PROJECT 2: REPORT

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Chapter 1

Variable selection

Prior to statistical analysis of the data, we decided to do some analysis of the data on python. We noticed the large number of missing values for the feature "Activity Code". This is pictured in figure 1.1.

The goal is to know whether the feature Activity Code presenting a lot of null values should be removed or not. We proceed with different tests: likelihood ratio test, AIC test and BIC test. Also we will focus on the severity model to test significance of such feature.

- H0: parameter coefficient for this feature is null
- H1: parameter coefficient for this feature is not null

From the tests summarized in the figures 1.4 - 1.6, we can conclude that it is better to keep the variable "activity code". Indeed, we have AIC(FM) < AIC(RM). According to the lecture, if AIC(Large model) > AIC(Small model), then we might consider excluding the variable removed in the small model.

BIC is supposed to punish additional variables even more. So if we have BIC(Large model) < BIC(Small model), we can feel safe about adding the additional variable. Here, we have BIC(Small Model) < BIC(Large Model). So a priori this means that the small model is better. However, the difference is very slight.

Also, we decided to test significance of the feature "Activity Code" by focusing on the severity model. We fit the reduced model (without such feature) and the full model and do a comparison. Such comparison is summarized in figure 1.2.

In conclusion, we decide to include the feature "Activity Code" in the rest of the analysis.

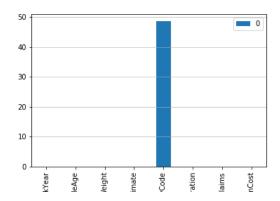


Figure 1.1: Percentage of missing values in each column

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Likelihood ratio test

Model 1: avgclaim ~ weight_group + climate + Activitycode + age_group

Model 2: avgclaim ~ weight_group + climate + age_group

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2: 15 4-20 - 10 46-491 1.169e-06 ***

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

Figure 1.2: Likelihood ratio test on severity model

```
> AIC.test_severity
df AIC
model.severity 25 8610.990
model.severity_reduced 15 8637.481
```

Figure 1.3: AIC test with severity model

Figure 1.4: Likelihood ratio test

	df	BIC
model.frequency	24	1471.278
model.frequency_reduced	14	1459.448

Figure 1.6: BIC test

> AIC_test		
	df	AIC
model.frequency	24	1351.913
model.frequency_reduced	14	1389.818

Figure 1.5: AIC test

Chapter 2

Grouping and risk differentiation

Perform a GLM analysis to figure out how best to describe the risk for the tractors. Use the template GLM.R. The outcome should be a multiplicative GLM model, as described in Eq. 1, that model claims frequency and claim severity separately. Use the same variables and variable groups in both models, and propose the final risk factor Îşk,i, where the final risk factor is the product of the claim frequency and the claim severity. In order to perform your GLM analysis, you will have to group some of the variables. Consider, for example, the tractorsâĂŹ weights. These cover a very wide range, astractors can be both very small and light, and extremely big and heavy. Thus, it wouldbe impossible to analyze each individual weight alone; it is necessary to group them. When grouping a variable, there are two things to consider:

- Make each group "Risk homogeneous", meaning that you believe that the risk does not vary much within the group, with regard to the particular variable.2
- Create groups with enough data to get a stable GLM analysis for each group. What is "enough" has no clear answer, bur varies, depending among other things on how many variables you use in your analysis.

Weight test – Grouping: We tested several grouping schemes different from the one provided originally. Only two of them are summarized in figures 2.1 - 2.4. We end up choosing the one with the lowest AIC.

Based on AIC test, we finally decide to choose a simple grouping with two groups for the age of the vehicle:

- Group 1: vehicle with age < 20 years
- Group 2: vehicle with age > 20 years



Figure 2.1: Test of cut (selected one) - example.1



Figure 2.3: Test of cut - example.2

Figure 2.2: Test summary - example.1



Figure 2.4: Test summary - example.2



Figure 2.5: Test of cut - example.1

Figure 2.7: Test of cut (selected one)- example.2

Figure 2.6: Test summary - example.1

Figure 2.8: Test summary - example.2

Chapter 3

Leveling

After we have found the risk factors $\gamma_{k,i}$ we proceeded to the determination of the base level corresponding to 2017, and we did it in the three following steps:

3.0.1 Estimation of the expected claim cost of 2017

Before beginning with the estimation we can see that our data doesn't contain any insurance contract in the year 2017, all the contacts available go from 2006 to 2016. We begin by creating cells, each cell corresponds to one year. In each cell we computed the average claim cost and we got the graph in figure 3.1.

We can see from figure 3.1 that there is not a flashing linear relation between the two variables. So we used the Null model (using only the intercept as predictor), the estimated total cost of 2017 is the average of all means values of each year. For this approach we used the table summarized in figure 3.2 and computed the average cost for the year 2017 as merely the average of the costs in the past years.

Also, we can notice in figure 3.3 that there is no clear linear relationships between the years and the number of claims. So, the simple model with only and intercept can be an acceptable solution for such problem.

3.0.2 Computing the total premium and base level γ_0

For our simple model only using a model with an intercept we found the following base level:

$$\gamma_0 = 639.3 \tag{3.1}$$

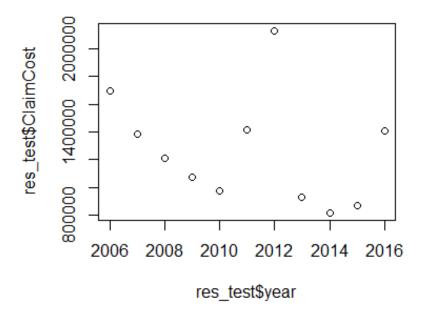


Figure 3.1: summary after fitting all the regressors

Now, we can use a more complex model with GLM. Assume the response variables describing now the number of claims follow a Poisson distribution. We use the model defined in R in figure 3.4.

Out of the model described in figure 3.4 we can predict the number of claims for the year 2017 as:

$$NbClaims2017 = exp(2017 * (-0.0098) + 23.58) \Rightarrow NbClaims2017 = 41.8$$
 (3.2)

Now for the expected claim cost, we also use a GLM assuming that the claim cost follow a Gamma distribution from the exponential family. The results are summarized in table plot in figure 3.5. We can first notice that the p value for the t-test on the single regressor is quite high. This means that the regressor is not really significant. Also, we have the following result for the expected claim cost in the test observation for the year 2017:

$$ECC2017 = exp(2017 * (-0.0267) + 67.812) \Rightarrow ECC2017 = 1108083$$
 (3.3)

NoOfClaims ‡	ClaimCost ‡	AVG_cost ‡
56	1697212.9	30307.37
49	1383131.8	28227.18
41	1211450.5	29547.57
46	1071715.5	23298.16
31	972082.8	31357.51
37	1418261.9	38331.40
56	2127615.5	37993.13
36	929759.6	25826.65
44	817945.1	18589.66
46	866741.5	18842.21
46	1407425.2	30596.20
	56 49 41 46 31 37 56 36 44 46	56 1697212.9 49 1383131.8 41 1211450.5 46 1071715.5 31 972082.8 37 1418261.9 56 2127615.5 36 929759.6 44 817945.1 46 866741.5

Figure 3.2: Number of claims and average cost for each year

Let us now define the total cost as:

$$totalCost2017 = ECC2017 * NOC2017 = 46317869$$
 (3.4)

And

$$priceEstimate = \frac{totalCost2017}{0.9} = 51464299 \tag{3.5}$$

Hence,

$$\gamma_0 = \frac{priceEstimate}{\prod_{i=1}^n \gamma_i} = 23461.11$$
 (3.6)

We can summarize the results by comparing the simple model with the more complex one with GLM:

$$\gamma_0^{Simple} = 639.3$$

$$\gamma_0^{GLM} = 23461.11$$

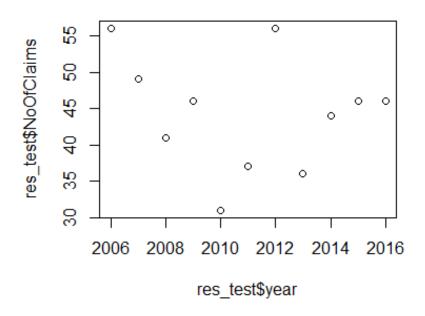


Figure 3.3: Number of claims vs year

Figure 3.4: Number of claims and average cost for each year

Figure 3.5: Number of claims and average cost for each year