



Rate Making using Frequency Severity Modeling in General InsuranceProduct with Excess Zero Count

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Introduction

Accidents occur every day. Some more severe than others. We cannot prevent accidents from happening. We can, however, protect ourselves against great financial loss if one does occur. Insurance is a way of protection against great economic losses. As a customer one is looking for an insurance policy that covers as much as possible at a low cost. As an insurer you want to make money, and at the same time keep and gain customers. If the cost of insurance is too high, customers will go to a company that is cheaper. In that way you are losing customers to the competition. If the price is too low, the insurer can risk more money going out, than coming in. As a result, the company loses money or, in the worst-case scenario, becomes insolvent. Individuals that are involved in many accidents, often get high premiums. When the price of insurance is too low, you will also risk attracting customers that have a high rate of claims, since the price they would get with other companies would be higher. This would fuel the initial problem, by increasing the number of claims. Therefore, pricing of insurance is crucial.

Insurance is an arrangement designed to protect a policyholder from financial losses and can roughly be divided into two main types. The first one is called life insurance and is related to the risk of an individual life, for instance, death, disability and retirement. The second is non-life insurance and deals with property losses or damages. Examples are insurance for home, travel and automobile. Pricing methods of the two types of insurance differ from each other, and our focus will be on the latter case. More specifically, we will concentrate on automobile insurance.

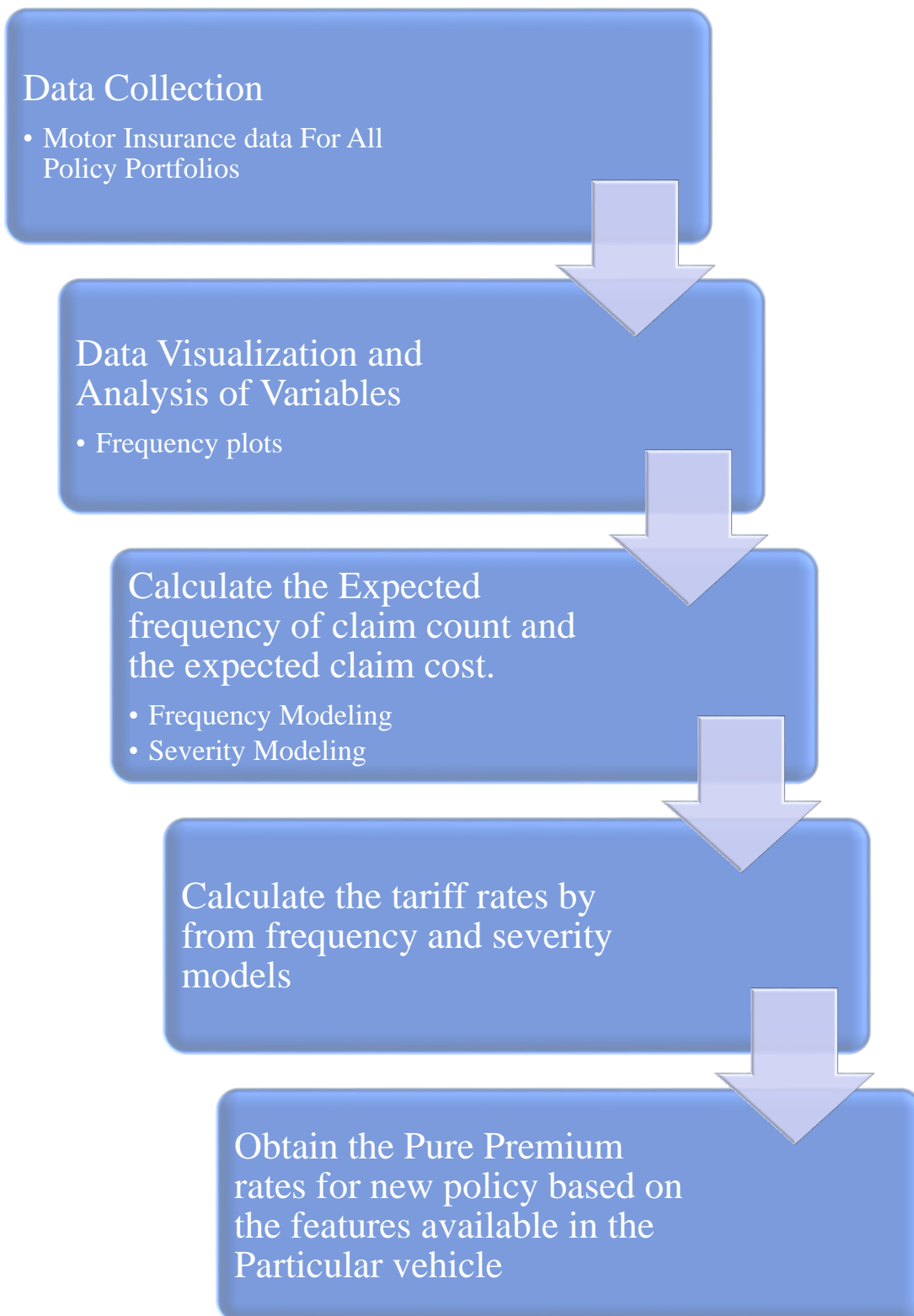
An insurance policy is the financial contract between an insurer (e.g. an insurance company) and a policyholder. The insurer takes all or part of the risk and demands an agreed amount of money, called insurance premium. This could be either a series of payments over time or a single payment. For the insurance premium, overhead costs (administrative expenses, capital costs etc.) and profits are taken into account. The part of the insurance premium that corresponding to the risk is called pure premium. It represents the expected pay-out for reported claims that occurred during the policy period.

Motivation

Being a part of Actuarial studies pricing has been always an important part of the product accessing. In General Insurance the pricing techniques are gaining more importance because of the various factors involved in different claims and the policy holders.

Statistical Methodologies are getting Introduced along with classical pricing techniques. Here the distributions used are not a new concept. Our Aim in this project is to point out the several distributions and also some modified ones to gain perfect accuracy. Our work mainly focus on a very common problem in General Insurance Product Pricing issue, i.e. the excess zero count.

Outline of Study



Chapter 2

Frequency Modeling

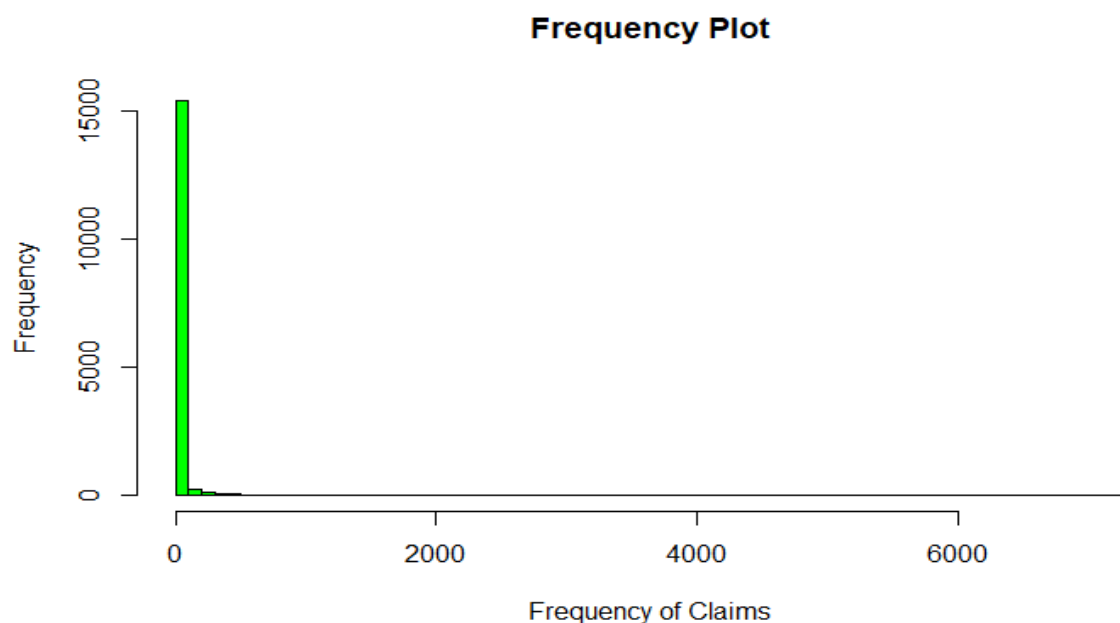
Intuition

Claim frequency and claim severity are the main two risk drivers in general insurance. Many insurance models make restrictive distribution assumptions on latter random variables and even assume them to be independent. The premium charged to a customer is given by the multiplication of the expected claim frequency and severity.

Data Description

Here We have considered the Motor Insurance data of United India Insurance Company. As far as the data is concerned, this is a product basis data, not a customer basis data. Data contains the product details of Motor Insurance products till 2016. The Exposure period is not known.

Data Visualization



Frequency Modeling

Due to this current trend in insurance, generalized linear models (GLMs) have become a popular statistical tool to analyse and model claim frequency and severity.

Generalised Linear Model

Generalized linear modelling is used to assess and quantify the relationship between a response variable and explanatory variables. The modelling differs from ordinary regression modelling in two important respects:

- i. The distribution of the response is chosen from the exponential family. Thus, the distribution of the response need not be normal or close to normal and may be explicitly non-normal.
- ii. A transformation of the mean of the response is linearly related to the explanatory variables.

A consequence of allowing the response to be a member of the exponential family is that the response can be, and usually is, heteroskedastic. Thus, the variance will vary with the mean which may in turn vary with explanatory variables. This contrasts with the homoscedastic assumption of normal regression.

Generalized linear models are important in the analysis of insurance data. With insurance data, the assumptions of the normal model are frequently not applicable. For example, claim sizes, claim frequencies and the occurrence of a claim on a single policy are all outcomes which are not normal. Also, the relationship between outcomes and drivers of risk is often multiplicative rather additive.

Exponential dispersion family

A probability distribution is a member of the exponential dispersion family if the density function can be expressed by

$$f(y_i; \theta_i, \varphi) = \exp \left(\frac{y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)}{a(\varphi)} + c(y_i, \varphi) \right)$$

Components of Generalised Linear Model

random component: The conditional distribution of the y_i/x_i , with mean $\varepsilon(y_i) = \mu_i$. Under classical assumptions, this is independent, normal with constant variance σ^2 , i.e., $y_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$. In the GLM, the probability distribution of the y_i can be any member of the exponential family, including the normal, Poisson, binomial, gamma, and others. Subsequent work has extended this framework to include multinomial distributions and some non-exponential families such as the negative binomial distribution.

systematic component: The idea that the predicted value of y_i itself is a linear combination of the regressors is replaced by that of a *linear predictor* η_i , that captures this aspect of linear models,

link function: The connection between the mean of the response, μ_i , and the linear predictor, η_i is specified by the *link function*, $g(\bullet)$, giving

$$g(\mu_i) = \eta_i = x_i^T \beta.$$

Common Link function:

| Link Name | Function: $\eta_i = g(\mu_i)$ | Inverse: $\mu_i = g^{-1}(\eta_i)$ |
|----------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Identity | μ_i | η_i |
| square-root | $\sqrt{\mu_i}$ | η_i^2 |
| Log | $\log_e(\mu_i)$ | $\exp(\eta_i)$ |
| Inverse | μ_i^{-1} | η_i^{-1} |
| inverse-square | μ_i^{-2} | $\eta_i^{-1/2}$ |
| Logit | $\log_e \frac{\mu_i}{1 - \mu_i}$ | $\frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\eta_i)}$ |
| Probit | $\varphi^{-1}(\mu_i)$ | $\varphi(\eta_i)$ |
| log-log | $-\log_e[-\log_e(\mu_i)]$ | $\exp[-\exp(-\eta_i)]$ |
| comp.log-log | $\log_e[-\log_e(1 - \mu_i)]$ | $1 - \exp[-\exp(\eta_i)]$ |

Common Distributions used for GLM:

| Family | Notation | Canonical link | Range of y | Variance Function, $\mathcal{V}(\mu \eta)$ |
|-------------------|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------|--|
| Gaussian | $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ | identity: μ | $(-\infty, +\infty)$ | φ |
| Poisson | $Pois(\mu)$ | $\log_e(\mu)$ | $0, 1, \dots, \infty$ | μ |
| Negative-Binomial | $NBin(\mu, \theta)$ | $\log_e(\mu)$ | $0, 1, \dots, \infty$ | $\mu + \mu^2/\theta$ |
| Binomial | $Bin(n, \mu)/n$ | $\text{logit}(\mu)$ | $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}/n$ | $\mu(1 - \mu)/n$ |
| Gamma | $G(\mu, \nu)$ | μ^{-1} | $(0, +\infty)$ | $\varphi \mu^2$ |
| Inverse-Gaussian | $IG(\mu, \nu)$ | μ^2 | $(0, +\infty)$ | $\varphi \mu^3$ |

Iterative algorithms

One commonly used iterative algorithm for GLMs is the Fisher scoring algorithm. The idea of the algorithm in light of GLMs is based on the second order Taylor expansion of the log-likelihood.

Goodness-of-fit tests

The tests assess the overall performance of a model in reproducing the data. The commonly used measures include the Pearson chi-square and likelihood ratio deviance statistics, which can be seen as weighted sums of residuals.

The *residual deviance* statistic, as in logistic regression and loglinear models, is defined as twice the difference between the maximum possible log-likelihood for the *saturated model* that fits perfectly and maximized log-likelihood for the fitted model. The deviance can be defined as

$$D(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) = 2[\log_e \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}; \mathbf{y}) - \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}; \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})]$$

Comparing non-nested models

The flexibility of the GLM and its extensions allows us to fit models to the same data using different families and different link functions, and to fit models that allow for overdispersion or that make special provisions for zero counts.

One price paid for this additional versatility is that standard LR tests and F tests (such as provided by `anova()` and `linearHypothesis()` in the `car` package) do not apply to models that are not nested; that is, where one model cannot be represented as a restricted, special case of another.

For models estimated by maximum likelihood, one general route to comparing non-nested models is through the AIC information criterion proposed initially by Akaike (1973) and the related BIC criterion (Schwartz, 1978), based on the fitted log-likelihood function:

| | |
|---|--|
| $AIC = -2\log_e \mathcal{L} + 2k$ $BIC = -2\log_e \mathcal{L} + \log_e(n)k$ | |
|---|--|

These both penalize models with larger k , the number of parameters in the model, with BIC adding a greater penalty with larger sample size.

AIC and BIC do not give significance tests for assessing whether one model is significantly “better” than another.

Young Test

It is based on comparing the predicted probabilities or the pointwise log-likelihoods of the two models and test the null hypothesis that each is equally close to the saturated model, against the alternative that one model is closer.

GLM Models for Count Data

Poisson Model

A fundamental distribution for modelling count data is the Poisson. The prototypical GLM for count data, where the response y_i takes on non-negative values 0, 1, 2, . . ., uses the Poisson family with the log link.

The pmf of Poisson Distribution is $f(y; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^y}{y!} e^{-\lambda}$, $y = 0, 1, \dots$

With the mean and variance $E[Y] = Var[Y] = \lambda$. In short, we use the expression $\sim \text{poisson}(\lambda)$.

The claim frequency is obtained by dividing the claim counts by the exposure. In our case, as it is a portfolio basis data, the exposure is not available. So we use the Policy Count. It is often more appropriate to use claim frequency for modelling, since the number of policies under different product may be different.

With a log-link, the Poisson GLM becomes

$$\log \frac{y_i}{t_i} = x_i \beta \Leftrightarrow \lambda_i = t_i \exp(x_i \beta), \quad y_i \sim \text{poisson}(\lambda_i)$$

Where $\lambda_i = E[y_i/x_i]$, and the term t_i is known as an offset.

Mean Variance Relation

| mean | var | ratio |
|----------|-------------|-----------|
| 14.57892 | 13501.94843 | 926.12791 |

Models for Over-Dispersed Count Data

In practice, the Poisson model is often very useful for describing the relationship between the mean μ_i and the linear predictors, but typically underestimates the variance in the data.

The Poisson model requires the mean to be equal to the variance, which is not satisfied for many datasets of interest. When the variance is greater than the mean, the data are said to be over dispersed. In the opposite case, they are said to be under dispersed.

Negative Binomial

The negative binomial distribution has two parameters, and hence, it is more flexible for fitting data compared to the Poisson.

The pmf of Negative Binomial distribution is

$$f(y; \mu, \tau) = \frac{\Gamma(y + 1/\tau)}{\Gamma(1/\tau) \Gamma(y + 1)} \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu + 1/\tau} \right)^y \left(\frac{1/\tau}{\mu + 1/\tau} \right)^{1/\tau}$$

Where $\tau = 1/k$ is called dispersion parameter. The mean and variance of y are given by $E[Y] = \mu$ and $var[Y] = \mu + \tau\mu^2$.

The link function used here is same as Poisson with same justification.

Some Specially designed Distributions for Count Data

Models for Excess Zero Count

In addition to over dispersion, many sets of empirical data exhibit a greater prevalence of zero counts than can be accommodated by the Poisson or negative-binomial models.

Studies of the distribution of insurance claims often shows large numbers who make no claims because of under-reporting of small claims, policy deductible provisions, and desire to avoid premium increases. Beyond simply identifying this as a problem of lack-of-fit, understanding the reasons for excess zero counts can make a contribution to a more complete explanation of the phenomenon of interest and this requires both new statistical models and visualization techniques.

A statistical formulation of this idea leads to the class of “*zero-inflated*” models described below.

A different form of explanation is that there may be some special circumstance or “*hurdle*” required to achieve a positive count, like publishing the master’s thesis (such as being driven internally by a personality trait or externally by pressure from a mentor). This idea leads to the class of *hurdle* models that entertain and fit (simultaneously) two separate models: one for the occurrence of the zero counts and one for the positive counts. These two approaches are illustrated as follows.



Zero Inflated Models

Zero-inflated models, introduced by Lambert (1992) as the *zero-inflated Poisson* (ZIP) model, provide an attractive solution to the problem of dealing with an overabundance of zero counts.

It postulates that the observed counts arise from a mixture of two latent classes of observations: some structural zeros for whom y_i will always be 0, and the rest, sometimes giving random zeros.

The ZIP model is comprised of two components:

- A model for the binary event of membership in the unobserved (latent) class of those for whom the count is necessarily zero (e.g., “non-publishers”). This is typically taken as a logistic regression for the probability π_i that observation i is in this class, with predictors z_1, z_2, \dots, z_q , giving

$$\text{logit}(\pi_i) = z_i^T \gamma = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 z_{i1} + \gamma_2 z_{i2} + \dots + \gamma_q z_{iq}$$

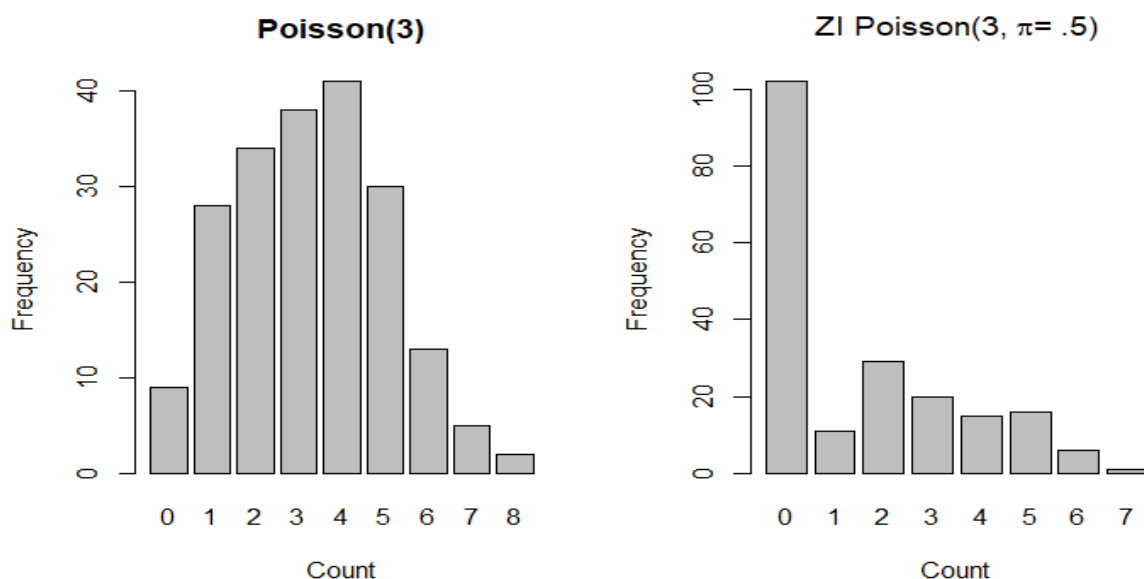
- A Poisson model for the other class (e.g., “publishers”), for whom the observed count may be 0 or positive. This model typically uses the usual log link to predict the mean, using predictors x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p , so

$$\log_e \mu(x_i) = x_i^T \beta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}.$$

With this setup, one can show that the probability of observing counts of $y_i = 0$ and $y_i > 0$ are

$$\begin{aligned} pr(y_i | x, z) &= \pi_i + (1 - \pi_i)e^{-\mu_i} \\ pr(y_i | x, z) &= (1 - \pi_i) \times \left[\frac{\mu_i^{y_i} e^{-\mu_i}}{y_i!} \right], y_i \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Example



Hurdle Model

A different class of models capable of accounting for excess zero counts is the *hurdle model* (also called the *zero-altered model*).

This model also uses a separate logistic regression sub-model to distinguish counts of $y = 0$ from larger counts, $y > 0$. The sub-model for the positive counts is expressed as a (left) *truncated* Poisson or negative-binomial model, excluding the zero counts. As an example, consider a study of behavioural health in which one outcome is the number of cigarettes smoked in one month. All the zero counts will come from non-smokers and smokers will nearly always smoke a positive number.

This differs from the set of ZIP models in that classes of $y = 0$ and $y > 0$ are now considered fully observed, rather than latent. Conceptually, there is one process and sub-model accounting for the zero counts and a separate process accounting for the positive counts, once the “hurdle” of $y = 0$ has been passed. In other words, for ZIP models, the first process generates only extra zeros beyond those of the regular Poisson distribution. For hurdle models, the first process generates all the zeros.

$$\begin{aligned} pr(y_i = 0 | x, z) &= \pi_i \\ pr(y_i | x, z) &= \frac{(1 - \pi_i)}{(1 - \pi_i)e^{-\mu_i}} \times \left[\frac{\mu_i^{y_i} e^{-y_i}}{y_i!} \right], y_i \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Limitation of Models

In the literature, hurdle and ZIP models are widely used for analyzing count responses with excessive zeros. However, hurdle and ZIP models do not allow for underdispersion with excessive zeros. In practice, such data sets often exist, for example, the incidence rate of hospitalization, and accident rates when accidents are very rare events, where excess zero counts appear along with underdispersion.

Chapter 3

Severity Modelling

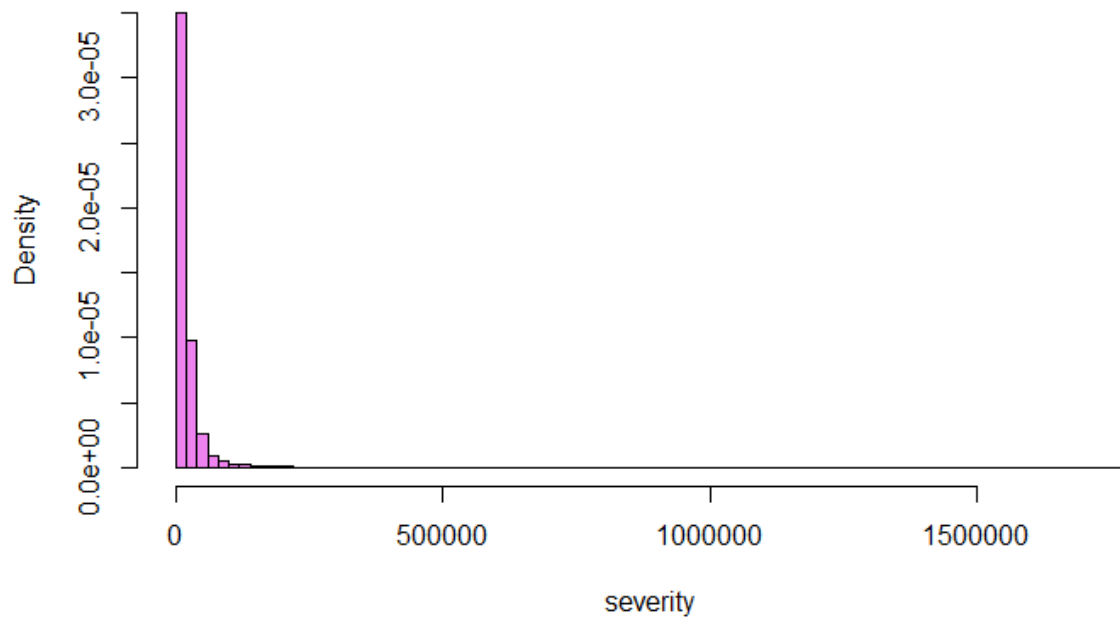
Intuition

Once the number of claims is estimated, the claim severity can be modelled: the claim frequency is analyzed, conditionally on the number of claims (which is exactly the exposure).

Severity is the average claim cost. It is needed to calculate the average premium.

Data visualization

Severity Plot



Severity Modelling

As the data above has positive skewness, we can consider few similar continuous families of distributions. Those can be Gamma, inverse Gaussian, Lognormal etc.

Here we considered Gamma and Inverse Gaussian.

Generalized Linear Model

As the distribution of the response is again a non-normal one, we have to consider generalised linear model where the response variable may follow the following variables according to the shape of the data.

Gamma Distribution

Gamma is a member of exponential family.

The probability density function of the distribution is given below,

$$f(y; \mu, k) = \frac{\left(\frac{k}{\mu}\right)^k}{\Gamma(k)} e^{-ky/\mu} y^{k-1}, y > 0$$

Inverse Gaussian

Inverse Gaussian is another skewed distribution used for modeling claim cost.

The probability density function of the distribution is given as follows:

$$f(y; \mu, \lambda_{IG}) = \left\{ \frac{\lambda_{IG}}{2\pi y^3} \right\}^{1/2} \exp \left\{ \frac{-\lambda_{IG}(y - \mu)^2}{2\mu^2 y} \right\}, y > 0$$

Goodness of fit measures

The following three criteria are well known and will be useful in selecting among models, with smaller values representing better model fit.

The Akaike information criterion (AIC) is a measure that balances model fit against model simplicity: it takes into account the log likelihood L and the number of parameters r (don't forget the scale parameter if it is also estimated). AIC has the form

$$AIC = -2\mathcal{L} + 2r$$

So, it penalizes over fitting - using too much parameters. An alternative form is the corrected AIC given by

$$AICC = -2\mathcal{L} + 2r \frac{n}{n - r - 1}$$

where n is the total number of observations used and clearly converges to AIC for large n and small r .

A third, similar measure is the Bayesian information criterion (BIC), which is bigger than the AIC (or AICC) for large enough n :

$$BIC = -2\mathcal{L} + r \ln(n)$$

Deviance

Another statistic that is often used to compare models, but has also meaning on its own for a specific model, is the deviance. This is defined as the difference in loglikelihood of the saturated model and the model under consideration:

$$D = 2\varphi[\mathcal{L}(y_i; y_i) - \mathcal{L}(\widehat{\mu}_i; y_i)]$$

Goodness of fit test

LR test

Here we check whether the variables considered in constructing the model is an optimal choice or not. Likelihood Ratio Test is used for the purpose.

Chapter 4

Validation

intuition

A common practice in data science competitions is to iterate over various models to find a better performing model. However, it becomes difficult to distinguish whether this improvement in score is coming because we are capturing the relationship better, or we are just over-fitting the data. To find the right answer for this question, we use validation techniques. This method helps us in achieving more generalized relationships.

Cross Validation Approach

Cross Validation is a technique which involves reserving a particular sample of a dataset on which you do not train the model. Later, you test your model on this sample before finalizing it.

Here are the steps involved in cross validation:

1. You reserve a sample data set
2. Train the model using the remaining part of the dataset
3. Use the reserve sample of the test (validation) set. This will help you in gauging the effectiveness of your model's performance. If your model delivers a positive result on validation data, go ahead with the current model.

There are various methods available for performing cross validation. Few of them are validation set approach, Leave one out cross validation (LOOCV), k-fold cross validation, Stratified k-fold cross validation, Adversarial Validation, Cross Validation for time series, Custom Cross Validation Techniques.

The validation set approach

In this approach, we reserve 50% of the dataset for validation and the remaining 50% for model training. However, a major disadvantage of this approach is that since we are training a model on only 50% of the dataset, there is a huge possibility that we might miss out on some interesting information about the data which will lead to a higher bias.

Leave one out cross validation (LOOCV)

In this approach, we reserve only one data point from the available dataset, and train the model on the rest of the data. This process iterates for each data point. This also has its own advantages and disadvantages.

- We make use of all data points, hence the bias will be low
- We repeat the cross validation process n times (where n is number of data points) which results in a higher execution time

- This approach leads to higher variation in testing model effectiveness because we test against one data point. So, our estimation gets highly influenced by the data point. If the data point turns out to be an outlier, it can lead to a higher variation

Frequency Model validation

The (minimal) frequency at which a model has to be re-validated. This is often determined in the model validation policy of the bank.

The model validation frequency typically depends on the amount of model risk that is associated with the model. As an example, a model that is used extensively might have to be validated yearly while a model that is only used sparsely might have to be revalidated only once every three years. Typically, the amount of model risk that is carried by the model is expressed in terms of model risk tiers.

The main objective of the methodology presented is to validate a model on the frequency domain. To this end a time domain validation procedure based on testing the residual whiteness is modified to achieve the pursued objectives. The idea is as follows. It is assumed that if the residual is white noise the model is validated because the residual contains no further useful information that could be used to improve the model accuracy. This test is usually performed in the time domain by studying the residual autocorrelation, the number of sign changes, etc

We translate the time domain residual to the frequency domain by its discrete Fourier transform. Moreover, the statistical properties of the spectrum of a white noise signal are calculated. The objective is to test if the spectrum calculated from the residual has properties of white noise. As a result, one unique test in the time domain has been translated to N different tests in the frequency domain. We check if the k th frequency component of the spectrum has the properties of a typical frequency component of a white noise.

In the affirmative case we have no reason to believe that the model is invalid on that frequency component. On the other hand, if there are certain frequency components that clearly do not behave accordingly with the statistical properties of white noise then it is likely that at this frequency range there is an important mismatch between the model and the plant. As a result the model is invalid for that frequency range.

Chapter 5

Results & Discussion

Data

This dataset contains data from a certain insurance company which will remain anonymous. The data represent car insurance policies (claims and costs with respect to third party liability only), spread over several years (Not specified). It deals with portfolio of policies where different type policies are involved.

Variable Overview

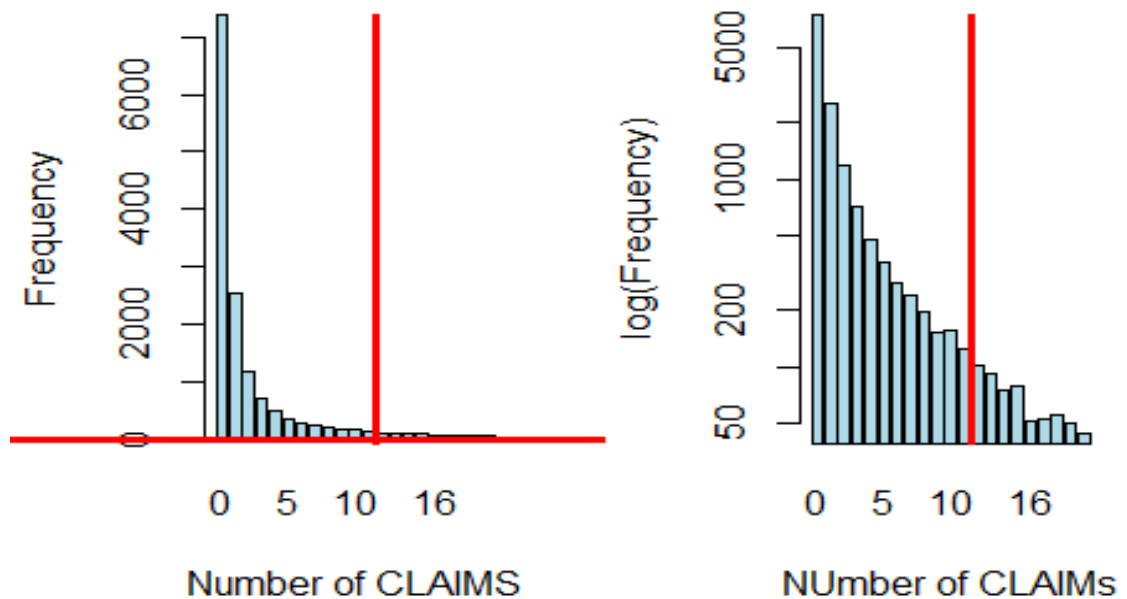
| Variable Name | Type | Levels | Description |
|------------------------|-------------|--|--|
| POLICY_YEAR | Numeric | 1 | Issue of policy in 2016 |
| CC_BAND_GROUP | Categorical | 1001 to 1300 1301 to 1500 1501 to 2000 1<1000 | Engine Capacity, measured in Cubic Capacity (CC). Higher capacity of engine pays Higher premium |
| AGE_FLOOR2 | Categorical | 1 2 3 4 5 <1 | Age of the vehicle |
| FUEL_TYPE_GROUP | Categorical | Diesel & Others 1Petrol | Type of Fuel used in vehicle |
| NCB | Categorical | 20 25 35 45 1<20 50 65 70 0 | NO CLAIM BONUS. Customer gets bonus by not making any claim in a particular year by means of discount of the following year. |
| ZERO_DEP_FLAG | Categorical | YES NO | Zero depreciation costs anywhere between 15-20% of the standard premium and is a MUST BUY for all new or |

| | | | |
|------------------------|-------------|--|--|
| | | | relatively new (up to 5 years) cars. Zero depreciation car insurance proves to be beneficial to: People with new cars. People with luxury cars. |
| IDV_BAND | Categorical | 3to5Lakh 5to10Lakh 10to15Lakh 15to25Lakh 1<3Lakh 25to50Lakh more_than_50Lakh | INSURED DECLARED VALUE. Maximum amount for which the Car is insured |
| WRITTEN_PREMIUM | Numerical | | Premium Insurer will get at the commencement of new policy and renewal of existing policy. It is different from total Premium gained as some policies can dis continue. |
| POLICY_COUNT | Numerical | | No of Policy in that particular portfolio. |
| IDV | Numerical | | In general it is the actual value of the vehicle. It is calculated every year as with time, vehicle's value depreciates. It is ex-showroom price/current market price minus depreciation on its parts. |
| CLAIM_COUNT | Numerical | | |
| INCURRED_CLAIM | Numerical | | Insured event happened & for which the insurer is liable to pay if claim is made. |
| VEHICLE_MAKE | Categorical | Make B Make C Make D Make E Make A Others | Type engine used (or, model of the vehicle) |
| AVG_IDV | Numerical | | Throughout the year the average value of |

| | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------|---|
| | | the Vehicle declared by insured after adjusting for the depreciation on the parts |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP | Categorical | Combination of the following variables -Fuel Type -Age of vehicle -Depreciation applied on the parts or not. |
| NCB_ADJ_POLICY_COUNT | Numerical | Policy Count Adjusted after the considering the policies at that discount level currently |
| SEVERITY_BY_IDV | Continuous | Average Claim cost per Unit Insurance Cover. |

Summary of the Variables

❖ Histogram of CLAIM DATA and transformed data



The frequencies of 0–2 articles account for over 75% of the total, so that the frequencies of the larger counts get lost in the display. To accommodate the zero frequencies, the plot shows $\log(\text{Frequency}+1)$, avoiding errors from $\log(0)$. It can be seen that log frequency decreases steadily up to 15 Claims and then levels off approximately.

The vertical bar shows the mean of the dataset and horizontal lines show mean ± 1 standard deviation.

Mean Variance Relation

| mean | var | ratio |
|----------|-------------|-----------|
| 14.57892 | 13501.94843 | 926.12791 |

Summary Analysis of Independent Variable

Variable Selection Method

The variables here considered are both continuous and categorical. Basic correlation of continuous variables can be considered for basic model selection. But for categorical variables it is not so easy. We will make Stepwise selection method in Generalized Linear Model.

Hypothetically the following categorical variables may be more influential for modelling the claim count

Car Capacity
Age of Car
Fuel Type
Make of the Vehicle
Depreciation

Dependencies between the explanatory variables

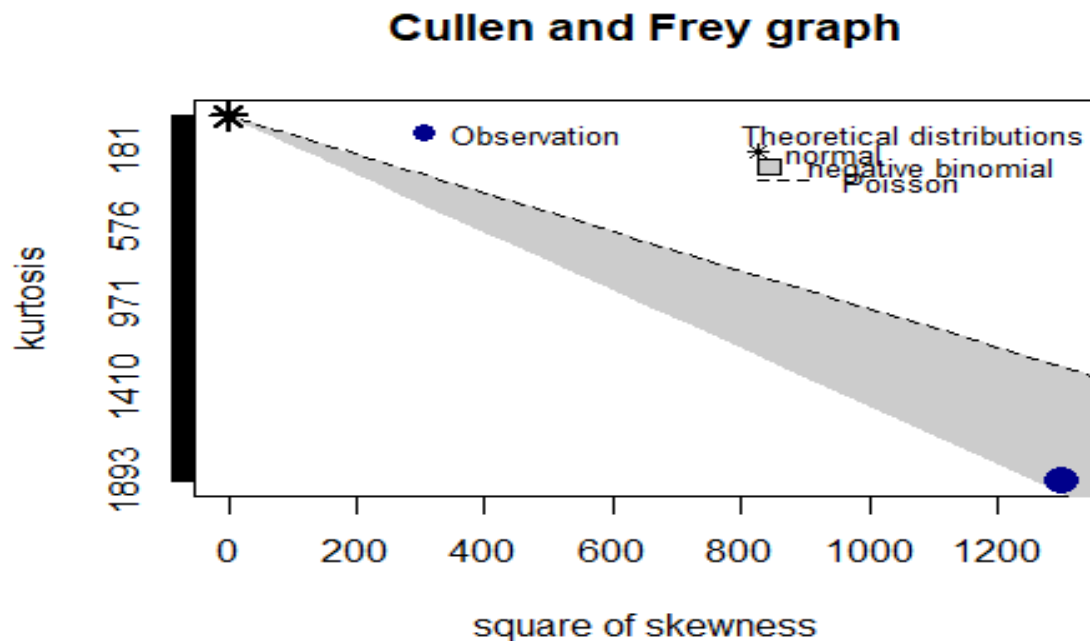
| | CC_BAND_GROUP | AGE_FLOOR2 | FUEL_TYPE_GROUP | NCB | zero_dep_flag | IDV_BAND | VEHICLE_MAKE | FUEL_AGE_NILDEP |
|-----------------|---------------|------------|-----------------|------------|---------------|------------|--------------|-----------------|
| CC_BAND_GROUP | K = 4 0 | 0.01 | 0 | 0 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0 | |
| AGE_FLOOR2 | 0 | K = 6 0 | 0.02 | 0.09 | 0.01 | 0 | 0.25 | |
| FUEL_TYPE_GROUP | 0 | 0 | K = 2 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.05 | |
| NCB | 0 | 0.02 | 0 | K = 9 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| zero_dep_flag | 0 | 0.02 | 0 | 0 | K = 2 0 | 0 | 0.05 | |
| IDV_BAND | 0.09 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0 | 0.02 | K = 7 0 | 0.02 | 0 |
| VEHICLE_MAKE | 0.07 | 0 | 0.02 | 0 | 0 | 0.01 | K = 6 0 | |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP | 0.01 | 1 | 1 | 0.02 | 1 | 0.02 | 0.01 | K = 24 |

Goodmann Kruskal Gamma

Here the assumption independence of explanatory variable is checked. The k values are the number of levels of the respective variables. The measure is considered here is Goodmann kruskal Gamma, similar to the correlation coefficient of the continuous data.

It is seen that the variables are almost independent among themselves. The last variable is the combination of few variables, so it has a perfect positive relation with respective variable.

Distribution



```
min: 0 max: 7214
median: 1
mean: 14.57892
estimated sd: 116.1979
estimated skewness: 36.05447
estimated kurtosis: 1892.395
```

Here based on the Kurtosis and Skewness we can see that the data fits in between the Negative Binomial and Poisson distribution.

Fitting a Basic GLM model on full variables set using Poisson and revised model.

```
AIC(obj_pois_full)
```

```
## 528020.4
```

```
AIC(obj1)
```

```
## 60207.28
```

Here We can see the full model is not so good as AIC value is too high. Rather the reduced model gives less AIC Score.

Comparing the both models to check which model is the better one

Here we are using 'lmtest' will compare between full model and the selected variables' model.

| | Df | Log-Likelihood | Df | Chi-square | Pr(>Chisq) |
|---|----|----------------|-----|------------|---------------|
| Model 1 | 52 | -263958 | | | |
| Model 2 | 16 | -30088 | -36 | 467741 | < 2.2e-16 *** |
| Significance. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1 | | | | | |

We can see that the lmttest is indicating Model 2 as significant one. Now we got our optimal model.

Model 2: *CLAIM_COUNT ~ CC_BAND_GROUP + AGE_FLOOR2 + FUEL_TYPE_GROUP + VEHICLE_MAKE + zero_dep_flag + offset (log (NCB_ADJ_POLICY_COUNT))*

Further we can see that if we consider the combination of variables (Fuel Type, Age of vehicle, Depreciation), it will be a better fit as the combination makes more relevant portfolio wise division of the policies.

RESULT

Coefficients:

| | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(> z) |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|------------|---------|--------------|
| (Intercept) | -2.077934 | 0.027362 | -75.943 | < 2e-16 *** |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1001 to 1300 | 0.329118 | 0.005532 | 59.499 | < 2e-16 *** |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1301 to 1500 | 0.380094 | 0.008915 | 42.633 | < 2e-16 *** |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1501 to 2000 | 0.359101 | 0.010291 | 34.896 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeB | -0.109752 | 0.013161 | -8.339 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeC | -0.286658 | 0.012742 | -22.496 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeD | -0.223077 | 0.011958 | -18.655 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeE | -0.048515 | 0.005683 | -8.536 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEOthers | -0.161116 | 0.007199 | -22.380 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol<1YES | 0.829751 | 0.027915 | 29.724 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1NO | -0.041110 | 0.032947 | -1.248 | 0.212 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1YES | 0.659793 | 0.028146 | 23.442 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2NO | -0.019907 | 0.030752 | -0.647 | 0.517 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2YES | 0.678451 | 0.028456 | 23.842 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3NO | 0.042905 | 0.029672 | 1.446 | 0.148 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3YES | 0.749829 | 0.029143 | 25.729 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4NO | -0.010668 | 0.029282 | -0.364 | 0.716 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4YES | 0.865585 | 0.029915 | 28.935 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5NO | -0.289202 | 0.027597 | -10.479 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5YES | 0.589279 | 0.071750 | 8.213 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1NO | 0.306072 | 0.052723 | 5.805 | 6.42e-09 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1YES | 0.968828 | 0.028367 | 34.153 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1NO | 0.245350 | 0.040145 | 6.112 | 9.86e-10 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1YES | 0.930630 | 0.028568 | 32.576 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2NO | 0.326093 | 0.034002 | 9.590 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2YES | 0.939363 | 0.028784 | 32.635 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3NO | 0.290365 | 0.031955 | 9.087 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3YES | 0.958994 | 0.029216 | 32.824 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4NO | 0.319046 | 0.031250 | 10.209 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4YES | 1.058205 | 0.030104 | 35.151 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5NO | 0.171568 | 0.029191 | 5.878 | 4.16e-09 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5YES | 0.881258 | 0.093570 | 9.418 | < 2e-16 *** |

AIC value of Individual and Combination of the variables.

| Individual | Combination |
|------------|-------------|
| 60207.28 | 59625.34 |

There is a significant Difference in our goodness of fit measure. So, we can consider the following variable set, with **offset** term $\log(\text{NCB_ADJ_POL_COUNT})$.

Here we are taking NCB_ADJ_POLICY Count instead of Exposure, as the Exposure is the not available for this portfolio type data. So, we can put the policy count as the weighting term for our Claim Count, as it will balance the effect of the high claim frequency with high policy count for a particular portfolio.

CLAIM_COUNT~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP

Negative Binomial Distribution

As we know that the data is over-dispersed, Poisson may not be a good choice as it's mean and variance are equal. But for negative Binomial distribution the data suits more well as the variance of the data is more than the mean.

Coefficients:

| | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(> z) |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|------------|---------|--------------|
| (Intercept) | -2.005881 | 0.045129 | -44.448 | < 2e-16 *** |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1001 to 1300 | 0.215205 | 0.015485 | 13.898 | < 2e-16 *** |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1301 to 1500 | 0.292802 | 0.018935 | 15.464 | < 2e-16 *** |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1501 to 2000 | 0.274285 | 0.019790 | 13.860 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeB | -0.117838 | 0.021747 | -5.419 | 6.01e-08 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeC | -0.236242 | 0.024953 | -9.468 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeD | -0.229165 | 0.024316 | -9.424 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeE | 0.043735 | 0.015800 | 2.768 | 0.005640 ** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEOthers | -0.106051 | 0.016508 | -6.424 | 1.33e-10 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol<1YES | 0.594626 | 0.050529 | 11.768 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1NO | 0.004302 | 0.055005 | 0.078 | 0.937658 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1YES | 0.642648 | 0.048939 | 13.132 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2NO | 0.031544 | 0.052174 | 0.605 | 0.545448 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2YES | 0.682679 | 0.048808 | 13.987 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3NO | 0.091929 | 0.050453 | 1.822 | 0.068445 . |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3YES | 0.741483 | 0.049213 | 15.067 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4NO | 0.075008 | 0.049435 | 1.517 | 0.129192 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4YES | 0.854847 | 0.049857 | 17.146 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5NO | -0.136161 | 0.046736 | -2.913 | 0.003576 ** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5YES | 0.576014 | 0.086084 | 6.691 | 2.21e-11 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1NO | 0.292826 | 0.072947 | 4.014 | 5.96e-05 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1YES | 0.801574 | 0.052455 | 15.281 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1NO | 0.236378 | 0.060863 | 3.884 | 0.000103 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1YES | 0.884777 | 0.050273 | 17.599 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2NO | 0.304801 | 0.054681 | 5.574 | 2.49e-08 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2YES | 0.914969 | 0.049711 | 18.406 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3NO | 0.243463 | 0.052597 | 4.629 | 3.68e-06 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3YES | 0.939971 | 0.049821 | 18.867 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4NO | 0.270917 | 0.051791 | 5.231 | 1.69e-07 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4YES | 1.015629 | 0.051014 | 19.909 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5NO | 0.156573 | 0.049689 | 3.151 | 0.001627 ** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5YES | 0.844925 | 0.105938 | 7.976 | 1.52e-15 *** |

Comparison is based on AIC value of the model.

| | |
|----------|-------------------|
| Poisson | Negative Binomial |
| 59625.34 | 48286.51 |

Some Special Distributions

In addition to overdispersion, many sets of empirical data exhibit a greater prevalence of zero counts than can be accommodated by the Poisson or negative-binomial models.

If we take a sample from data to consider the relative frequency distribution, we can see the following.

| Claim Count | Proportion |
|-------------|------------|
| 0 | 0.474 |
| 1 | 0.170 |
| 2 | 0.073 |
| 3 | 0.043 |
| 4 | 0.029 |

We saw this in the CLAIM Count data set, where there were many policy holders whose claims cannot be processed due to mandatory minimum policy period for Claim application.

Similarly, the distribution of insurance claims often shows large numbers who make no claims because of under-reporting of small claims, policy deductible provisions, and desire to avoid premium increases.

One reasonable form of explanation is that the observed zero counts reflect a mixture of the two latent classes—those who simply have not claimed for any accident and those whose claims cannot be considered because of some constraint of policy.

Zero-inflated models

Zero Inflated distributions are used for count data with more number of zeros. Here both types of zeros are used like structural and actual zeros.

Here we considered both Poisson and Negative Binomial distribution for the modelling part of the structured zero along with positive count.

Bar Plot of the Poisson and Zero Inflated Poisson distribution

Model Output

Count model coefficients (negbin with log link):

| | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(> z) |
|----------------------------------|----------|------------|---------|--------------|
| (Intercept) | 2.11173 | 0.12756 | 16.555 | < 2e-16 *** |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1001 to 1300 | -0.02568 | 0.05656 | -0.454 | 0.6497 |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1301 to 1500 | -0.06317 | 0.07524 | -0.840 | 0.4011 |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1501 to 2000 | -1.01509 | 0.06905 | -14.700 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeB | -2.43767 | 0.07150 | -34.094 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeC | -2.05394 | 0.08872 | -23.150 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeD | -2.14252 | 0.08442 | -25.378 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeE | -0.88355 | 0.06272 | -14.088 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEOthers | -1.44615 | 0.06538 | -22.120 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol<1YES | 2.37834 | 0.14981 | 15.876 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1NO | 0.31601 | 0.15201 | 2.079 | 0.0376 * |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1YES | 2.13453 | 0.14577 | 14.643 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2NO | 0.61595 | 0.14508 | 4.246 | 2.18e-05 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2YES | 1.81703 | 0.14290 | 12.716 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3NO | 0.88542 | 0.14234 | 6.221 | 4.95e-10 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3YES | 1.49666 | 0.14279 | 10.482 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4NO | 1.02707 | 0.13885 | 7.397 | 1.39e-13 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4YES | 1.42016 | 0.14595 | 9.731 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5NO | 2.45026 | 0.13276 | 18.457 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5YES | -0.80416 | 0.20584 | -3.907 | 9.36e-05 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1NO | -0.14556 | 0.18630 | -0.781 | 0.4346 |

| | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------|---------|----------|--------------|
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1YES | 2.58903 | 0.15941 | 16.241 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1NO | 0.29934 | 0.16874 | 1.774 | 0.0761 . |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1YES | 2.55624 | 0.15396 | 16.603 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2NO | 0.72598 | 0.15421 | 4.708 | 2.51e-06 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2YES | 2.40391 | 0.15003 | 16.022 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3NO | 0.93133 | 0.14993 | 6.212 | 5.24e-10 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3YES | 2.16885 | 0.14886 | 14.569 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4NO | 1.09430 | 0.14911 | 7.339 | 2.15e-13 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4YES | 1.89222 | 0.15246 | 12.411 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5NO | 1.73902 | 0.14454 | 12.031 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5YES | -0.57097 | 0.24828 | -2.300 | 0.0215 * |
| Log(theta) | -1.61198 | 0.01343 | -120.069 | < 2e-16 *** |

Zero-inflation model coefficients (binomial with logit link):

| | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(> z) |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|------------|---------|----------|
| (Intercept) | -6.99226 | 4.06966 | -1.718 | 0.0858 . |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1001 to 1300 | -4.74037 | 9.32572 | -0.508 | 0.6112 |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1301 to 1500 | 6.63537 | 4.01273 | 1.654 | 0.0982 . |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1501 to 2000 | 6.83007 | 4.04252 | 1.690 | 0.0911 . |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeB | -9.64221 | NA | NA | NA |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeC | -8.83190 | 4.75316 | -1.858 | 0.0632 . |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeD | -9.40431 | 4.91701 | -1.913 | 0.0558 . |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeE | -11.84328 | 13.56921 | -0.873 | 0.3828 |
| VEHICLE_MAKEOthers | -11.43703 | 11.28845 | -1.013 | 0.3110 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol<1YES | -0.61558 | 1.10140 | -0.559 | 0.5762 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1NO | -0.81843 | 1.23645 | -0.662 | 0.5080 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1YES | -0.52376 | 1.05635 | -0.496 | 0.6200 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2NO | -0.65184 | 1.10207 | -0.591 | 0.5542 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2YES | -0.89402 | 1.09025 | -0.820 | 0.4122 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3NO | -0.22847 | 1.01041 | -0.226 | 0.8211 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3YES | -0.67827 | 1.08057 | -0.628 | 0.5302 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4NO | 0.11808 | 1.00108 | 0.118 | 0.9061 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4YES | 0.35666 | 1.05276 | 0.339 | 0.7348 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5NO | -1.17227 | 1.20296 | -0.974 | 0.3298 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5YES | -5.12077 | 19.97094 | -0.256 | 0.7976 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1NO | -4.02846 | NA | NA | NA |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1YES | -0.28325 | 1.12500 | -0.252 | 0.8012 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1NO | 5.04572 | 3.63649 | 1.388 | 0.1653 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1YES | 0.24493 | 1.11741 | 0.219 | 0.8265 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2NO | 0.94462 | 1.66119 | 0.569 | 0.5696 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2YES | 1.03617 | 1.17939 | 0.879 | 0.3796 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3NO | 1.06195 | 1.31080 | 0.810 | 0.4179 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3YES | 2.37800 | 1.39972 | 1.699 | 0.0893 . |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4NO | 2.11177 | 1.42963 | 1.477 | 0.1396 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4YES | -0.07731 | 1.32543 | -0.058 | 0.9535 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5NO | 0.37796 | 1.08905 | 0.347 | 0.7286 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5YES | 2.18322 | 4.64560 | 0.470 | 0.6384 |

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Theta = 0.1995

Testing which model is better using “vuong test”

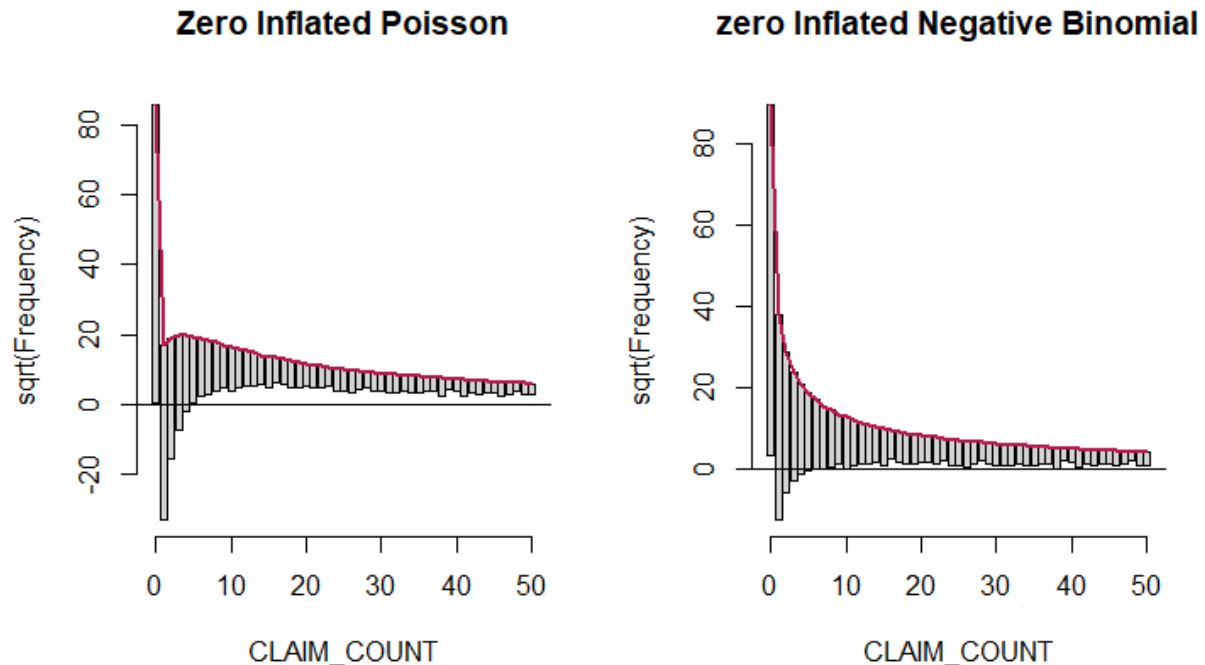
| | Vuong z-statistic | Hypothesis | p-value |
|---------------|-------------------|-----------------|------------|
| Raw | -35.63566 | model2 > model1 | < 2.22e-16 |
| AIC-corrected | -35.63566 | model2 > model1 | < 2.22e-16 |
| BIC-corrected | -35.63566 | model2 > model1 | < 2.22e-16 |

Vuong test is considered to test the goodness of fit for both the models. We can see that the model 2, i.e. Negative Binomial better.

Visualization of Goodness of Fit

The tops of the bars are the *expected frequencies* of the counts given the model. The counts are plotted on the square-root scale to help visualize smaller frequencies. The red line shows the fitted frequencies

as a smooth curve. The x-axis is actually a horizontal reference line. Bars that hang below the line show underfitting, bars that hang above show overfitting. In this case it's hard to see any over or underfitting because we fit the right model. In a moment we'll see some rootograms that clearly identify an ill-fitting model.



Though the Zero Inflated Poisson model accurately estimated the zero value, it underestimated the less frequent values. Whereas, Negative Binomial is estimating quite better than Poisson in terms of rest of the values except the overestimating Zero and underestimating 1-5 values.

Hurdle Model

We know Hurdle models are used for making the two different modeling for two parts of the data. Binomial distribution is fitted for the hurdle model & other distribution for the positive count data (more than zero). Here two distributions are modeled as independently.

This differs from the set of ZIP models in that classes of $y = 0$ and $y > 0$ are now considered fully observed, rather than latent.

Model Output

Count model coefficients (truncated negbin with log link):

| | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(> z) |
|-----------------------------|----------|------------|---------|--------------|
| (Intercept) | -8.28902 | 11.33094 | -0.732 | 0.464450 |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1001 to 1300 | -0.13318 | 0.08033 | -1.658 | 0.097315 . |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1301 to 1500 | -0.16045 | 0.11440 | -1.403 | 0.160746 |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1501 to 2000 | -1.14922 | 0.10130 | -11.345 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeB | -2.81296 | 0.09863 | -28.521 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeC | -2.18031 | 0.13210 | -16.505 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeD | -2.26203 | 0.12377 | -18.276 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeE | -1.00902 | 0.08767 | -11.509 | < 2e-16 *** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEOthers | -1.63136 | 0.09305 | -17.533 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol<1YES | 2.72050 | 0.21890 | 12.428 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1NO | 0.31923 | 0.21422 | 1.490 | 0.136183 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1YES | 2.31194 | 0.20638 | 11.203 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2NO | 0.59577 | 0.20309 | 2.934 | 0.003351 ** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2YES | 1.89743 | 0.19995 | 9.489 | < 2e-16 *** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3NO | 0.92718 | 0.20037 | 4.627 | 3.70e-06 *** |

```

FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3YES      1.57778  0.20017  7.882 3.22e-15 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4NO       1.06808  0.19522  5.471 4.47e-08 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4YES      1.39636  0.20221  6.905 5.01e-12 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5NO       2.73865  0.18992 14.420 < 2e-16 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5YES      -1.52208  0.27970 -5.442 5.28e-08 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1NO -0.29522  0.25747 -1.147 0.251533
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1YES 2.92161  0.23199 12.593 < 2e-16 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1NO  0.25056  0.23476  1.067 0.285842
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1YES  2.79541  0.21968 12.725 < 2e-16 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2NO  0.82674  0.21860  3.782 0.000156 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2YES  2.60851  0.21265 12.266 < 2e-16 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3NO  1.06239  0.21299  4.988 6.10e-07 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3YES  2.32814  0.20966 11.104 < 2e-16 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4NO  1.25731  0.21229  5.923 3.17e-09 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4YES  1.99888  0.21319  9.376 < 2e-16 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5NO  1.98399  0.20758  9.558 < 2e-16 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5YES -1.32612  0.32978 -4.021 5.79e-05 ***
Log(theta)                       -12.48502 11.32961 -1.102 0.270470
Zero hurdle model coefficients (binomial with logit link):
      Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)    -0.25553   0.11109  -2.300 0.021437 *
CC_BAND_GROUP1001 to 1300      0.11539   0.04922   2.344 0.019066 *
CC_BAND_GROUP1301 to 1500     -0.09809   0.05351  -1.833 0.066793 .
CC_BAND_GROUP1501 to 2000     -0.46792   0.05390  -8.681 < 2e-16 ***
VEHICLE_MAKEMakeB             -0.48324   0.06021  -8.027 1.00e-15 ***
VEHICLE_MAKEMakeC             -0.45787   0.06710  -6.824 8.88e-12 ***
VEHICLE_MAKEMakeD             -0.52302   0.06600  -7.924 2.30e-15 ***
VEHICLE_MAKEMakeE              0.13992   0.05302   2.639 0.008310 **
VEHICLE_MAKEOthers            -0.06662   0.05190  -1.284 0.199269
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol<1YES    0.60508   0.13113   4.614 3.95e-06 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1NO      0.19594   0.13139   1.491 0.135878
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1YES     0.87892   0.12804   6.864 6.67e-12 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2NO      0.37701   0.12543   3.006 0.002649 **
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2YES     0.93730   0.12512   7.491 6.83e-14 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3NO      0.40958   0.12304   3.329 0.000872 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3YES     0.77004   0.12395   6.213 5.21e-10 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4NO      0.49728   0.11999   4.144 3.41e-05 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4YES     0.89774   0.12637   7.104 1.21e-12 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5NO      0.88112   0.11567   7.618 2.58e-14 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5YES     -0.02285   0.16709  -0.137 0.891216
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1NO 0.09150   0.15751   0.581 0.561279
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1YES 0.80175   0.13867   5.782 7.40e-09 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1NO 0.21427   0.14284   1.500 0.133607
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1YES 0.99217   0.13434   7.385 1.52e-13 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2NO 0.33456   0.13235   2.528 0.011474 *
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2YES 1.04056   0.13118   7.932 2.15e-15 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3NO 0.41215   0.12862   3.204 0.001353 **
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3YES 1.00686   0.12946   7.777 7.41e-15 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4NO 0.43926   0.12800   3.432 0.000600 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4YES 0.99402   0.13260   7.496 6.56e-14 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5NO 0.62298   0.12371   5.036 4.76e-07 ***
FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5YES 0.18147   0.19918   0.911 0.362247
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

```

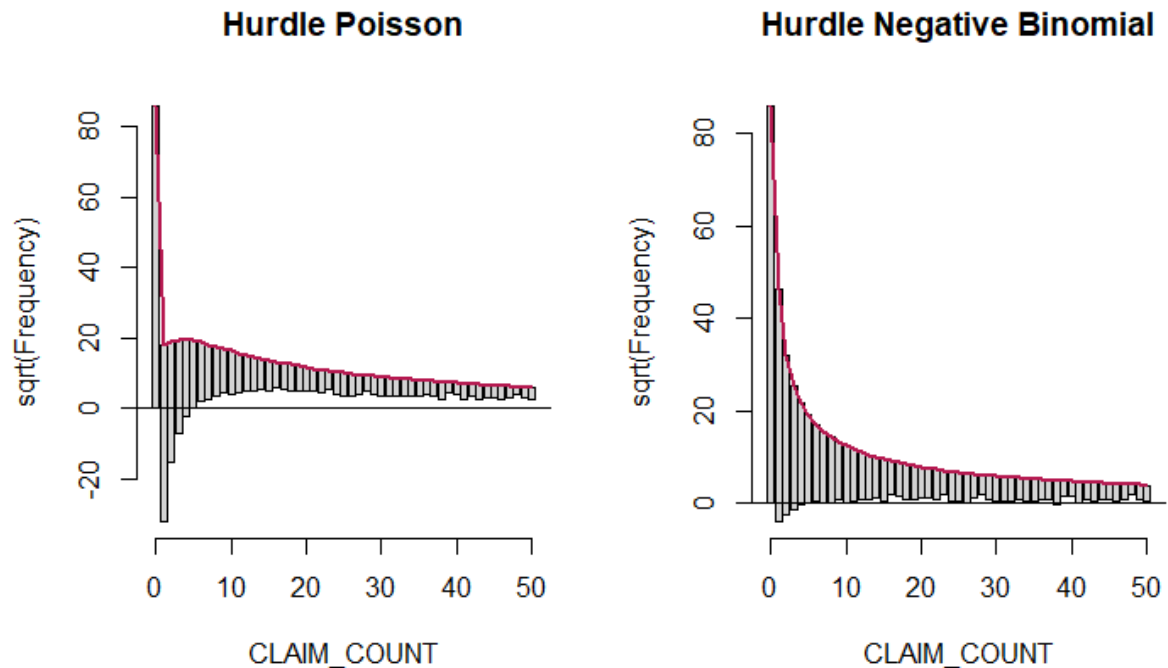
Theta: count = 0

AIC comparison of Poisson and Negative Binomial with and without offset

| Hrd_Pois | Hrd_Pois_With_offset | Hrd_NB | Hrd_NB_with_offset |
|-----------|----------------------|----------|--------------------|
| 741114.21 | 68799.05 | 74757.48 | 57574.12 |

Here the offset term is very useful as the data has no exposure.

Visualization of Goodness of Fit



Hurdle Model Poisson is showing similar not good at all fit for the rest the value except Zero. Though Negative Binomial is showing much better result than Poisson it is underestimating the part major part of Claim Count 1-5

Table Comparison of models

| Pois | Negbin | Hurdle_pois | Hurdle_negbin | Zero_inf_pois | Zero_inf_negbin |
|----------|----------|-------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 59625.34 | 48286.51 | 68799.05 | 57574.12 | 741151.01 | 76046.80 |

As we can see that the AIC score is too high for dataset as there is a long tail(outlier) and dataset is excessively huge for the Zero-inflated and hurdle models' requirement. We now are trying for a sample dataset. We took 1000 sample from the dataset and try to fit normal Poisson linear model, Negative Binomial, Hurdle, Zero Inflated model.

Simulation Study

AIC

| Pois | Negbin | Hurdle_pois | Hurdle_Negbin | Zero_inf_pois | zero_inf_negbin |
|----------|----------|-------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 3365.738 | 3090.585 | 34088.542 | 4610.077 | 34088.032 | 4651.254 |

Here we can see that the Simulation of size of 1000 shows that the Poisson and negative Binomial GLM models are perfect fit for the data, Zero Inflated models are nit so good fit as there is outliers. We test for outlier.

(outlier plot)

Here, we truncated the data upto the Claim count 20 and considered the data set.

| Pois | Negbin | Hurdle_Pois | Hurdle_Negbin | Zero_Inf_Pois | Zero_Inf_Negbin |
|----------|----------|-------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 35610.11 | 35134.47 | 62861.89 | 50551.18 | 62861.51 | 50572.88 |

It can be seen that there is a significant difference because of the truncation. As the data is highly positively skewed, it is justified to take the truncated for further modelling.

Simulation Study

| Sample | AIC_Pois | AICc_Pois | BIC_Pois | AIC_NB | AICc_NB | BIC_NB | NB>P |
|--------|----------|-----------|----------|--------|---------|--------|------|
| 1000 | 2432 | 2435 | 2594 | 2420 | 2422 | 2582 | 100 |
| 2000 | 4960 | 4961 | 5145 | 4898 | 4899 | 5083 | 100 |
| 3000 | 7309 | 7310 | 7507 | 7227 | 7227 | 7425 | 98 |
| 4000 | 9817 | 9818 | 10030 | 9707 | 9707 | 9914 | 97 |
| 5000 | 12120 | 12120 | 12330 | 11970 | 11970 | 12180 | 100 |
| 6000 | 14630 | 14630 | 14850 | 14430 | 14430 | 14650 | 100 |
| 7000 | 17180 | 17180 | 17400 | 16950 | 16950 | 17180 | 99 |
| 8000 | 19720 | 19730 | 19960 | 19470 | 19470 | 19700 | 100 |
| 9000 | 22260 | 22260 | 22490 | 21940 | 21940 | 22180 | 100 |
| 10000 | 24530 | 24530 | 24770 | 24230 | 24230 | 24470 | 99 |

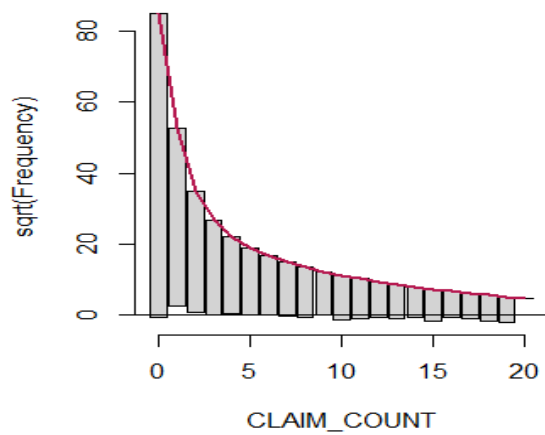
We consider the sample size of 1000 to 10000 with simulation of 100 times. Here we are comparing the goodness of fit measures AIC, AIC Corrected, BIC. BIC scores are more effected by the number of levels of the categorical variables, so it has higher values than AIC values.

We can see that the data showing Negative Binomial is better in this simulation study.

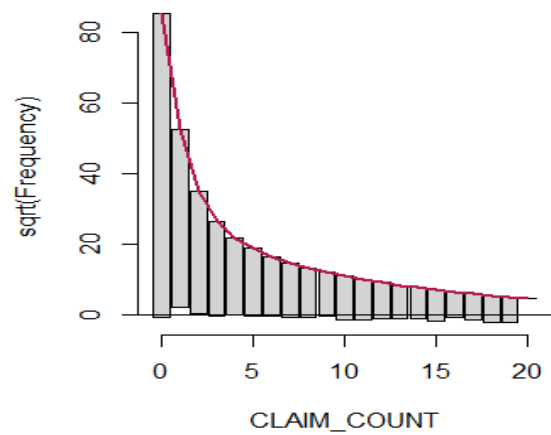
Here we are considering the truncated data to check the model goodness of fit as the outliers are less influential according to the outlier test shown above.

Visualization of Goodness of fit

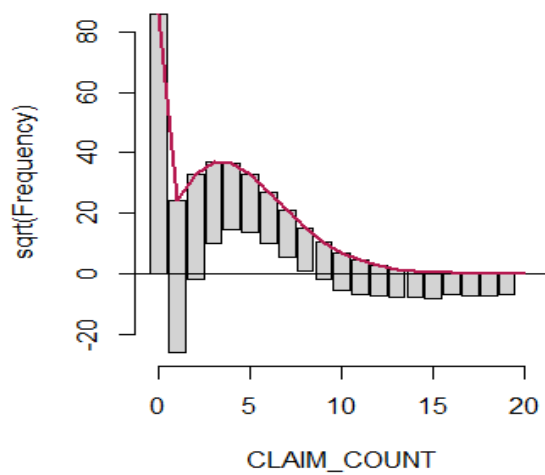
GLM: Poisson



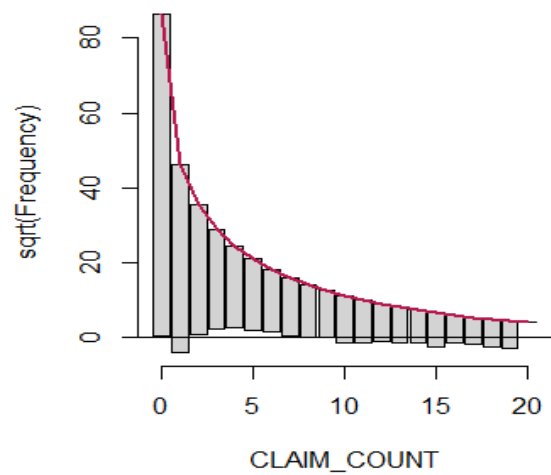
GLM: Negative-Binomial



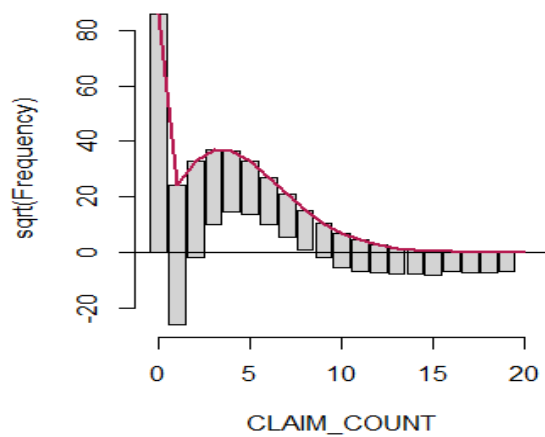
Zero Inflated Poisson



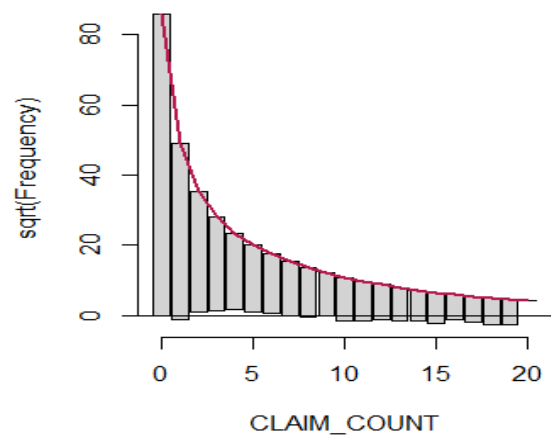
zero Inflated Negative Binomial



Hurdle Poisson



Hurdle Negative Binomial



We can see that the Poisson and Negative Binomial is almost similarly fitting the data in case of GLM. Though we can see some little bit difference in 0-2 Claim count data. There Negative Binomial is fitting relatively somewhat better.

The Hurdle Negative Binomial and GLM Negative binomial fit the zero counts perfectly. All of the negative binomial models show a reasonable fit, and none show a systematic pattern of under/overfitting.

If the underlying subject matter theory leads to a ZIP or a hurdle model, then that model should be applied. However, the results show that we cannot reject a GLM in favor of a ZIP or a hurdle model only because the data contain a high proportion of zeros; overdispersion, high correlation, and a covariate may well be able to explain the excessive zeros.

Validation of the model

Validation tests the predictive ability of different models by splitting the data into training and testing sets and this helps check for overfitting.

Cross-Validation

The goal of cross-**validation** is to estimate the expected level of **fit** of a **model** to a data set that is independent of the data that were used to train the **model**. It can be used to estimate any quantitative measure of **fit** that is appropriate for the data and **model**.

Poisson

MSE

| | |
|----------|----------|
| 3.295353 | 3.291882 |
|----------|----------|

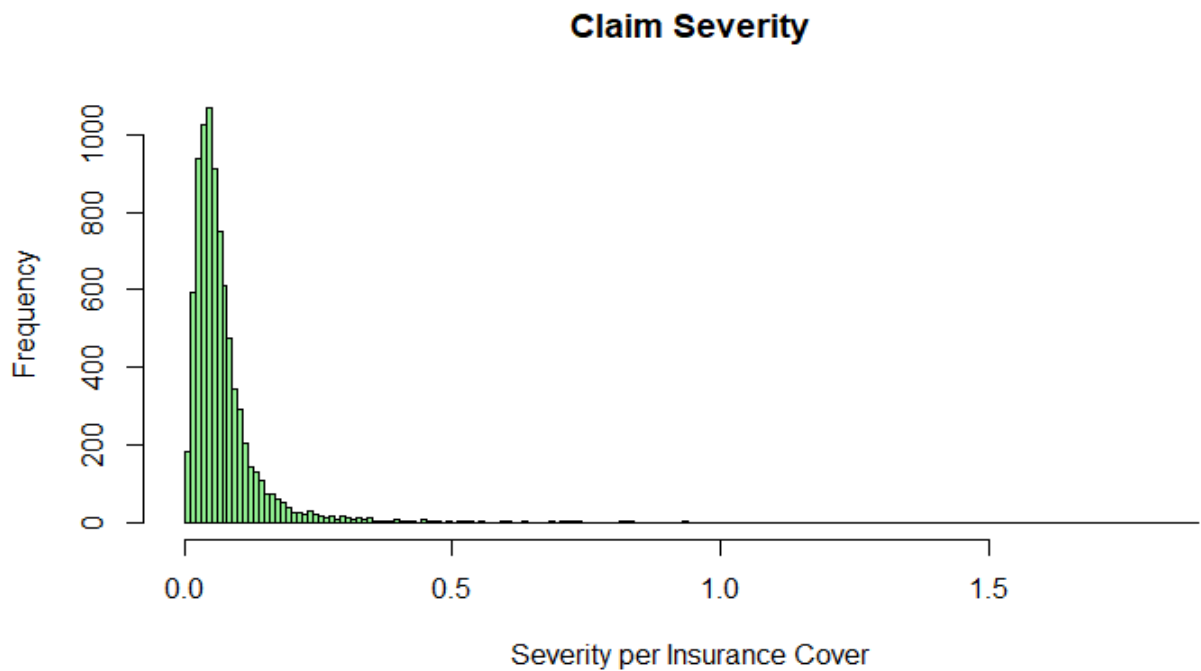
Negative Binomial

MSE

| | |
|----------|----------|
| 3.455130 | 3.451897 |
|----------|----------|

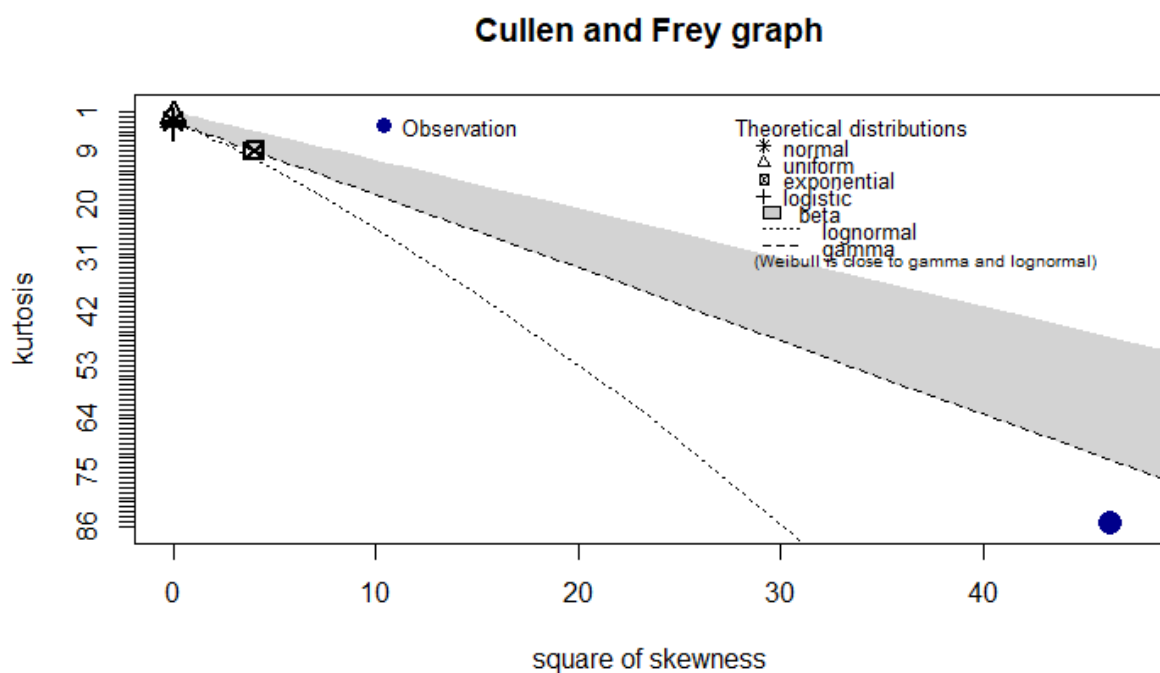
The first term in this validation is the measure of the cross validation MSE and next term is comparison of LOOCV method.

Severity



As we can see that the data is highly positive skewed. A justified explanation is because of the low claim cost is in high frequency. High frequency of the cover between 2-5 and 5-10 have been seen. So, the claim cost for those cover may not exceed the cover whereas for 50 lac cover may not generate so much claims.

Distribution



Here the distribution is closer to the Gamma distribution.

summary statistics

min: 0.000593142 max: 1.8814
median: 0.05423506
mean: 0.07331727
estimated sd: 0.0834238
estimated skewness: 6.802486
estimated kurtosis: 85.3701

Mean is less than variance and high positive skewness is present in data. So Gamma is perfect for the data.

Fit gamma distribution in the data

Simulation Study

| Gamma | Inv_Gaussian | Gamma | Inv Gaussian |
|-----------|--------------|------------|--------------|
| -3245.731 | -3379.442 | -28805.485 | -28833.046 |

We considered the sample of 2000 to make a basic model. Similarly, we considered the inverse gaussian instead of alternate log normal distribution.

We can see that the sample data follows have more fit for gamma distribution.

With Weights

Weights are used to make the response variable more relevant. Here, the claim counts are used as weights in the model.

Coefficients:

| | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(> t) |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|------------|---------|-------------|
| (Intercept) | -2.826731 | 0.200002 | -14.133 | < 2e-16 *** |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1001 to 1300 | -0.170570 | 0.078249 | -2.180 | 0.02951 * |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1301 to 1500 | -0.296916 | 0.090310 | -3.288 | 0.00105 ** |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1501 to 2000 | -0.275188 | 0.093036 | -2.958 | 0.00317 ** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeB | 0.210678 | 0.101190 | 2.082 | 0.03761 * |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeC | 0.342574 | 0.123856 | 2.766 | 0.00579 ** |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeD | 0.333658 | 0.132690 | 2.515 | 0.01208 * |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeE | 0.198752 | 0.087809 | 2.263 | 0.02383 * |
| VEHICLE_MAKEOthers | 0.252207 | 0.086708 | 2.909 | 0.00371 ** |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol<1YES | -0.006044 | 0.242324 | -0.025 | 0.98011 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1NO | -0.203905 | 0.236329 | -0.863 | 0.38846 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol1YES | 0.147495 | 0.220582 | 0.669 | 0.50387 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2NO | 0.190800 | 0.226630 | 0.842 | 0.40006 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol2YES | 0.105789 | 0.215898 | 0.490 | 0.62425 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3NO | 0.258576 | 0.211906 | 1.220 | 0.22267 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol3YES | 0.287459 | 0.212691 | 1.352 | 0.17684 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4NO | 0.249529 | 0.213287 | 1.170 | 0.24232 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol4YES | 0.199528 | 0.211491 | 0.943 | 0.34570 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5NO | 0.428554 | 0.205534 | 2.085 | 0.03733 * |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petrol5YES | 0.060686 | 0.420131 | 0.144 | 0.88518 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1NO | -0.237109 | 0.321354 | -0.738 | 0.46079 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others<1YES | 0.056647 | 0.227417 | 0.249 | 0.80334 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1NO | -0.383624 | 0.277311 | -1.383 | 0.16688 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others1YES | -0.143400 | 0.222887 | -0.643 | 0.52013 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2NO | 0.439025 | 0.220132 | 1.994 | 0.04640 * |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others2YES | 0.126899 | 0.213215 | 0.595 | 0.55187 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3NO | 0.383276 | 0.239291 | 1.602 | 0.10955 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others3YES | 0.193530 | 0.222792 | 0.869 | 0.38525 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4NO | -0.023080 | 0.234305 | -0.099 | 0.92155 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others4YES | 0.155596 | 0.223870 | 0.695 | 0.48721 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5NO | 0.278955 | 0.236851 | 1.178 | 0.23918 |

FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&Others5YES 1.022576 0.428663 2.386 0.01725 *

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for Gamma family taken to be 3.163923)

Null deviance: 1963.6 on 987 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 1737.5 on 956 degrees of freedom
AIC: -15051

| Gamma_Sample | Inv_Gaussian | Gamma_data | Inv_Gaussian |
|--------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|
| -15051.13 | -15223.86 | -1151048.14 | -1127996.80 |

For the full data it can be seen that the Gamma is better though Inv Gaussian is giving less AIC value

Simulation study

| Sample Size | AIC_G | AICc_G | BIC_G | AIC_IG | AICc_IG | BIC_IG |
|-------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|--------|
| 1000 | -1760 | -1755 | -1621 | -15220 | -15220 | -15060 |
| 2000 | -3489 | -3487 | -3327 | -3574 | -3572 | -3411 |
| 3000 | -5209 | -5207 | -5033 | -5352 | -5350 | -5176 |
| 4000 | -6715 | -6714 | -6531 | -6791 | -6790 | -6608 |
| 5000 | -8369 | -8368 | -8177 | -8400 | -8399 | -8209 |
| 6000 | -9770 | -9770 | -9573 | -9833 | -9832 | -9636 |
| 7000 | -11560 | -11560 | -11360 | -11680 | -11680 | -11480 |
| 8000 | -13250 | -13250 | -13040 | -13270 | -13270 | -13060 |
| 9000 | -14840 | -14840 | -14630 | -15060 | -15060 | -14840 |
| 10000 | -16240 | -16240 | -16020 | -16560 | -16560 | -16350 |

Though Inverse Gaussian is giving lower AIC value, most of the time the selected sample didn't converge the algorithm. That is, in R we use Least square method to calculate the model estimate instead of Maximum likelihood. So, the method has some drawback due to Statistical Software used.

Validation of model

Gamma is more accurately validating the model in terms of RMSE calculated in Cross Validation.

RMSE

0.008182451 0.008177364

Chapter 7

Frequency Severity Rate Making

Intuition

Manual rating of specific risks begin with a base rate, which is then modified by appropriate relativity factors depending on characteristics of each risk.

The premium calculated is equal to Expected value of Cost of claim \times Expected value of Frequency of claim

.

Coefficients:

| | frequency_Estimate | Severity_Estimate | Exp(Frequency) | Exp(Severity) | Rate |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|----------------|---------------|------|
| (Intercept) | -2.005881 | -2.5365331 | 0.13 | 0.08 | 0.10 |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1001 to 1300 | 0.215205 | -0.329549 | 1.24 | 0.72 | 0.96 |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1301 to 1500 | 0.292802 | -0.3902261 | 1.34 | 0.68 | 0.89 |
| CC_BAND_GROUP1501 to 2000 | 0.274285 | -0.4660856 | 1.32 | 0.63 | 0.56 |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeB | -0.117838 | 0.1475886 | 0.89 | 1.16 | 0.92 |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeC | -0.236242 | 0.2962052 | 0.79 | 1.34 | 1.07 |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeD | -0.229165 | 0.071452 | 0.80 | 1.07 | 1.12 |
| VEHICLE_MAKEMakeE | 0.043735 | 0.0839514 | 1.04 | 1.09 | 0.98 |
| VEHICLE_MAKEOthers | -0.106051 | 0.2392754 | 0.90 | 1.27 | 2.30 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro1<1YES | 0.594626 | -0.3363759 | 1.81 | 0.71 | 0.72 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro11NO | 0.004302 | 0.0156701 | 1.00 | 1.02 | 1.93 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro11YES | 0.642648 | -0.1552366 | 1.90 | 0.86 | 0.88 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro12NO | 0.031544 | 0.0808607 | 1.03 | 1.08 | 2.15 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro12YES | 0.682679 | -0.0007629 | 1.98 | 1.00 | 1.10 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro13NO | 0.091929 | 0.084625 | 1.10 | 1.09 | 2.28 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro13YES | 0.741483 | 0.1109149 | 2.10 | 1.12 | 1.20 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro14NO | 0.075008 | 0.1569177 | 1.08 | 1.17 | 2.75 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro14YES | 0.854847 | 0.1544955 | 2.35 | 1.17 | 1.02 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro15NO | -0.136161 | 0.4878815 | 0.87 | 1.63 | 2.90 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEP1Petro15YES | 0.576014 | 0.1122549 | 1.78 | 1.12 | 1.50 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&others<1NO | 0.292826 | -0.1083215 | 1.34 | 0.90 | 2.00 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&others<1YES | 0.801574 | -0.3362852 | 2.23 | 0.71 | 0.90 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&others1NO | 0.236378 | -0.0637727 | 1.27 | 0.94 | 2.27 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&others1YES | 0.884777 | -0.1353822 | 2.42 | 0.87 | 1.18 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&others2NO | 0.304801 | -0.0099711 | 1.36 | 0.99 | 2.47 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&others2YES | 0.914969 | -0.0032433 | 2.50 | 1.00 | 1.27 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&others3NO | 0.243463 | 0.0199015 | 1.28 | 1.02 | 2.61 |
| FUEL_AGE_NILDEPDiesel&others3YES | 0.939971 | 0.0761507 | 2.56 | 1.08 | 1.41 |

R Codes

```
with(GLM_data_freq, c(mean = mean(CLAIM_COUNT), var = var(CLAIM_COUNT), ratio =  
var(CLAIM_COUNT) / mean(CLAIM_COUNT)))
```

```
t=factor(CLAIM_COUNT,levels=0:20)  
clm.tab=table(t)  
clm.tab  
par(mfrow=c(1,2))  
barplot(clm.tab, xlab = "Number of CLAIMS", ylab = "Frequency",col = "lightblue")
```

```
abline(v = mean(CLAIM_COUNT), col = "red", lwd = 3)  
ci <- mean(CLAIM_COUNT) + c(-1, 1) * sd(CLAIM_COUNT)  
lines(x = ci, y = c(-4, -4), col = "red", lwd = 3, xpd = TRUE)
```

```
barplot(clm.tab , ylab = "log(Frequency)", xlab = "NUmber of CLAIMs", col = "lightblue", log = "y")  
abline(v = mean(CLAIM_COUNT), col = "red", lwd = 3)  
ci <- mean(CLAIM_COUNT) + c(-1, 1) * sd(CLAIM_COUNT)  
lines(x = ci, y = c(-4, -4), col = "red", lwd = 3, xpd = TRUE)
```

Generalized Linear Model

```
obj2=glm(CLAIM_COUNT~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP+offset(  
log(NCB_ADJ_POLICY_COUNT)), data=tran_data[,c(-1,-17)],family=poisson(log))
```

```
library(MASS)  
obj4=glm.nb(CLAIM_COUNT~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP+offs  
et(log(NCB_ADJ_POLICY_COUNT)), data=tran_data[,c(-1,-17)])
```

Zero Inflated

```
library(VGAM)  
set.seed(1234)  
data1 <- rzipois(200, 3, 0)  
data2 <- rzipois(200, 3, .5)  
par(mfrow=c(1,2))  
tdata1 <- table(data1)  
barplot(tdata1, xlab = "Count", ylab = "Frequency", main = "Poisson(3)")  
tdata2 <- table(data2)  
barplot(tdata2, xlab = "Count", ylab = "Frequency",main = expression("ZI Poisson(3, " * pi * "= .5)"))
```

```
library(pscl)  
zip2=zeroinfl(CLAIM_COUNT~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP,data  
=tran_data,dist="poisson",link="logit", control=zeroinfl.control("BFGS"))
```

```
zinb4=zeroinfl(CLAIM_COUNT~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP,data=tran_data,dist="negbin",link="logit", control=zeroinfl.control("L-BFGS-B"))
```

Hurdle Model

```
ctrl <- hurdle.control(method = "L-BFGS-B")
ctrl$reitol <- NULL
hrd_p2=hurdle(CLAIM_COUNT~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP,data=tran_data,dist="poisson",zero.dist = "binomial",link="logit",control=ctrl)
```

```
ctrl <- hurdle.control(method = "L-BFGS-B")
ctrl$reitol <- NULL
hrd_nb4=hurdle(CLAIM_COUNT~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP,data=tran_data,dist="negbin",zero.dist = "binomial",link="logit",control=ctrl)
```

Rootogram

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
countreg::rootogram(obj2, max = 20,main = "GLM: Poisson")
countreg::rootogram(obj4, max = 20, main = "GLM: Negative-Binomial")
rootogram(zip2, max = 20,main = "Zero Inflated Poisson")
countreg::rootogram(zinb4, max = 20, main = "Zero Inflated Negative Binomial")
rootogram(hrd_p2, max = 20,main = "Hurdle Poisson")
countreg::rootogram(hrd_nb4, max = 20, main = "Hurdle Negative Binomial")
```

Test for model comparison

```
vuong(zip2,zinb4)
```

```
k=list("pois"=obj2,"negbin"=obj4,"Hurdle_pois"=hrd_p4,"Hurdle_negbin"=hrd_nb4,"zero_inf_pois"=zip2,"zero_inf_negbin"=zinb4)
#sapply(k,function(x)coef(x))
sapply(k,function(x)AIC(x))
```

```
LRstats(obj2,obj4,hrd_p4,hrd_nb4,zip2,zinb4,sortby="AIC")
```

Severity Modeling

```
obj_sev1=glm(Severity_by_IDV~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP,family=Gamma(link=log),data=samp1[samp1$Severity>0,])
```

```
obj_sev2=glm(Severity_by_IDV~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP,family=inverse.gaussian(link=log),data=samp1[samp1$Severity>0,])
```

```
#fitting glm of severity to whole data
```

```
obj_g=glm(Severity_by_IDV~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP,family=Gamma(link=log),data=GLM_data_severity[GLM_data_severity$Severity>0,])
```

```
obj_ig=glm(Severity_by_IDV~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP,family=inverse.gaussian("log"),data=GLM_data_severity[GLM_data_severity$Severity>0,])
```

```
w=list("gamma_s"=obj_sev1,"inv_g"=obj_sev2,"Gamma_data"=obj_g, "Inv.gauss"=obj_ig)
sapply(w,function(x)AIC(x))
```


AIC BIC comparison of sample size

```
R=1
n=10
Pois=data.frame()
Neg_bin=data.frame()
Gamma=data.frame()
Inverse_gaus=data.frame()
freq_model=data.frame()
sev_model=data.frame()
Count_freq=rep(0,n)
Count_sev=rep(0,n)
for (j in 1:n){

  cnt=0
  cntt=0
  pois=data.frame()
  neg=data.frame()
  gam=data.frame()
  inv.g=data.frame()

  for(i in 1:R){
    tryCatch({ ind=sample(1:nrow(tran_data),1000*j,replace = F)
      ind=sample(1:nrow(tran_data),1000*j,replace = F)
      samp_ind=tran_data[ind,]

      obj2=glm(CLAIM_COUNT~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP+offset(
log(NCB_ADJ_POLICY_COUNT)), data=samp_ind[,c(-1,-17)],family=poisson(log))

      obj4=glm.nb(CLAIM_COUNT~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP+offs
et(log(NCB_ADJ_POLICY_COUNT)), data=samp_ind[,c(-1,-17)])
      if(AIC(obj2)>AIC(obj4)){
        cnt=cnt+1
      }
    },error=function(e){ })

    pois=rbind(pois,compareGLM(obj2,obj4)$Fit.criteria[1,3:5])
    neg=rbind(neg,compareGLM(obj2,obj4)$Fit.criteria[2,3:5])

    tryCatch({ obj_sev1=glm(Severity_by_IDV~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_N
ILDEP, family=Gamma(link=log),data=samp_ind[which(samp_ind$Severity>0),])

      obj_sev2=glm(Severity_by_IDV~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP,
family=inverse.gaussian(link=log),data=samp_ind[samp_ind$Severity>0,])

      if(AIC(obj_sev1)<AIC(obj_sev2)){
        cntt=cntt+1
      }
    },error=function(e){ })
    gam=rbind(gam,compareGLM(obj_sev1,obj_sev2)$Fit.criteria[1,3:5])
```

```

    inv.g=rbind(inv.g,compareGLM(obj_sev1,obj_sev2)$Fit.criteria[2,3:5])
  }

  P=data.frame(min(pois$AIC),min(pois$AICc),min(pois$BIC))
  Pois=rbind(Pois,P)
  N=data.frame(min(neg$AIC),min(neg$AICc),min(neg$BIC))
  Neg_bin=rbind(Neg_bin,N)
  G=data.frame(min(gam$AIC),min(gam$AICc),min(gam$BIC))
  Gamma=rbind(Gamma,G)
  I=data.frame(min(inv.g$AIC),min(inv.g$AICc),min(inv.g$BIC))
  Inverse_gaus=rbind(Inverse_gaus,I)
  Count_freq[j]=cnt
  Count_sev[j]=cntt

}

freq_model=data.frame(Pois,Neg_bin,Count_freq)
attribut1=c("AIC_P","AICc_P","BIC_P","AIC_NB","AICc_NB","BIC_NB","NB>P")
names(freq_model)=attribut1
sev_model=data.frame(Gamma,Inverse_gaus,Count_sev)
attribut2=c("AIC_G","AICc_G","BIC_G","AIC_IG","AICc_IG","BIC_IG","G>IG")
names(sev_model)=attribut2
freq_model

sev_model

```

Validation

```

library(boot)

obj_sev1=glm(Severity_by_IDV~CC_BAND_GROUP+VEHICLE_MAKE+FUEL_AGE_NILDEP,
family=Gamma(link=log),data=tran_data[tran_data$Severity>0,])

s=cv.glm(tran_data[tran_data$Severity>0,],obj_sev1,K=10)$delta

print(s)

```

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