

UQÀM



Chaire Co-operators en
analyse des risques actuariels

Ratemaking with Telematics Data

Casualty Actuaries of Greater New York - 2021 Virtual Spring Meeting Webinar

Roxane Turcotte

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Université du Québec à Montréal

What do you think ?

We model $N_{it} \sim \text{Pois}(\mu_{it})$, where $\mu_{i,t} = \exp(s_1(\mathbf{km})) \exp(s_2(\mathbf{d})) \lambda_{i,t}$ with real canadian insurance data.

Questions :

- 1 What the relation between $\exp(s_1(km))$ and claim frequency would look like **when a linear trend is not imposed** by the model structure ?
- 2 And $\exp(s_2(d))$?

To help you :

- ▶ Would it be nonetheless nearly linear ?
- ▶ Would it stop increasing at some point ?
- ▶ Would it start to decline at some point ? Would it go up again ?
- ▶ Any other intuition ?

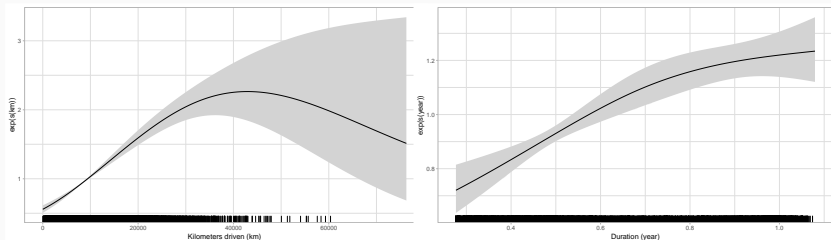


Figure 1: $\exp(\hat{s}_1(km))$ and $\exp(\hat{s}_2(year))$ from the Poisson GAM

Case Study

- 1 All models are illustrated using data from a **major Canadian insurance company**.
- 2 The model $\log(\mu_i) = \beta_0 + s_1(km_i) + s_2(d_i)$ yields **similar results** to those obtained by Boucher et al. (2017) (**Spanish data**).
- 3 In the study by Boucher et al. (2017), a “learning effect” is advanced to justify the look of $\exp(\hat{s}_1(km))$.

Consistency problem

The **slope** could change as distance increases, but it should always be **strictly positive** since the **risk** is **greater**, meaning that the smoothing function should always be increasing.

- ▶ **One explanation** comes from the fact that GAM **supposes independence** between all contracts of the same insured.

Results Analysis

One can argue that distance driven is **correlated** with **other driving habits** resulting from driving experience, (Ferreira and Minikel (2010)).

- 1 The model **does not** take this correlation **into account**.
- 2 The resulting relationship between claim frequency and the distance driven do **not** give an **appropriate representation** of how the claim frequency could change **when** insureds **change their driving habits**.

We think that the shape of the smoothing function comes from the **driver profiles** : the lower quantiles of the distribution of the distance driven does not come from the same (type of) drivers as the higher quantiles.

Search for a “marginal” effect

- 1 The objective is not to compute a premium.
- 2 The objective is mainly to understand **how** the **distance impacts** the claim frequency when **all individual characteristics** of policyholders have been **considered**.

Panel Data Modeling

In non-life insurance, however, we can observe the same insured over **many** contracts.

- Instead of modeling the marginal distribution of each $N_{i,t}$ for $t = 1, \dots, T$, we are now looking for the **joint distribution** :

$$\Pr(N_1 = n_1, N_2 = n_2, \dots, N_T = n_T) = \Pr(N_1 = n_1) \times \Pr(N_2 = n_2 | N_1 = n_1) \times \dots \times \Pr(N_T = n_T | N_1 = n_1, \dots, N_{T-1} = n_{T-1}),$$

Construct Multivariate Count Models

- ▶ One popular way, is to **include an individual parameter** α in the mean parameter of the count distribution of each contract t :

$$N_{i,t}|\alpha_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_{i,t} = \alpha_i \lambda_{i,t}), \quad (2)$$

Random vs Fixed effects

We can consider two different situations regarding this parameter :

- 1 All α_i , $i = 1, \dots, n$ are i.i.d. **random variables** that come from a selected **prior distribution** (we call this the random effects model) ;
- 2 All α_i , $i = 1, \dots, n$ are **unknown parameters** that need to be **estimated** (we call this the fixed effects model).

Model Specification

In random effects models, we suppose that α_i , $i = 1, \dots, n$, are **random variables**, with prior density $f(\cdot)$.

- ▶ Conditionally on the random effects α_i^{RE} , all numbers of claims $N_{i,1}, N_{i,2}, \dots, N_{i,T}$ from insured i are independent.

$$\Pr[N_{i,1} = n_{i,1}, \dots, N_{i,T} = n_{i,T}] = \int_0^\infty \left(\prod_{t=1}^T \exp(-\alpha_i^{RE} \lambda_{i,t}^{RE}) \frac{(\alpha_i^{RE} \lambda_{i,t}^{RE})^{n_{i,t}}}{n_{i,t}!} \right) f(\alpha_i^{RE}) d\alpha_i^{RE} \quad (3)$$

- ▶ Many distributions can be used for α_i^{RE} , such as the **gamma** or the inverse Gaussian.

Gamma Distribution

If we suppose that α_i^{RE} follows a **gamma distribution** of **mean 1** and **variance $\frac{1}{\nu}$** , the joint distribution can be expressed as :

$$\Pr[N_{i,1} = n_{i,1}, \dots, N_{i,T} = n_{i,T}] = \left(\prod_{t=1}^T \frac{(\lambda_{i,t}^{RE})^{n_{i,t}}}{n_{i,t}!} \right) \frac{\Gamma(n_{i,\bullet} + \nu)}{\Gamma(\nu)} \left(\frac{\nu}{\lambda_{i,\bullet}^{RE} + \nu} \right)^\nu (\lambda_{i,\bullet}^{RE} + \nu)^{-n_{i,\bullet}} \quad (4)$$

$$(n_{i,\bullet} = \sum_{t=1}^T n_{i,t} \text{ and } \lambda_{i,\bullet}^{RE} = \sum_{t=1}^T \lambda_{i,t}^{RE})$$

MVNB

This well-known distribution is the multivariate negative binomial distribution.

- 1 This distribution is a **generalization** of the **negative binomial distribution**.
- 2 It is a basic distribution for panel count data modeling with overdispersion ($\mathbb{E}[N_{i,t}] = \lambda_{i,t}^{RE} < \mathbb{V}[N_{i,t}] = \lambda_{i,t}^{RE} + (\lambda_{i,t}^{RE})^2 / \nu$).
- 3 It is **not** a member of the **linear exponential family**.
- 4 GAM theory **cannot be used** to include smoothing functions.

It can be shown that the first-order condition to obtain $\hat{\beta}_{MLE}$ is :

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_{i,t} \left(n_{i,t} - \lambda_{i,t}^{RE} \frac{n_{i,\bullet} + \nu}{\lambda_{i,\bullet}^{RE} + \nu} \right) = 0. \quad (5)$$

GAMLSS

Instead, we use **Generalized Additive Models for Location, Scale and Shape** theory, that can be used for other distributions than the members of the linear exponential family of distribution.

- ▶ **More flexible** : can model a location parameter μ_i , a variance parameter σ_i (scale), a skewness parameter ν_i and a kurtosis parameter τ_i as additive functions of the covariates.

$$g_k(\theta_k) = \mathbf{X}_k \beta_k + \sum_{j=1}^{J_k} \mathbf{Z}_{j,k} \gamma_{j,k} \quad (6)$$

- ▶ $\theta = \{\mu, \sigma, \nu, \tau\}$. μ, σ, ν and τ are vectors with n elements
- ▶ If a smooth function can be expressed in linear form, Equation (6) can be rewritten as

$$g_k(\theta_k) = \mathbf{X}_k \beta_k + \sum_{j=1}^{J_k} h_{j,k}(x_{j,k}),$$

where $h_{j,k}$ is a smooth non-parametric function.

Model Specification

It is possible to use a GAMLSS that specify **only the location parameter**. In this case, θ would simply become $\theta = \{\mu\}$.

- 1 We choose to model the parameter $\lambda_{i,t}$ with smoothing function ;
- 2 ν is kept **constant** for all individuals.

R package

- 1 To use GAMLSS, many distributions are available in the R package *gamlss*.
- 2 Unfortunately, the MVNB distribution is not one of them.
- 3 The distribution is however implemented by itself in the package *multinbmod*).

Consequently, we have to **write our own code** for convenience.

What do you think ?

We model $\mathbf{N} \sim MVNB(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \nu)$, where $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \exp(s_1(\mathbf{km})) \exp(s_2(d)) \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ with real canadian insurance data.

Questions :

- 1 What the **relation** between $\exp(s_1(\mathbf{km}))$ [$\exp(s_2(d))$] and **claim frequency** would look like ?
- 2 **How** would the results **differ** from the **previous model** ?

To help you :

- ▶ Would it be nonetheless nearly linear ?
- ▶ Would it stop increasing at some point ?
- ▶ Would it start to decline at some point ? Would it go up again ?
- ▶ Any other intuition ?

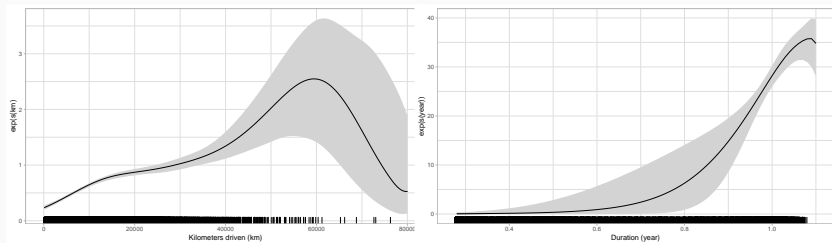


Figure 2: $\exp(\hat{s}_1(km))$ and $\exp(\hat{s}_2(year))$ from the GAMLSS with random effects model

Model Fitting

- 1 To fit the model, we maximize a **penalized log-likelihood** function l_p , integrating a quadratic penalty $\gamma^T \mathbf{G} \gamma$.
- 2 **Penalty matrix \mathbf{G}** : very often define as $\Lambda \mathbf{D}_r^T \mathbf{D}_r$ (different formulations possible).
- 3 A hyper-parameter, noted here $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^+$, controls the **weight given to the penalty**. The **greater** its value, the **smoother** the resulting estimated function.
- 4 To select the penalty parameters in $G(\Lambda)$ associated with both p-splines, we **test out** multiple **combinations** of values of $\Lambda = \{\Lambda_1, \Lambda_2\}$.

The model

Poisson fixed effects model can be seen as a **basic Poisson** regression model without an intercept. Being part of the linear exponential family of distribution, **GAM theory** can then be used when smoothing functions are added to the mean parameter of the distribution.

In practice, as mentioned, it is **relatively easy** to implement the fixed effects model with R; we simply used the *gam* function from the package *mgcv*.

- 1 To include fixed effects in the model the **intercept** of the model is **dropped**.
- 2 We include a **unique identifier** variable for each policyholder as a factor variable and we include the **distance driven** in the model using a **cubic spline s**.

A Fixed Effects Approach

Parameters estimation

In the fixed effects model, we consider each α_i , $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ as an **unknown parameter**.

- 1 At least $n + p + 1$ parameters should be estimated, which is quite a high number of parameters given that T_i is usually small for insurance datasets.
- 2 The large number of parameters in the model causes what is called **incidental problem**, which means that an incorrect estimation of the fixed effects α generates **incorrect estimates** of β associated with covariates in the mean.
- 3 It has been shown that a fixed effects model based on a Poisson distribution **does not have this problem** (see (Cameron and Trivedi, 2013)) for a detailed explanation).

First-order condition equation

For the β parameters, the first condition by MLE can be shown to be equal to :

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{t=1}^{T_i} \mathbf{x}_{i,t} \left(n_{i,t} - \lambda_{i,t}^{FE} \frac{n_{i,\bullet}}{\lambda_{i,\bullet}^{FE}} \right) = 0. \quad (7)$$

When we compare the first-order condition equation of the random effects model and (7), we see that when T is large, or when $\mathbf{v} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$, **random and fixed** effects models are **equivalent**.

What do you think ?

We model $N_{i,t} \sim \text{Pois}(\mu_{i,t})$, where $\mu_{i,t} = \exp(a_i) \exp(s(km))$.

Questions :

- 1 What the **relation** between $\exp(s(km))$ and claim frequency would look like ?
- 2 Will the **"learning effect"** be there again ?

Rating structure based on distance driven

We decided to model the Poisson fixed effects by **not including** a smoothing function for the duration.

- 1 Our objective is to measure the **marginal effect** of the distance on the claim frequency. If we want to measure the risk of each additional kilometer the insured decides to drive, the **duration** of the contract is **not important**.
- 2 We want to construct a rating structure based solely on the distance driven as a risk measure.

A Fixed Effects Approach

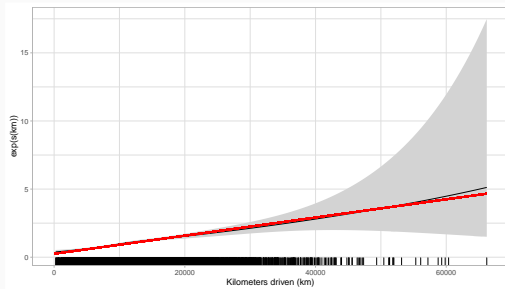


Figure 3: GAM with fixed effects estimated with Canadian data

Results Analysis

- 1 The relationship between distance traveled and claim frequency is **always increasing**, and is even **almost linear**.
- 2 What has been called the “learning effect” has **disappeared**.
- 3 We observe a **much more logical** and **coherent** relationship between distance traveled and frequency than before.

Marginal impact of each additional kilometer

- 1 The relationship between claim frequency and the distance driven should be understood as the **marginal impact** of **each** additional kilometer driven or not-driven.
- 2 Explicitly, as we approximated $\exp(s(\mathbf{km}))$ by $0.25 + \frac{1}{15000} km_{i,t}$ (the red line), we then have

$$\begin{aligned} N_{it} &\sim \text{Poisson}(\exp(\alpha_i) \exp(s(\mathbf{km}))) \\ &\sim \text{Poisson}(\exp(\alpha_i)(a + b km_{i,t})) \\ &\sim \text{Poisson}\left(0.25 \exp(\alpha_i) + \frac{1}{15000} \exp(\alpha_i) km_{i,t}\right). \end{aligned}$$

- 3 We see that the **slope**, i.e., the marginal impact of each additional kilometer driven or not-driven, is **not the same** for each insured because it **depends on α_i** .

A Fixed Effects Approach

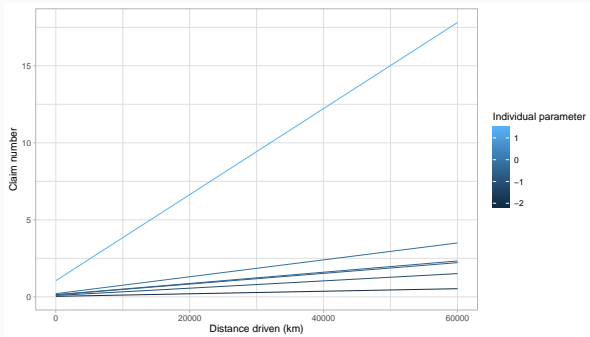


Figure 4: Exposure measure for different individual parameters.

Results Analysis II

- ▶ With this model, we then **reconcile** the intuition that **each kilometer** should increase the risk for an individual, but that this increase could be **different for each driver**.

“Learning effect”

In summary, **instead** of referring to the “learning effect” to understand the left-hand graph of Cross-sectional data model, we **should understand** instead that

- 1 Typical insureds who drive more than 60,000 km per year are **better risks per kilometer** than insureds who drive approximately 40,000 km per year.
- 2 However, for each driver, independently of their driving risk *per kilometer*, the risk of an accident will always **increase for each additional kilometer driven** (by approximately $\frac{1}{15,000}$).

Which Effect Should Be Used in Practice ?

The fixed effects model is **more general** than the random effects model, which means that in case of contradictory results, **fixed effects** should always be **preferred**.

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[N_{i,1} = n_{i,1}, \dots, N_{i,T} = n_{i,T}] &= \int_0^\infty \Pr[N_{i,1} = n_{i,1}, \dots, N_{i,T} = n_{i,T} | \mathbf{x}_{i,1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i,T}, \alpha_i^{RE}] f(\alpha_i^{RE} | \mathbf{x}_{i,1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i,T}) d\alpha_i^{RE} \\ &= \int_0^\infty \left(\prod_{t=1}^T \Pr[N_{i,t} = n_{i,t} | \mathbf{x}_{i,1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i,T}, \alpha_i^{RE}] \right) f(\alpha_i^{RE}) d\alpha_i^{RE} \\ &= \int_0^\infty \left(\prod_{t=1}^T \exp(-\alpha_i^{RE} \lambda_{i,t}^{RE}) \frac{(\alpha_i^{RE} \lambda_{i,t}^{RE})^{n_{i,t}}}{n_{i,t}!} \right) f(\alpha_i^{RE}) d\alpha_i^{RE}\end{aligned}$$

We can see that we have to suppose an **additional assumption** : from the first to the second line of development, $f(\alpha_i^{RE} | \mathbf{x}_{i,1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i,T})$ becomes $f(\alpha_i^{RE})$. **The interpretation of random effects results are tricky.**

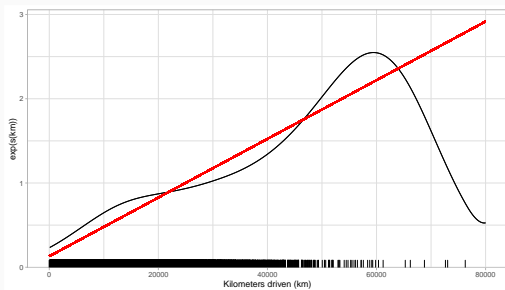


Figure 5: Comparison between the random effect approach and the fixed-effect approach for the median value of the individual parameter

Which Effect Should Be Used in Practice ?

- 1 Fixed effects modeling, even if theoretically better, is **not amenable** to ratemaking.
- 2 On the other hand, the **MVNB** can be used for **predictive rating**, where it can be shown that the predictive distribution of $N_{i,T}$ depends on past values of $\lambda_{i,t}$ and $n_{i,t}$, for $t = 1, \dots, T - 1$.

Take-home points

- 1 **Fixed effects** should be used to understand the “**true**” relationship between covariates and claims experience.
- 2 For ratemaking, fixed effects should be used to compute the **premium surcharge** for each additional kilometer the insureds drive.
- 3 In our case, it represents an increase of $\hat{\alpha}_i \frac{1}{15,000}$ per km, for claim frequency.
 - ▶ Using this approach, insurers will **avoid** the situation where an insured could see a **premium reduction** if, for example, he decides to drive 50,000 km instead of 40,000 km, as we saw with a **basic GAM approach**.
- 4 **Fixed effects** can be used to construct PAYD insurance solely based on kilometers driven for **self-service vehicles**, where drivers' profile cannot be directly used for ratemaking.
- 5 Research is required in this area.

References

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