. Actuaries are well-placed, particularly in the light of experience with Solvency II internal model  
280 development in Europe (and related regimes outside the European Union, such as the Insurance  
281 Capital Standard of the International Association of Insurance Supervisors), to provide independent  
282 model validation, looking at all components of the modeling process. Another example in a different  
283 context is where the UK Government Actuary’s Department provides audit of models developed by  
284 other government entities, including the department responsible for social security.

285 Independent audit of pandemic modeling would likely need to be done in a much ‘lighter touch’ way  
286 than typically applied to formal model validation of insurers’ internal models in a European Solvency  
287 2 capital context, but the principles are the same. This is because of the tentative and exploratory  
288 nature of models being developed rapidly in the early stages of a pandemic, as well as the lack of  
289 firm information on key drivers, modes of infection and suitable parameter values.

290 The professionalism codes to which actuaries are subject provide a strong background for such  
291 work, differentiating the input of actuaries from modeling work carried out by others who are not  
292 subject to such professionalism requirements.

293 Independence is sometimes interpreted purely as independence of the validator from the model  
294 developer. However, another aspect of independence is diversity of thought and methodological and  
295 conceptual independence. This may be particularly useful in an emerging pandemic where there is  
296 no strict requirement for independence between teams or individuals, as is the case in insurers’  
297 capital modeling, but keeping an eye on alternative methodologies reflecting fundamentally different  
298 perspectives is important – and indeed essential – if group-think is to be avoided.

## 299 5. Sharing Learnings Across Time and Across Countries

300 To illustrate how the sharing of modeling methodology and learning across countries can play out  
301 effectively in a pandemic, we can go back to the late 1980s. At that time the development of models  
302 to project the future development of HIV infection and AIDS saw active cooperation between working  
303 groups established by different actuarial associations (see the Appendix for more details). The  
304 Institute of Actuaries AIDS Working Party used a model developed by Professor David Wilkie<sup>2</sup> to  
305 produce a number of Bulletins for the profession and wider dissemination. The Working Party also  
306 presented papers at professional meetings<sup>3,4</sup> and their projections were taken up and used in the  
307 national population projections of the UK. The model was an evolution of a model (which included  
308 the possibility of recovery) used by actuaries for Permanent Health Insurance. Other actuarial  
309 associations undertook similar initiatives.

310 The HIV/AIDS epidemic and the COVID-19 epidemic were very different in the way they played out.  
311 HIV/AIDS started slowly with transmission primarily between homosexuals with multiple partners  
312 and drug users. It was largely a sexually transmitted disease, with smaller categories of transmission  
313 from sharing needles and from infected blood products. The size of the 'at risk' population and the  
314 rate of transmission of the virus were the biggest uncertainties, although most evidence pointed to  
315 the rate of transmission being relatively low. Only in some countries, such as in South Africa, did the  
316 pandemic become primarily based on heterosexual transmission.

317 By contrast, when COVID-19 emerged it appeared to be highly transmissible, with the whole  
318 population potentially at risk. It soon became clear, however, that children were not much at risk of  
319 becoming seriously ill and that older people, and particularly those with underlying conditions, were  
320 much more at risk. Those becoming seriously ill could die quite quickly. It was not known at that  
321 time how the virus was transmitted, with some early theories that it could survive on surfaces and  
322 be transmitted by touch (and subsequent touching of the mouth or nose). More probably it is  
323 transmitted almost entirely by particles in the air, like other common viruses. Enhanced risk factors  
324 included: living in close proximity with someone infected, sitting or standing close to someone  
325 infected for a sustained period in an office, canteen or on public transport. Because of the rapidity  
326 with which scenarios unfolded, there was little time for international cooperation on research and  
327 publication and exchange of high-quality scientific information. Countries were largely on their own  
328 in modeling the potential impact of the spread of the virus and in deciding on policy responses, with  
329 the result that a wide range of approaches were seen, ranging from complete shut-down of the  
330 economy and schools to people just being advised to avoid unnecessary contact with others. It was  
331 also unclear how effectively to model the impact of different policy interventions.

332 There have been many more cases of COVID-19 than of HIV infection but far fewer deaths.  
333 Significant in accounting for the relatively low number of deaths from COVID-19 was the very rapid  
334 development and roll-out of vaccines, providing a high level of protection from serious disease and  
335 death in many countries. As a result of the accelerated pace at which COVID-19 developed to a first  
336 peak of infections, at which time a high proportion of the deaths also occurred, there was little time  
337 for research to be carried out and for scientific papers to be published in peer-reviewed journals.  
338 There are still many unanswered questions, which international research and collaboration may help  
339 to answer, but a bit late in the day for having any real positive impact on the epidemic, which has  
340 already long passed its peak.

341 Although there may not have been time to really benefit from international exchange of ideas for  
342 modeling COVID-19, a number of attempts were made to monitor comparisons of how the epidemic  
343 was progressing in other countries. This brought to light the hazards of making international  
344 comparisons (or even comparisons between regions within a country) without a proper  
345 understanding of whether there was consistency between the numbers compared. Firstly, many  
346 comparisons placed emphasis on the number of recorded cases of infection with COVID-19. This  
347 was not in practice a very useful statistic, as every country had its own approach to testing and, even  
348 within a country, the way in which testing was carried out – and the populations monitored –  
349 changed significantly over time. Growth in the recorded number of infections was often the result of

350 more people being tested, instead of a more scientific approach using only prevalence statistics  
351 based on the *proportion* testing positive.

352 Secondly, there was considerable confusion about how to measure the impact of COVID-19 on  
353 mortality, with some countries adopting a definition of a COVID-19 death as being a death within a  
354 set period of having had a positive COVID-19 test. This resulted in a lot of deaths from entirely  
355 different causes, such as cancers, heart disease and chronic pulmonary conditions, being treated as  
356 COVID-19 deaths, since the patient had caught COVID-19 in hospital or whilst being treated for  
357 something else. Records of cause of death were also unreliable, as doctors would record both  
358 COVID-19 and some other condition as joint causes of death, or record only COVID-19 as the cause  
359 of death, when there was clearly some other significant contributing factor behind the death.

360 Probably the most reliable approach for monitoring the overall impact of the pandemic was to keep  
361 track of excess deaths, as discussed earlier in this paper.

362 Even ensuring proper comparability in analysing deaths from COVID-19 between countries was not  
363 easy. We have already mentioned differences in the definition of COVID-19 deaths, but there were  
364 also differences between countries because a) the pandemic started at different times in different  
365 countries and b) deaths in care homes and other non-hospital settings were not included in the  
366 published figures for deaths in some countries for certain periods. Much popular commentary was  
367 based on absolute numbers of deaths, with the all too obvious result that larger countries were  
368 reporting more deaths. From an actuarial perspective it clearly only makes sense to compare deaths  
369 relative to the size of the population, preferably in age-groups, rather than absolute numbers, and  
370 even this may not give a very reliable comparison because of differences in age distribution, and  
371 detailed figures of COVID-19 deaths by age were easy to obtain for many countries.

372 Differences in mortality by country were affected by a wide range of other factors, such as population  
373 density, incidence of poverty, attitudes to social distancing (whether normally or in response to such  
374 policies being promulgated), imposition of general lockdowns, extent of mask-wearing, and how  
375 older people in care homes were protected from the virus (or not). As time went on, the speed of roll-  
376 out of effective vaccines also became a significant factor.

377 At the time cumulative COVID-19 deaths were frequently reported without showing the ratio of  
378 deaths to the size of the population. The IFoA's COVID-19 Actuaries Response Group published  
379 comparisons showing deaths from COVID-19 per million of population and deaths based on scaling  
380 the relevant populations to the size of the population of the UK, so as to make the figures more  
381 comparable.

382 This section (and the Appendix) has aimed to give a flavour of international cooperation between  
383 actuaries in the two most recent global epidemics, HIV/AIDS in the 1980s and 1990s and COVID-19  
384 in 2020-22. There is obviously scope for leveraging international sharing of data and models to a  
385 significantly greater extent than happened in practice in either of these two pandemics. Some  
386 pandemic models could be quite transferable between different countries, although the experience  
387 of South Africa with the HIV/AIDS epidemic is illustrative of how a pandemic can take an entirely  
388 different course in some countries to others. Care needs to be taken in parameterising models to  
389 take fully into account the situation pertaining to the country being studied, as many aspects of the  
390 risk factors of the underlying population, the rate of transmission of the virus, definitions, reliability  
391 and consistency of available data, the approach to testing, treatment and vaccination may all differ  
392 markedly from one country to another.

## 393 **6. Scenario Building**

### 394 **Actuarial Experience in Scenario Building**

395 Actuaries play a crucial role in assessing and managing risk for insurance companies, pension  
396 funds, and other financial institutions. A key aspect of this role involves building scenarios that  
397 illustrate variability in potential outcomes. This process is essential for understanding the range of

398 possibilities without giving undue prominence to extreme outcomes.

399 In scenario building, actuaries draw upon historical data, statistical models, and expert judgement  
400 to create a spectrum of possible future events. This includes considering various economic  
401 conditions, market trends, and demographic factors that could impact the organization's financial  
402 health. Once scenarios have been constructed, actuaries assign probabilities to each outcome  
403 based on their likelihood of occurrence. These probabilities are derived from rigorous analysis and  
404 are crucial for understanding the weighted average or expected outcome. Probability-weighted  
405 outcomes provide a more nuanced view of risk, allowing organizations to prepare for a range of  
406 possibilities.

407 As part of their risk management system, insurance companies regularly run scenarios. For example,  
408 for every European insurance company reporting under Solvency II this is a mandatory part of their  
409 own risk and solvency assessment (ORSA). In the period before COVID-19, several insurance  
410 companies reported a pandemic scenario as one of the total set of scenarios in which their solvency  
411 position would be negatively affected. When COVID-19 broke out, and the first results became  
412 visible, many insurers started to execute an additional out-of-sequence ORSA, in which the pandemic  
413 scenario included in the scenario set was replaced by the COVID-19 scenario.

#### 414 **Sensitivity to Key Assumptions**

415 Actuaries are also tasked with illustrating sensitivity to key assumptions. This involves testing how  
416 changes in certain variables or parameters impact the overall outcomes. By varying these  
417 assumptions, actuaries can assess the robustness of their models and understand which factors  
418 have the most significant influence on the results.

419 Sensitivity analysis helps organizations make informed decisions by identifying which assumptions  
420 are critical and where there is potential for uncertainty. Actuaries may present sensitivity analysis  
421 through tornado diagrams or scenario stress-testing, showing how variations in inputs affect the  
422 outputs.

423 In times of crisis, and therefore also during COVID-19, it is crucial for insurance companies to  
424 undertake sensitivity and scenario analysis in order to gain sufficient insight into how the crisis could  
425 proceed and how quickly the crisis could end.

#### 426 **Conclusion**

427 In conclusion, actuarial work in scenario building, probability-weighted outcomes, and sensitivity  
428 analysis are essential components of effective risk management. By carefully constructing  
429 scenarios, assigning probabilities, and testing key assumptions, actuaries provide valuable insights  
430 that enable organizations to navigate uncertain futures with greater confidence. This expertise was  
431 essential in assisting companies navigate through the pandemic, helping companies look at their  
432 capital resilience, for example, to different scenarios.

## 433 **7. Conclusions**

### 434 **Data and Models Interactions**

435 Data is critical in decision-making. In a crisis such as a pandemic, existing models projecting  
436 potential outcomes will be refreshed and new models will be built to adapt to the circumstances of  
437 the pandemic. To feed all of these models, data needs to be collected, aggregated and adapted to  
438 fit the needs of the models.

439 In the insurance world, actuaries are often tasked in analyzing data and determining how to use it in  
440 models projecting potential future developments. The outputs provide decision-makers with  
441 pertinent information to make key decisions. The models that are used for many insurance products  
442 are multi-state stochastic processes in which the probability of what happens next depends on the  
443 attained state and not on the route taken to get there. These models can be adapted to modeling  
444 the future of a pandemic and they are very much the same family of models that are used by

445 epidemiologists, for example, in their work on forecasting the impact of disease.

446 In examining and analyzing data, it is critical to understand

- 447 • how to segregate the data,
- 448 • which measures to use that are likely to be robust for modeling purposes
- 449 • how to compute more reliable measures.
- 450 • how to identify the exposed to risk for a particular outcome; and
- 451 • ensuring that the measure of the outcome is correctly aligned with the exposure.

452 As the impact of COVID-19 unfolded and was disclosed to the public, some absolute numbers which  
453 were regularly quoted, such as infection case numbers and number of deaths per country, may  
454 sometimes have provided a misleading picture. Population numbers and numbers of tests, as  
455 measures of exposure, could have been useful to calibrate the results.

456 In projecting outcomes, there is significant uncertainty about interpretation of the data relating to  
457 what has occurred and even more uncertainty about how the future may unfold. This necessitates  
458 strong application of statistical inference in relation to the data and use of scenarios and stochastic  
459 variables in models of future development. In presenting model results, the users would benefit from  
460 a good understanding of the sensitivity of projections, identification of key drivers and the weight to  
461 be placed on different potential outcomes. More comprehensive models could also take into  
462 account feed-back loops, with adjustment of assumptions in future periods in response to more  
463 extreme outcomes which would inevitably trigger further policy developments.

#### 464 **Calling Upon Actuaries in Data and Models**

465 Actuaries are experienced in data analysis and in using data to develop appropriate assumptions, in  
466 particular where there is great uncertainty surrounding the data and about how the future might be  
467 expected to differ from the past. This includes sensitivity to understanding of bias in data and the  
468 influence of selection effects, as well as identification of key drivers which should be taken into  
469 account in possible future outcomes. Actuarial models normally take into account the need to  
470 analyze modeling separately by age and gender, as well as by many other potential characteristics,  
471 in order not to conflate different influences which could lead to spurious projections of  
472 heterogeneous groups. A key skill in this sort of modeling is deciding what degree of homogeneity  
473 to accept as a plausible model representation of massive real-life heterogeneity.

474 Actuaries operate within a strong code of professional conduct which focuses on serving society as  
475 well as the immediate client – and the need for effective communication of results. The nature of  
476 actuarial work is to focus on the impact of the results of the models on different groups and to take  
477 into account the broader context in which the work is carried out.

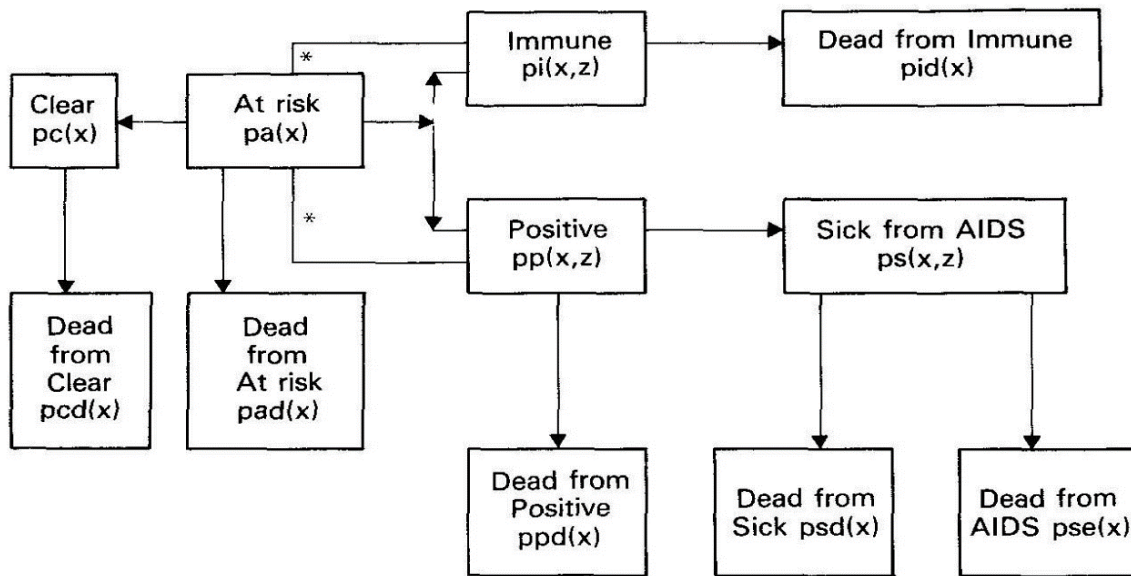
478 Actuaries are used to working in multi-disciplinary teams, both within insurance companies and even  
479 more so in new areas of practice such as risk management, climate risk and biodiversity. In modeling  
480 an epidemic there will usually be considerable value in bringing together the expertise of  
481 epidemiologists, public health experts, medical professionals and actuaries. In relation to COVID-19  
482 a range of other expertise was needed, such as economics, social science and behavioral science,  
483 in order to evaluate the likely responses to different policy proposals and come to an overview of  
484 the impact on society and the economy. Making the cooperation as broad as possible will ensure  
485 greater diversity of thought and reduce the potential for group-think and bring all the advantages  
486 that diversity of background brings to decision-making. Actuaries should build contacts and  
487 networks with other professionals which will facilitate cooperation and mutual respect in a future  
488 pandemic.

489 **APPENDIX**

490 **Actuarial Involvement and International Cooperation During the HIV/AIDS Pandemic**

491 In the late 1980s, the development of models to project the future development of HIV infection and  
 492 AIDS saw significant cooperation between the working groups established by different actuarial  
 493 associations, such as the Institute and Faculty of Actuaries (IFoA) in the United Kingdom, the Society  
 494 of Actuaries (SOA) in North America<sup>5</sup>, the Canadian Institute of Actuaries (CIA)<sup>6</sup>, the Institute of  
 495 Actuaries of Australia<sup>7</sup> (IAAust) and the Actuarial Society of South Africa (ASSA)<sup>8</sup>. The IFoA AIDS  
 496 Working Party utilised a model developed by Professor David Wilkie<sup>9</sup>, which was a Markov  
 497 stochastic process, applicable to a large population, with time-varying transition intensities  
 498 between states. It was mathematically similar to models used by leading epidemiologists<sup>10</sup> but,  
 499 unlike most of the models being used by other forecasters at the time, it allowed fully for the  
 500 age distribution, with transition intensities and survival factors able to be varied by age, and  
 501 hence was able to produce results by age.

502 **Figure 2: AIDS Model – States and Transitions**



503 \*denotes possible infection.

504 Source: Wilkie A D (1988) An actuarial model for AIDS. Journal of the Institute of Actuaries 115, 839-853

505 Although there was some valuable exchange of mutual knowledge between the different AIDS  
 506 Working Parties, the context in each country was different, leading to different parametrization of  
 507 models and often also to a difference in emphasis in what was the focus of study and the outputs  
 508 that were presented to the profession or more widely in the public arena. Unlike the recent COVID-  
 509 19 epidemic, the actuarial work was mostly focused on supporting the insurance industry with  
 510 information about the evolution of mortality rates and the consequent impact on underwriting,  
 511 pricing and reserving, although, in the UK at least, and later in South Africa, the actuarial work was  
 512 held in high regard by policymakers and influenced important aspects of national policy.

513 Relatively soon it emerged that the context in South Africa was different from some other countries.  
 514 Although HIV infection started to develop a little later than in North America and the UK, it soon  
 515 became evident that heterosexual spread was going to be the major consideration and there were  
 516 great differences in rates of transmission between different parts of the population. This  
 517 necessitated a new approach to modeling the epidemic and led to the development of the ASSA  
 518 AIDS Model by Peter Doyle and collaborators<sup>11,12</sup>. This model came about after extensive  
 519 consultation with experts in the medical profession and led to the development of a sophisticated  
 520 model that was used over a number of years, when the South African epidemic (and that in other  
 521 countries in Africa) grew in significance, whilst the number of cases in the UK and North America

522 became less concerning and treatments for those with HIV infection and those with AIDS  
523 substantially increased the expectation of life of those who became infected. The ASSA model was  
524 further developed by Professor Rob Dorrington and colleagues at the University of Cape Town<sup>13,14,15</sup>  
525 and became recognized as a major source of information for public policy. Peter Doyle has more  
526 recently looked back at the development of the ASSA AIDS model and compared it with the response  
527 to COVID-19<sup>16</sup>.

528 In practice the publication of scary projections of how the numbers infected and dying from AIDS  
529 would grow resulted in strong public policy measures being taken to warn those most at risk of the  
530 dangers – and as a result transmission fell steeply, although heterosexual transmission became  
531 more material, and children were also infected from their mothers. Treatments were developed  
532 which slowed the progression to developing AIDS and substantially extended the lifespan of those  
533 with AIDS. As a result, the outcome on all measures was very much below the early projections. This  
534 was true in most industrialised countries, but the epidemic continued to grow elsewhere, for example  
535 in sub-Saharan Africa.

536 The HIV/AIDS epidemic is not over, although its impact has declined. WHO estimates<sup>17</sup> that  
537 worldwide 1.3 million people acquired HIV in 2022, including 130,000 children. Since 2010, the  
538 number of people acquiring HIV has been reduced by 38%, from 2.1 million. HIV continues to be a  
539 major global public health issue, claiming some 40 million lives so far. In 2022, an estimated  
540 630 000 people (including 84,000 children) died from HIV-related causes globally, although since  
541 2010 HIV-related deaths have been reduced by 51%, from an estimated 1.3 million. The global HIV  
542 epidemic claimed 69% fewer lives in 2022 compared to the peak in 2004. An estimated 39.0 million  
543 people were living with HIV worldwide at the end of 2022, including 1.5 million children (0-14 years  
544 old), with 25.6 million of them in Africa. Since the beginning of the epidemic an estimated 85.6  
545 million people have been infected with HIV and 40.4 million people have died of HIV.



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