

Statistical modelling in insurance and finance

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Prerequisite course: 1 course in statistics

Reference: Loss Models: from data to decisions
Klugman S.A., Panjer H.H. and Willmot, G.E.
(1998). Wiley

Course objective: The student will learn the various steps in modelling for problems in P/C insurance

- hypothesize an appropriate model for a data set
- estimate the parameters of the model and variance
- test goodness-of-fit of model to data.

The model can then be applied to calculate premiums and measure impact of policy modifications (deductible, limit, coinsurance)

Preparation to exam C of SOA and CAS
Construction and evaluation of actuarial models

Do problems (many)!

(3)

Plan of course

1- Introduction

2- Functions describing a random variable (r.v.)

3- Measures characterizing a r.v.

4- Classifications of distributions

5- Creation of new distributions

6- Estimation of parameters

7- Quality of estimators

I - Introduction

- Main differences between P/C insurance + life insurance
 - P/C : property/casualty ins. (fire, home, automobile...)
also called general ins. in UK.
 - Life ins: amount (death benefit) is fixed at policy issue
P/C ins: claim amount is random.
 - Life ins: Time-until-death is random (long term \rightarrow discount)
P/C ins: also random but short-term renewable contracts
No discounting - Premium adjusted based on experience of policyholder (ex: automobile ins)
 - P/C ins: amount paid by ins. may be smaller than loss incurred by policyholder.

• Definitions

- accident: event leading to a loss by J.h. (policyholder)
The J.h. incurs damages potentially covered by his policy.
- loss: amount of damages incurred by J.h. following the accident.
- claim: amount paid to J.h. following the accident (may be smaller than loss)

- Why amount paid may be smaller than loss?
 - loss adjustment expenses
(amount incurred to determine amount paid, legal fees)
 - policy modifications
 - deductible : if loss smaller than deductible, no amount paid; otherwise, amount paid equals loss minus deductible.
 - limit : if loss exceeds limit, amount paid = limit
 - coinsurance : percentage of loss (after deductible and limit) paid by insurer.

Ex: Group dental policy

Currently policy has a deductible of 50 per claim.
Investigate:
 a) elimination of deductible to encourage more frequent visits to dentist by users
 b) raising deductible to 100 to reduce premiums.

10 claims chosen at random:

141 16 46 40 351 259 317 1511 107 567

- Parametric models

Advantages :- we can answer question like elimination of deductible ; imposing policy limit
- calculation of Confidence intervals
- simplicity (1 distribution + 2 parameters).
- smoothness

Estimation of Parameters

- joint estimation

- by interval

Hypothesis testing.

- Hypothesis

- loss and amount to be paid are known as accident occurs
- in practice, there may be a long delay between time of accident and time of final payment by insuror. The claim could also be paid in many small instalments.

Random variable

- loss in automobile insurance
- claim in automobile ins.
- Number of claims in a year by a policy holder (J_h)
- Total number of claims by all J_h of company
- Total claim amounts by all J_h in aut. ins.

2 - Functions describing a r.v. X

a) Cumulative distribution function (cdf)

$$F_x(x) = \Pr [X \leq x]$$

Properties: - mon-decreasing

- continuous to the right

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_x(x) = 0 \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F_x(x) = 1$$

b) Probability density function (pdf)

$$f_x(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F_x(x) \text{ for continuous r.v.}$$

Properties: - positive

$$- \Pr [a < X \leq b] = \int_a^b f_x(x) dx.$$

$$(\text{if } X \text{ discrete, } F_x(x) = \sum_{y \leq x} \Pr [X = y].)$$

c) Survival function $s(x) = 1 - F_x(x)$

d) Hazard rate: $h_x(x) = f_x(x)/s(x) = -\frac{d}{dx} \ln s(x)$

Properties: $h_x(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x$.

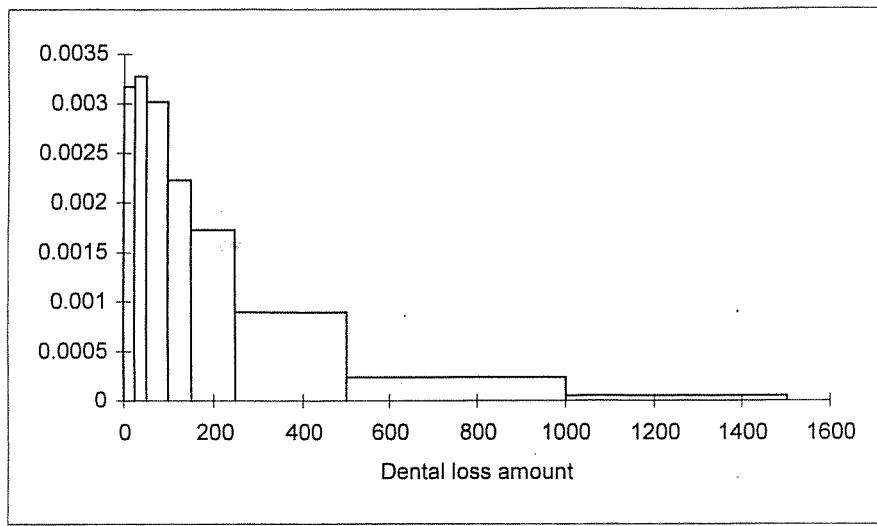


Fig. 2.3 Histogram of grouped dental loss amounts

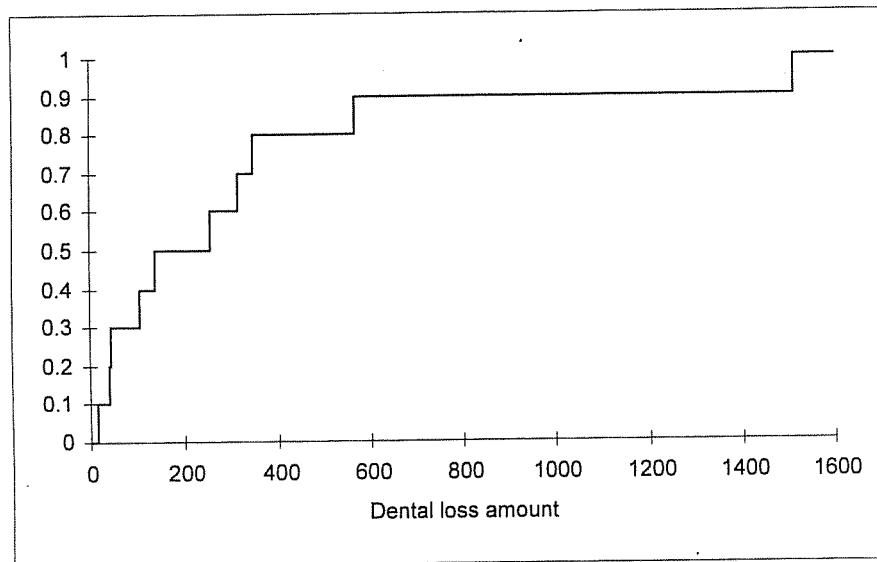
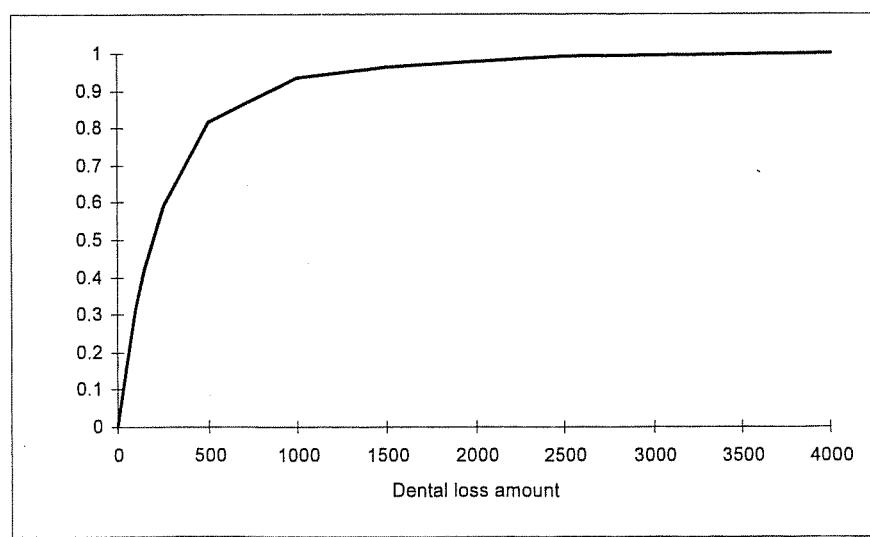


Fig. 2.1 Empirical distribution function of individual dental loss amounts



ref. Loss
distribution

Fig. 2.2 Ogive of grouped dental loss amounts

3 - Measures characterizing a r.v.

- Mode: value maximizing the j.d.f $f_x(x)$ or $P_x[X=x]$.
? Mode at 0 or positive

- Median: measure of central tendency (symmetric dist.?)
value $m \Rightarrow P_x[X \leq m] = \frac{1}{2}$ (if X continuous, m unique)
- Mean: measure of central tendency (moment matching)
 $E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_x(x) dx$ if X continuous r.v.

$$E(X) = \sum_n x \cdot P_x[X=x] \text{ if } X \text{ discrete r.v.}$$

What is $E(X)$ if X is a mixed r.v.

- Variance $\text{Var}(X) = E[(X-\mu)^2] = E(X^2) - E^2(X)$.

N.B. $E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot f_x(x) dx$ if X continuous

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_n g(x) \cdot P_x[X=x] \text{ if } X \text{ discrete.}$$

If integral or sum does not converge, $E[g(X)]$ does not exist.

- k^{th} moment ($k \in \mathbb{N}$) $E[X^k]$.

- Coefficient of variation

measure of standardized variability: $\frac{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}}{E(X)}$

- Coefficient of asymmetry $\frac{E[X-E(X)]^3}{(\text{Var}(X))^{3/2}}$

if equal to 0, symmetric dist.; if > 0 , asymmetric to the right.

verify: $E[X-E(X)]^3 = E[X^3] - 3E(X^2)E(X) + 2E^3(X)$

- Kurtosis: measure thickness of tails (compared to normal dist.)

$$\frac{E[(X-E(X))^4]}{\text{Var}(X)^2}$$

- Percentile: $f_x(x) > 0$; for $0 < p < 1$, unique x_p s.t. $F_x(x_p) = p$.

- Moment generating function $M_x(t)$

$M_x(t) = E(e^{tX})$ for all t for which $E(\cdot)$ exists.

$$E[X^k] = \frac{d^k}{dt^k} M_x(t) \Big|_{t=0}, \quad k=1, 2, \dots$$

$$\text{since } M_x(t) = E\left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n X^n}{n!}\right] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n E(X^n)}{n!}$$

- Find $M_x(t)$ if $X \sim E(x)(\theta)$.

If X_1, \dots, X_m are indep. r.v. s.t. $M_{x_i}(t)$ exists for all i , then for $Y = \sum_{i=1}^m X_i$

$$M_y(t) = \prod_{i=1}^m M_{x_i}(t)$$

if X_i are iid, then $M_y(t) = (M_{x_i}(t))^m$.

- Proof: ...

- mgf uniquely characterizes a r.v.

Use this to find dist. of $\sum_{i=1}^m X_i$, $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} E(\theta)$.

4- Classification of distributions

- complexity of model (number of parameters)

- Shape of distribution (asymmetry, tails, mode).

Complexity of models

Arguments for a simple model

- few elements to specify
- model more stable in time

Arguments for a complex model: better fit to data

Parsimony: the simplest model reflecting well the reality should be used.

G. Box: "All models are wrong, but certain are useful".

• Class of parametric distributions

- set of distributions where each member is specified by 1 or more parameters.
- Number of parameters is fixed and finite.
- If the values of all parameters are specified, the dist. is completely known.

• Scale family:

Let a be a positive constant.

A family is closed under a scale transformation

if $Y = aX$ belongs to the same family of dist. as X

$$\text{ex: 1- } X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2) \quad Y \sim N(a\mu, a^2\sigma^2)$$

$$\text{2- } X \sim \text{Exp}(\theta) \quad Y \sim \text{Exp}(a\theta).$$

If X has pdf $f_x(x)$, then $f_y(y) = f_x(y/a) \cdot \frac{1}{a}$.

A scale parameter is such that:

- The parameter is multiplied by a .
- The other parameters are unchanged.

ex:- Do the N & Exp have a scale parameter?

- $X \sim T(x, \beta)$. Scale parameter? It depends

- The lognormal represents a scale family, w/o scale param.

Change of monetary unit: Can \\$ \rightarrow US \\$

$$Y = 0.289 X$$

• Mixing of distributions

R.V. Y is a mixing of r.v. X_1, \dots, X_k ($k \in \mathbb{N}$) if its cdf is

$$F_Y(y) = \alpha_1 F_{X_1}(y) + \alpha_2 F_{X_2}(y) + \dots + \alpha_k F_{X_k}(y)$$

$$\text{where } 0 < \alpha_i < 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i = 1$$

To model Y when there are two or more subpopulations behaving differently
(ex: medical insurance: $k=2$: M + F.)

Car insurance: new drivers, experienced, old

- it may be difficult to estimate parameters $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k$
- k could be a parameter itself (compare models with $k=2$ vs $k=3$)
- also called semi-parametric models.
- if all r.v. X_i have the same dist. (e.g. Ex.).
it is a mixing of Exponential distributions

Continuous mixing

- the limit of the mixing of dist. as $k \rightarrow \infty$, is a continuous mixing of distributions.
- let $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ a r.v. with density f_θ
- after realization of θ , r.v. X has conditional density $f_{X|\theta}$
- the unconditional distribution of X

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X|\theta}(\epsilon | \theta) f_\theta(\theta) d\theta.$$

Ex: If $X \sim \text{Exp}(\frac{1}{\alpha})$ ($\frac{1}{\alpha}$ = mean) and

$X|\theta \sim \text{Exp}(\frac{1}{\theta})$, then $X \sim \text{Pareto}(1, \alpha)$.

Proof:

- Length of tails

interesting classification system, because

- tails contain information on extreme events.
- important for financial health of ins. gies.
- can order distributions according to length of tails.
(light, heavy, extremely heavy).

Measures of Tail length.

- existence of moments

if $E[X^k]$ exists for all k , light tail (Normal)

if $E[X^k]$ exists $\forall k \leq N$, heavy tail (Student)

if $E[X^k]$ does not exist $\forall k$, extremely heavy t. (Cauchy)

- existence of mgf

if mgf does not exist, heavier tail

- limit of ratio of jdf

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \begin{cases} \infty & : f \text{ has lighter tail} \\ 0 & : g \text{ has lighter R tail} \\ \text{cst} & : \text{similar behavior} \end{cases}$$

Proposition: If $g'(x) > 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = I \in [0, \infty)$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{S_f(x)}{S_g(x)} = 1$$

Ex: 1 $T(2, \theta)$ lighter right tail than $Ex(\theta)$.
Ratio of jdf.

2. With ratio of survival functions,
compare right tail of Burr ($\alpha=1, \theta, \tau > 0$)
with Pareto ($\alpha=1, \theta$).

$$P_B(x) = \frac{\theta^\tau}{\theta^\tau + x^\tau} \quad P_P(x) = \frac{\theta}{\theta + x}.$$

- hazard rate: increasing vs decreasing
non-shorttail shorttail

5- Creation of new distributions

a) Multiplication by a positive constant
 $y = ax$, $a > 0$ Change of scale.
 $F_Y(y) = F_X(y/a)$

b) Raising to a power

$$Y = X^\tau, \tau \in \mathbb{R}, X > 0.$$

$$F_Y(y) = P(X \leq y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \tau = 0. \\ P_a[X \leq y^{\frac{1}{\tau}}] & \text{if } \tau > 0 \\ P_a[X \geq y^{\frac{1}{\tau}}] & \text{if } \tau < 0. \end{cases}$$

$\tau > 0$: transformed dist.

$\tau = 1$: inverse dist.

$\tau < 0$: transformed inverse dist.

Ex. $X \sim \text{Exp}(1)$
Distribution of $Y = X^\theta$.

c) Exponentiation $Y = e^X$

cdf of Y ?

$$1 - X \sim \text{Normal} \Rightarrow Y \sim \text{LN}$$

$$2 - X \sim \text{Exp}(1) \xrightarrow{Y=e^X-1} Y \sim \text{Pareto}(\alpha=1, \theta=1).$$

d) Splicing: join 2 or more jdf.

$$f_{X(n)} = \begin{cases} a_i f_i(x) & \text{if } c_i < x \leq c_i, \\ & \vdots \\ a_k f_k(x) & \text{if } c_{k-1} < x \leq c_k, \end{cases}$$

where $f_i(x)$ is a jdf, $\sum_{i=1}^k a_i = 1$

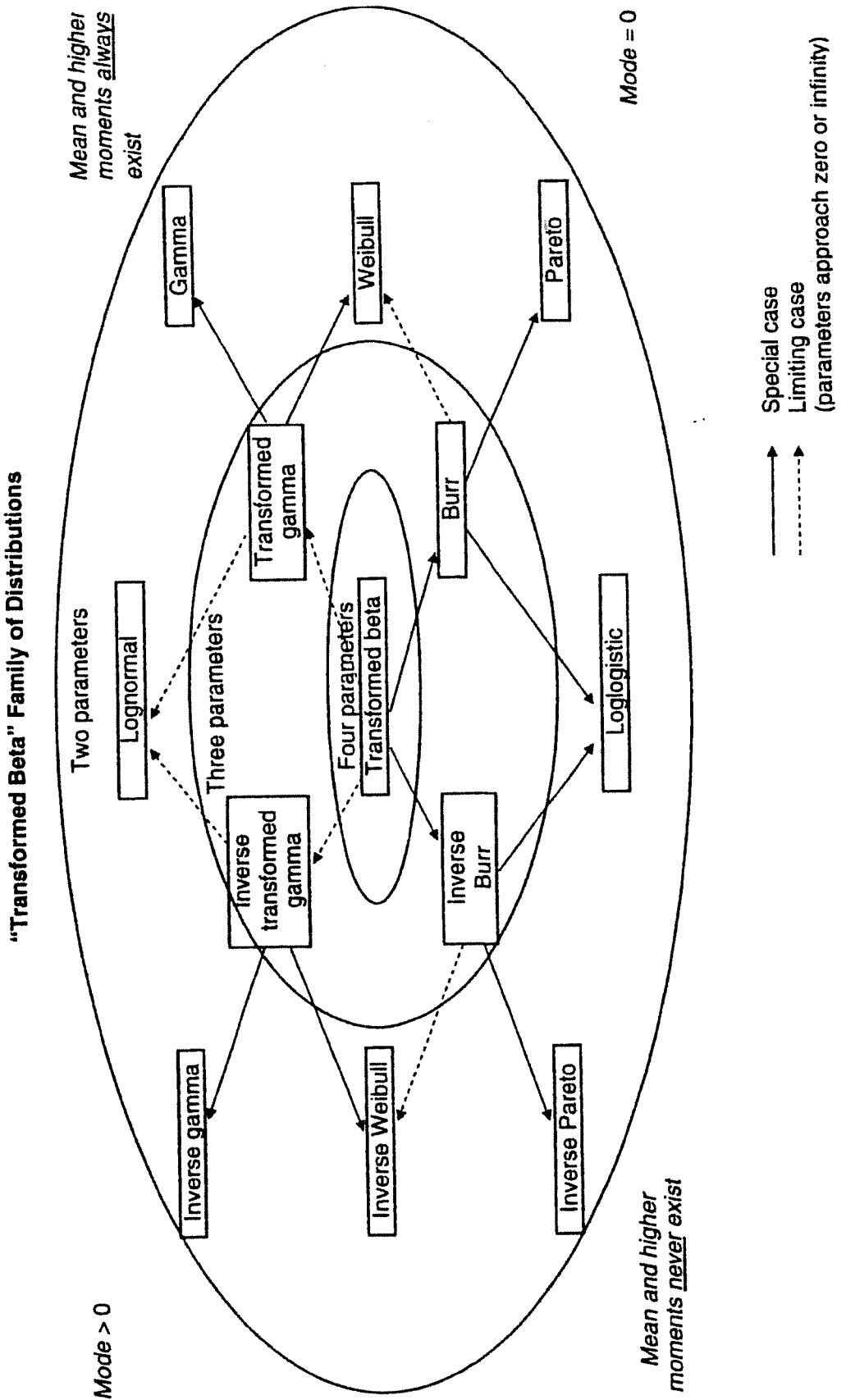


Figure 5.4 Distributional relationships and characteristics.

Ref.: Klugman, Panjer, Willmot (2008), 3rd ed. Loss Models: From Data to Decisions

N.B. f_X not necessarily continuous.

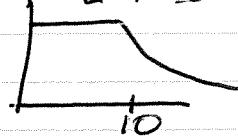
2- k, c_0, \dots, c_k are usually known.

3- Interpretation similar to mixing

Ex: positive return vs negative return of a stock.

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0.01 & \text{if } 0 < x \leq 10 \\ 0.05 & \text{if } 20 \geq x > 10. \end{cases}$$

Join $[0, 10]$ with $g_X(x) = e^{-(x-10)}, x > 10$



(multiply by $\frac{10}{11}$)

6- Estimation of parameters

A- Method of moments

Equate the first j empirical moments

to those of theoretical distribution

$X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} F$ with parameter $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

Solve system of equations

$$E(X_i^k) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^k, \quad k = 1, \dots, j.$$

Difficulty with large value of j (extreme values!)
you could use negative or fractional moments.

Ex: 1- $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \text{Exp}(\theta)$
... Moment estimator?

2- $X_i \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} LN(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

3- $X_i \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$.

B- Percentile matching
 X_1, \dots, X_n r.v. with same dist. F.

F depends on $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Objective: estimate parameters using
 percentiles of distribution F set
 equal to percentiles of empirical dist. $F_m(x)$
 Method: Find j percentiles representing well
 the dist. (Ex: for $j=2$, use 25th and
 75th percentile).

$$F_m(x) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m I(X_i \leq x). \quad \text{The empirical cdf
could be smoothed.}$$

Smoothing: order sample: $x_{(1)}, \dots, x_{(n)}$
 Interpolation between 2 observations.

$$\hat{x}_g = (1-h)x_{(g)} + h x_{(g+1)}$$

$j = \lfloor (n+1)g \rfloor$ at $h = (n+1)g - j$
 Find the 25th percentile with obs. (1.1, 1.75, 2.3, 3.7, 4.2)

Ex: $X \sim \text{Pareto } (\alpha=1, \theta)$. $F_x(x) = 1 - \frac{\theta}{x+\theta}$

Find $\hat{\theta}$ with median matching.

C- Maximum likelihood est (MLE)

advantage of A and B: easy to find estimators.

problems with A and B:

- does not use all the information available
- arbitrary decision for choice of percentiles.
- moments may not exist.

MLE - will correct these problems.
 - give dist. of $\hat{\theta}$.

(13)

X_1, \dots, X_n : i.i.d.r.v.
we observe x_1, \dots, x_n

$\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

Likelihood function

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_{X_i}(x_i; \theta) \quad \text{Find } \theta \text{ maximizing } L(\theta)$$

Log likelihood function

$$\ell(\theta) = \ln L(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln f_{X_i}(x_i; \theta).$$

Ex: X_1, \dots, X_n i.i.d. $E_X(\theta)$. (Q? J.O)

Find $l(\theta)$; $\ell(\theta)$; $\hat{\theta}$ MLE

7- Quality of estimators : - performance of estimators
- can we compare them?
- measures permitting this

i) bias : on average, does the estimator give the good value?

Definition: The bias of an estimator is equal to

$$E(\hat{\theta}) - \theta$$

Def.: An estimator is unbiased if its bias equals 0 for all value of θ .

Def.: An estimator is asymptotically unbiased if $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} E(\hat{\theta}_m) = \theta \quad \forall \theta$.

(ii) Consistency

An estimator is consistent if, for $\forall \delta > 0$, $\forall \theta$

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P_n [|\hat{\theta}_m - \theta| > \delta] = 0.$$

If $\hat{\theta}_m$ asympt. unbiased and its variance tends to 0, it is convergent.

iii) Mean quadratic error : avg dist. between estimator & parameter

$$MQE = E[(\hat{\theta}_m - \theta)^2] = \text{Var}(\hat{\theta}_m) + (E[\hat{\theta}_m] - \theta)^2.$$

Ex $X_1, \dots, X_m \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} U[0, \theta]$.

Estimate $\hat{\theta}_m$ by ML.
Study properties of $\hat{\theta}_m$. (Q? J. 15-16).

PROPERTIES of MLE

Under certain regularity conditions,

1- The probability that $\ell(\theta) = 0$ has a solution tends to 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$

2- $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_m - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, I^{-1}(\theta))$ Min. variance estim

where $I(\theta) = -E\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \ln f_{X(\theta)}\right)$ is the information on θ .

The expected information on θ often estimated with the observed information calculated from the sample.

Method of statistical differentials : dist. of $g(X)$.

X_n : random vector of dimension d .
 $g: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t. g' exists at θ .

If $\sqrt{n}(X_m - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \Sigma)$, then

$\sqrt{n}^T(g(X_m) - g(\theta)) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, g'(\theta) \sum g(\theta))$.

Particular case: $d=1$.

Examples.

Central Limit theorem

Let X_1, \dots, X_n be i.i.d. r.v. with $E(X_i) = \mu$ and

$\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$, then

$$\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} N(0, 1).$$