PREDICTIVE MODELING A SEMINAR FOR REGULATORS



The Academy

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Seminar Host

- Roosevelt Mosley, MAAA, FCAS
 - Chairperson, Academy's Automobile Insurance Committee



Today's Agenda (Selective)

- Session 1 Predictive Modeling "Cooking Show"
- Session 2 Generalized Linear Models (GLMs)
 - Deep Dive Into GLMs
 - Going Beyond GLMs
- Session 3 Practical Examples of Predictive Models
- Session 4 Public Policy Discussion
- *Note only slides from Session 2 are available.



GENERALIZED LINEAR MODELS: A DEEP DIVE FOR INSURANCE APPLICATIONS



Introductions

- Nathan Hubbell, FCAS
 - 2VP, Business Insurance R&D
 - Travelers
- □ Jeff Kinsey, MAAA, FCAS
 - P&C Actuarial Director, Research Unit
 - State Farm



Agenda

- Generalized Linear Models vs. Traditional Linear Models
- Model Building Process Key Steps



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Credits

Anderson, et al. <u>A Practitioner's Guide to</u>
 Generalized Linear Models

Goldburd, et al. <u>Generalized Linear Models for</u>
 <u>Insurance Rating</u>



Linear Models

Formulas

$$Y_i = E(Y_i) + \varepsilon_i$$

The actual value equals the expected value plus a residual

$$E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \cdots$$

The expected value equals a combination of relevant factors



Linear Models

Assumptions

- Random Component: Each component of Y is independent and is normally distributed. The mean of each component is allowed to differ, but they all have common variance.
- Systematic Component: The covariates are combined to give the linear predictor.
- <u>Link Function</u>: The relationship between the random and systematic components is specified via a link function. For a linear model, the link function is the identity function.



Linear Models

- Limitations in Practice
 - Normality and constant variance are often not applicable for insurance applications
 - Normality assumptions means both positive and negative values are possible
 - Additive effects are not common



Formulas

$$Y_i = E(Y_i) + \varepsilon_i$$

The actual value equals the expected value plus a residual

$$E(Y_i) = g^{-1}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \cdots)$$

The expected value equals a function of the combination of relevant factors



- Assumptions
 - Random Component: Each component of Y is independent and is from one of the exponential family of distributions
 - Systematic Component: The covariates are combined to give the linear predictor
 - <u>Link Function</u>: The relationship between the random and systematic components are specified via a <u>link function</u> that is differentiable and monotonic



Exponential Family of Distribution

Distribution	Variance	Common Uses
Normal	Constant	
Poisson	Varies with mean	Claim Frequency
Gamma	Varies with mean squared	Claim Severity
Tweedie	"Combo" of Poisson and Gamma	Loss Ratio



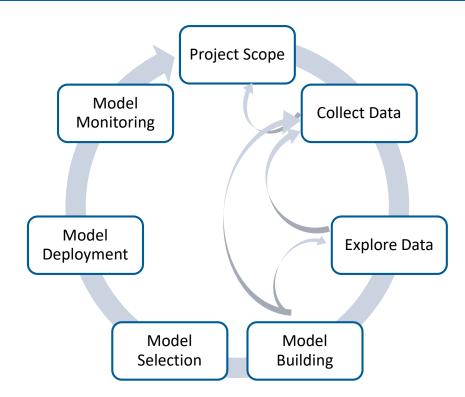
- Link Functions
 - Log link function is commonly used for insurance applications
 - Allows the covariate effects to be multiplicative rather than additive

$$E(Y_i) = e^{(\beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \cdots)} = (e^{\beta_1 X_{i1}}) * (e^{\beta_2 X_{i2}})$$



- Other Link Functions in Practice
 - Logit used for binary target
 - Survival on Titanic, Customer Lapse
 - Identity keeps "traditional" additive effects







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Project Scope

Collect Data

Explore Data

Model Building

Model Selection

Model Deployment

Model Monitoring

- Somewhere between Collecting and Exploring...
 - Split data for specific purposes
 - One set to build models
 - Another to assess models
 - May elect to create three splits
 - Cross validation



Project Scope

Collect Data

Explore Data

Model Building

Model Selection

Model Deployment

Model Monitoring

- Model Selection
 - Performance of model compared to current or other challenger models
 - Perform well on all segments of business?



Project Scope

Collect Data

Explore Data

Model Building

Model Selection

Model Deployment

Model Monitoring

- Model Deployment
 - How will the model be used?
 - Segmentation of business in "tiering" plan?
 - Inform "traditional" rating plan factors?
 - Move all the way to indicated? Weight with current rate plan?

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Project Scope

Collect Data

Explore Data

Model Building

Model Selection

Model Deployment

Model Monitoring

- Model monitoring
 - Ensures model continues to perform as expected
 - Changes in variables? Changes in performance?
 - Over time? Compared to model build?



Project Scope

Collect Data

Explore Data

Model Building

Model Selection

Model Deployment

Model Monitoring

- Other Considerations
 - Model validation conducted?
 - Experience/credentials of modelers



Questions?



BEYOND GLMS



Presenters

- Mark Jones, MAAA, ACAS
 - PWC
- ☐ Mike Woods, FCAS, CSPA
 - Allstate



Machine Learning/Artificial Intelligence Overview

Advantages

- Higher-capacity models can represent more complex data generating processes possibly achieving greater accuracy cost-effectively
- Flexible architecture capable of consuming a broad range of data sources
- Large range of functional application suitable for the varied needs of insurers

Disadvantages

- Opaqueness of many model types incompatible with a business need for "reasons"
- Many architectures require large amounts of data for sufficient training and validation
- Can require a much higher degree of knowledge in numerical analysis, programming and hardware to skillfully apply
- Higher-capacity models overfit easier
- Requires significant resources to tune the performance

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A General ML/AI Framework

"A computer program is said to learn from experience \boldsymbol{E} with respect to some class of tasks \boldsymbol{T} and performance measure \boldsymbol{P} , if its performance at tasks in \boldsymbol{T} , as measured by \boldsymbol{P} , improves with experience \boldsymbol{E} ." — T.M. Mitchell

P depends on T
Accuracy Error LogLoss MSE

E is continually generated by the process Unsupervised p(x) Supervised p(y|x)Semi-supervised p(.) Reinforcement p(x(t))

Typical tasks T

Depends on the purpose and determines how observations are processed

- Synthesis or Sampling
- Imputation
- **1** De-noising
- Density Estimation
- Classification
- Regression
- Transcription or Translation
- Structured Output
- Anomaly Detection



Model Generalization

For a good model

28

- Training error e_{train} is small
- Gap between train and test error e_{train} e_{test} is small

Generalization

Distinguishes machine learning from *optimization*

Generalization error is the expected value of error over the range of possible inputs the machine will encounter

The inputs are assumed to be generated from a data generating process and iid according to a common data-generating distribution

For a randomly selected model:

$$E[e_{train}] = E[e_{test}]$$



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Model Capacity

capacity

a model with higher capacity has the ability to model more relationships between more variables than a model with a lower capacity

the ability to fit a wider range of functions

how complex a relationship it can model



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Capacity and Generalization

- Underfitting occurs when model is not able to obtain as low an error value as is possible on the training set while maintaining generalizability
- Overfitting is the analogous situation where the model fits to noise present in the data and not the underlying data generating process

There is greater risk when a model's capacity greatly exceeds the complexity of the task.

Considered best practice by many that the first model built should always be designed to overfit.

Best to understand the boundaries of the model sooner rather than later.

The more a model has

capacity

the more opportunity it has to

overfit



Modifying Capacity Through Regularization

- Regularization discourages learning a more complex or flexible model, so as to avoid the risk of overfitting
- This can be achieved by adding a penalty term in the loss function that adds cost for increased complexity
- Modification made to the learning algorithm to reduce generalization error but not training error
- There are other ways to regularize:
 - Dropout
 - Bagging
 - Early stopping

L1 Regularization penalizes based on the absolute value of the parameters. Penalty may force some parameters to zero and so can be used for feature selection.

L2 Regularization penalizes based on the square value of the parameter. The penalty forces all parameters to be non-zero and so forces all information to be retained.

Modifying Capacity Through Hyperparameters

- Hyperparameters are the parameters of the model that are set prior to learning
- They are not optimized as part of the training process because they would overfit every single time
- Generally, hyperparameters affect capacity

Tree depth Learning rate Min observations per node

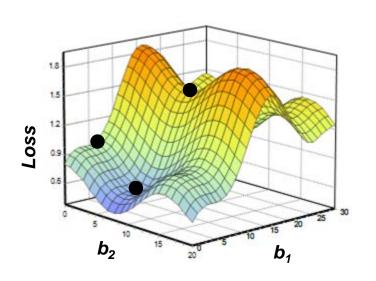
Hidden layers Folds

Number of trees

Sampling rate Tweedie power



Modifying Capacity Through Hyperparameters



Hyperparameter Tuning

- Hyperparameters define a n-dimensional loss surface that may not be well-behaved
- Selecting the optimal set of hyperparameters is not a trivial task
- The final selection may have a significant impact on the model's performance and generalization error

Common approaches
Grid searching
Random searching
Bayesian optimization



Grid and Random Searching

Define a n-dimensional grid with potential combinations of hyperparameters $\mathbf{H} \subseteq R^n$

Fit model and test performance on elements in H

Exhaustive: Use all combination in H

Random: Use some random subset H₁ of H

Refine the grid $H^1 \subseteq H$ based on the regions of minimum loss / best performance

Repeat until the desired level of loss / performance is reached

Consider other stopping criteria

Resource- and time-consuming

May require a more simplified version of the model to be fit for each combination of hyperparameters

Does not guarantee the global minimum



Bayesian Hyperparameter Estimation

- Evaluations of the loss function (minimized in training) is resource-intensive — minimize the number of calls to this function
- Grid & random searching is uninformed by past evaluations
- BHE can be used to leverage historical calls to the loss function to make more informed decisions on future hyperparameters to test

- Define a "surrogate" probability distribution of the loss function given the hyperparameters
- Find the parameters that maximize the expected improvement in the loss function
- Evaluate the loss function for the selected parameters
- Update the surrogate with the new information
- Repeat 2 4 until stopping criteria met

May produce better test set performance, in fewer iterations than a grid or random search Relatively simple to understand but may be difficult to communicate Relies on a selection of a prior "surrogate" for the loss function



Weak Learners and Strong Classifiers

Weak learners

Performs well only on a subset of the domain

May be unstable with small perturbations in data

May be biased in its predictions

Typically what we **have**

Strong classifiers

Performs well over the whole domain

Stable across small changes in the data

Unbiased in its predictions

What we want





Bagging – Bootstrap Algorithm

Algorithm

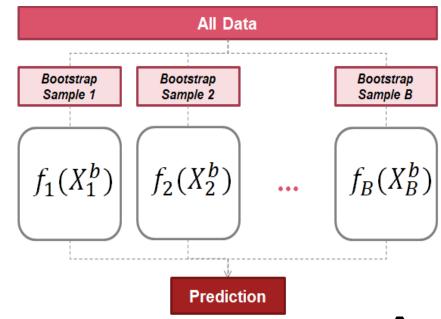
- 1. Create bootstrap resample of data
- 2. Fit model on each resample
- 3. Scoring:
 - Classification: Majority vote
 - Regression: Mean/Median score

Advantages

- Produces more stable predictions i.e. reduces variance
- Less likely to overfit data

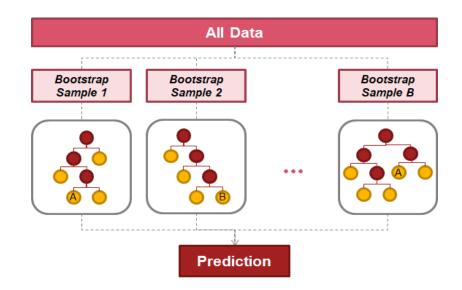
Disadvantages

Generates a "black box"



Random Forests – Bagging Decision Trees

- Introduced by Leo Breiman (2001)
- Uses bagging to improve decision trees
- De-correlates trees by sampling
 - Data with replacement
 - Columns/features at each node
- Produces out-of-bag error rates
- Produces variable importance measure





Random Forests – Parameters

Tree Parameters	Impact and Considerations		
Number of features to select at each node	 Prevent overfitting Produce more diverse trees & discover hidden relationships 		
Maximum depth	 Deeper trees allow for more complex interactions Deeper trees allow for less biased predictions Shallower trees result in a lower propensity to overfit 		
Minimum observations per node	 Fewer observations per node increase node purity More observations per node reduces propensity to overfit 		

Bagging Parameters	Impact and Considerations		
Number of trees	 More trees result in a lower prediction variance More trees may increase the propensity to overfit Stopping criteria may limit the actual number of trees fit 		
Sampling rate	 A lower sampling rate results in a lower propensity to overfit 		



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Boosting

Algorithm

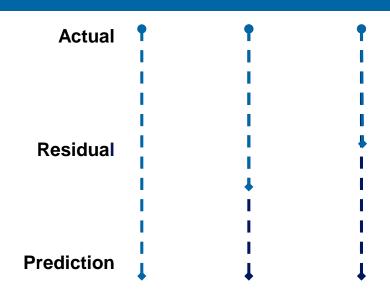
- Rather than fitting models to bootstrap samples of the data – boosting fits sequential models focusing on areas of poor performance
- Subsequent models correct errors of previous models

Advantages

Decrease bias in predictions

Disadvantages

- May overfit the data
- Generates a "black box"
- May be sensitive to outliers and noise



Model 1 Model 2 Model 3

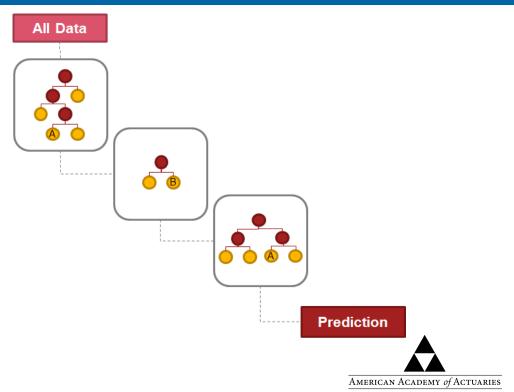
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Gradient Boosted Machines (GBM) Boosting Decision Trees

- Introduced by Jerome Friedman (1999)
- Uses boosting to improve decision trees
- XGBoost algorithm most common
 - Stochastic gradient descent
 - Feature sub-sampling
- LightGBM is latest and greatest
 - Much faster
 - Different approach to finding splits
 - Feature bundling
- **©** GBMs can vary significantly by implementation



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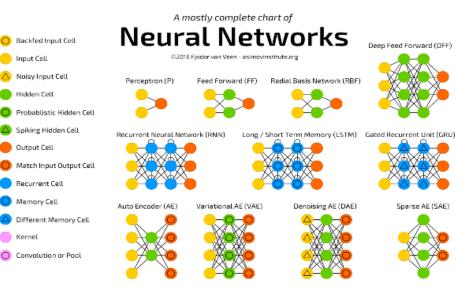
Gradient Boosted Machines Parameters

Tree Parameters	Impact and Considerations	Boosting Parameters	Impact and Considerations
Number of features to select at each	 Prevent overfitting Produce more diverse trees & discover hidden relationships 	Learning rate	 A lower learning rate decreases the impact of any one individual tree Slows down the rate of fitting
Maximum depth	Deeper trees allow for more complex interactions Deeper trees allow for less biased predictions Shallower trees result in a lower propensity	Number of trees	 More trees result in a lower prediction variance More trees may increase the propensity to overfit Stopping criteria may limit the actual number of trees fit
Minimum observations per node	 Fewer observations per node increase node purity More observations per node reduces propensity to overfit 	Sampling rate	A lower sampling rate results in a lower propensity to overfit AMERICAN ACADEMY of ACTUARIES

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Neural Networks Briefly

- Highly flexible architecture based (loosely) on organic neural connections where layers of neurons are connected (fully or partially) to one another
- The capacity of a NN is its ability to extract feature representations via a composition of functions
- Activation functions for each layer determine each nodes state
- Weights for each layer are optimized via stochastic gradient descent and backpropagation
- Specialized architectures (e.g., LSTM & Convolutional) exist for specific tasks (e.g., sequence prediction & image recognition)



Backfed Input Cell

Noisy Input Cell

Hidden Cell

Output Cell

Recurrent Cell

Memory Cell

Kernel

Input Cell



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Advanced Models - Regulatory Concerns

- Protected Classes
- Fitting to Noise
- Monotonicity of Continuous Variable Levels
- Intuitiveness of Discrete Variable Levels
- Reason Codes



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Protected Classes

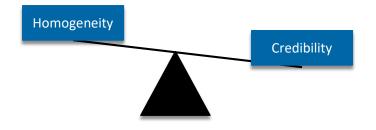
- Examine data that machine learning algorithm is allowed to use
 - Assess whether data could lead to identification of protected classes
- Examples
 - Pricing model
 - Examine list of variables considered by model
 - Image-based models
 - Ensure model only uses image data of subject matter



Fitting to Noise

 Every risk classification system must strike balance between homogeneity and credibility

- Determine if advanced model type has parameters that dictate credibility of decisions
 - GBM
 - Minimum Rows: determines minimum number of observations needed for a split





Monotonicity of Continuous Variables

- Monotonicity: "varying in such a way that it either never decreases or never increases"
- Certain continuous variables should have a monotonicity constraint applied, such as:
 - Number of Accidents in Last Three Years
 - Insurance Limit
- Modeler should apply monotonicity constraint in modeling process
 - GBM
 - Certain implementations of GBMs, such as XGBoost, allow for monotonicity constraints to be specified



Intuitiveness of Discrete Variable Levels

Example

- Multi-Policy Discount (MPD) on an Auto Policy
 - Want to check for intuitive relationship between four levels of the MPD
 - No other policies
 - Personal Umbrella Policy
 - Homeowners Policy
 - Homeowners & Personal Umbrella Policy

Solutions

- Partial Dependence Plot
- Individual Conditional Expectations Plot



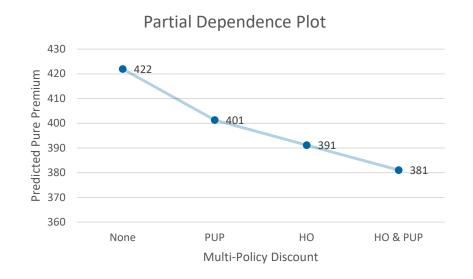
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Partial Dependence Plot

Partial dependence function

$$f_{x_S}(x_S) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (f(x_S, x_C^{(i)}))$$

f = machine learning model $x_s =$ feature set to be plotted $x_c^{(i)} =$ actual feature values from dataset in which we are not interested $\mathbf{n} =$ number of observations

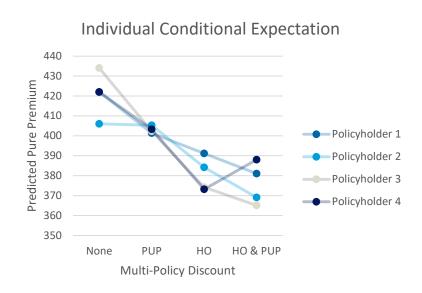




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Individual Conditional Expectation

- Individual Conditional Expectation (ICE) plot is similar to PDP
 - PDP showed average effect of a feature across dataset
 - ICE shows effect of feature on each observation in dataset





Reason Codes

- How to educate insureds on how to lower premium?
- How to inform insureds why premium went up at renewal (when applicable)?
 - Insurance companies can prepare information, using PDPs and ICEs, on variables that are likely to increase or decrease cost of insurance for individual insureds



Beyond GLMs

Questions?



PRACTICAL EXAMPLES OF PREDICTIVE MODELING



Presenter

- Dorothy Andrews, MAAA, ASA
 - Chairperson, Academy's Data Science and Analytics Committee



PREDICTIVE MODELING PANEL DISCUSSION OF PUBLIC POLICY QUESTIONS



Moderator

- □ Rich Gibson, MAAA, FCAS
 - Senior Property/Casualty Fellow, American Academy of Actuaries



Panelists

- Birny Birnbaum
 - Center for Economic Justice
- Kevin Dyke, MAAA, FCAS
 - Michigan Dept. of Insurance and Financial Services
- Mike Woods, FCAS
 - Allstate



Predictive Modeling – Public Policy

Discussion



Contact Us

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