

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction and Motivation

Many problems in actuarial science involve the building of models that can be used to forecast or predict insurance costs. Modeling is an important procedure for actuaries so that they can estimate the degree of uncertainty as to when a claim will be made and how much will be paid. In particular, the modeling of claims and outstanding claims lead to the pricing of insurance premiums and an estimation of claim reserve, respectively. The most useful approach to uncertainty representation is through probability, so we will concentrate on probability models.

Losses depend on two random variables, i.e., the number of losses and the amount of loss which occur in a specified period. The number of losses (claim number) is referred to as the frequency of loss (claim frequency) and its probability distribution is called *the frequency distribution*. The amount of loss (claim size) is referred to as the severity of loss (claim severity) and its probability distribution is called *the severity distribution*. Loss distribution and its modeling are described in detail in the book of Klugman (2008) and in the papers of Burnecki, Janczura, and Weron (2010). A building of a credible model for claim severity is usually more difficult than for claim frequency. Thus we are interested in claim severity, that is, the severity distribution will be considered in this study.

The mixture of distributions is sometimes called *compounding*, which is extremely important as it can provide a superior fit. A successful use of this technique

is illustrated in Hewitt and Lefkowitz (1979). In the 1960s and 1970s, finite mixture models appeared in the statistical literature and they proved to be useful for modeling discrete unobserved heterogeneity in the population. Since there are many different modes of claim possibilities, a finite mixture model should work well.

An Expectations Maximization (EM) algorithm is provided to fit the model that introduces unobserved indicators with the goal of maximizing the complete likelihood functions. The EM algorithm is also applicable for parameter estimation of mixture models. For more details, see Dempster, Laird and Rubin (1977), McLachlan and Peel (2000), Aitkin and Rubin (1985) and Hogg *et al.* (2005).

The bootstrap process is a tool for fitting and it is not complicated to implement. Usually, the bootstrap process involves resampling with replacements from the residual or the data themselves. We apply the bootstrap technique to recalculate the estimated parameters for model fitting. For more details, see Efron and Tibshirani (1993).

An insurance contract is a risk exchange between two parties, i.e., the insurer and the policyholder (insured). The insurer promises to pay for the financial consequences of the claims as the policyholder pays a fixed premium. In this study, the term of risk, in insurance, refers to a loss (claim) variable that quantifies the potential loss (claim) amount associated with an insurance contract. The insurer has understanding to price the premium to cover the uncertainty losses that will occur in the future. So the insurance pricing is therefore important to construct the model for premium calculation.

Risk is often used to mean uncertainty which creates both problems and opportunities for business and individuals. Pure risk exists when there is uncertainty

as to whether loss will occur. Speculative risk exists when there is uncertainty about an event that could produce either a profit or a loss. In insurance risk is pure risk that can be insurable, while most of financial risks tend to have the characteristics of speculative risks that are uninsurable. The definitions and properties of risks are explained in the book of James, Robert and David (2005). The risk measures and its classification are described in the book of McNeil, Frey and Embrechts (2004) and the paper of Dhaene *et al.* (2006), in detail. The summarization of risk measure families is shown in Table C.1 of Appendix C. The premium calculation principle is the one of risk measures families that we consider for insurance pricing in this study.

As for insurance premium, the insurer needs not only price it to cover the losses but also to make it competitive in the market. Traditionally, the expected value and the standard deviation are the most widely used to obtain the premium which tends to make it be higher than needed. To provide a competitive premium in the market, we work in the opposite direction. That is, we are interested in how much the premium should be discounted relative to the market price of risk. The premium which is calculated depending on both risk and market conditions, is called *the economic premium*. Then we study economic premium principles for insurance pricing.

1.2 Historical Review

Claim modeling: Many authors have proposed and compared the parameter estimation methods for fitting of claim severity. Some authors investigate some special distributions of the claim severity and apply them to calculate the insurance premium. Grzegorz and Richard (2005) proposed the modeling of hidden exposures in

claim severity of normal distribution via the EM algorithm for 2, 3 and 4 components, using the R program. The actual auto bodily injury liability claims closed in Massachusetts in 2001 were applied for the model. Vytaras, Bruce and Ricardas (2009) suggested the method of trimmed moments (MTM) in the case of loss distribution of Lognormal and Pareto and they analyzed real data sets concerning hurricane damage in the United States. Recently, Mohamed, Ahmad and Noriszura (2010) investigated a model of claim severity which has compound Poisson-Pareto distribution, by simulation, and they used it to calculate insurance premiums under the retention limit.

Insurance pricing: In the actuarial literature, there have been many discussions on risk measures of financial and insurance risks in the context of premium calculation principles. Wang's premium principle has been discussed by many authors, e.g., Wang (1995; 1996), Wang, Young and Panjer (1997) and Young (1999). In Wang (2000), the author proposed a pricing method based on the following transform:

$$F^*(x) = \Phi \left[\Phi^{-1}(F(x)) + \theta \right]$$

where Φ is the standard normal cumulative distribution and $F(x)$ is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of a risk interest. The key parameter θ is called *the market price of risk*. The transform is now better known as *the Wang transform* among financial engineers and risk managers. Recently, Kijima and Muromachi (2008) presented an extension of the Wang transform that is consistent with Bühlmann's pricing formula and proposed a new probability transform which is related to the Student's t distribution for pricing of financial and insurance risks.

The purpose of this study is to consider the claim modeling for finite mixture Lognormal distributions and the pricing of insurance premiums based on a new property transform related to finite mixture Lognormal distributions.

1.3 Objective and Overview of the Thesis

The purpose of this study is to find a statistical model for the claim modeling and insurance pricing. For claim modeling, we shall find a model that is fitted to the claim data. Two kinds of distributions are usually considered: one for the amounts of individual claims and the other for amounts of aggregate claims. We are interested in the amount of individual claims. In insurance companies, there are 2 types of claim data recording, i.e., individual and group data. We model the individual claim data in this study. A finite mixture of Lognormal distributions is fitted to the data and the estimated parameters for the model are calculated by the EM algorithm. We also use the bootstrap technique to fit the data and show that the bootstrap sample for observation and residual can be applied to the estimated parameters.

In insurance pricing; we study the premium calculation principle and propose a new transform, called *the Log-transform* that is related to the finite mixture of Lognormal distributions. The premium shall be calculated based on Log-transform and compared with premiums obtained by other methods.

Our work is organized as follows: In Chapter II, we present preliminaries which are useful for claim modeling and insurance pricing, some mathematical and statistical background are also shown in this section. In Chapter III, we present the claim modeling. That is, we present the statistical modeling for a finite mixture of Lognormal distributions, the EM algorithm is explained and the bootstrap technique is

demonstrated. We have performed numerical experiments of empirical data for fitting by the finite mixture of Lognormal distributions. An application with actual claim data set is given in this chapter. In Chapter IV, we present the insurance premium calculation which is price based on the Log-transform related to the finite mixture Lognormal distributions. We show that the Log-transform can be derived from Bühlmann's economic premium principle. The insurance pricing based on Log-transform is applied to the actual claim data set. The conclusions, discussion and further research are shown in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

PRELIMINARIES

In this section, the concepts and theories of some mathematical and statistical material are presented that is useful for the claim modeling and insurance pricing. Some of the probabilistic tools are described in Appendix B.

2.1 Random Variables

Losses of insurance are losses caused by occurrences of unexpected events. Examples of insured events and their consequences are damage to property and casualties by fire, theft, flood, hail, accident, disability or death (loss of future income and support), illness (cost of medical treatment) and personal injury resulting from accidents or medical malpractice (cost of treatment and personal suffering).

Mostly, actuaries are interested in some consequences of random outcomes. For example, they are concerned with the amount which the insurance company will pay for claim possibilities. We can think of them as functions mapping insured events into the real line \mathbb{R} (claim amount). Such functions are called *random variables* provided they satisfy certain desirable properties, precisely stated in the following definition:

Definition 2.1. If Ω is a given set, then a σ -algebra \mathcal{F} on Ω is a family \mathcal{F} of subsets of Ω with the following properties:

- (i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$
- (ii) $F \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow F^c \in \mathcal{F}$, where $F^c = \Omega \setminus F$ is the complement of F in Ω

$$(iii) \quad A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A := \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$$

The pair (Ω, \mathcal{F}) is called a *measurable space*. A probability measure P on a measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) is a function $P : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that

$$(a) \quad P(\emptyset) = 0, \quad P(\Omega) = 1$$

(b) if $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is disjoint (i.e., $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ if $i \neq j$) then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i).$$

The triple (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is called a *probability space*.

The subsets A of Ω which belong to \mathcal{F} are called \mathcal{F} -*measurable sets*. In a probability context these sets are called events and we use the interpretation

$$P(A) = \text{“ the probability that the event } A \text{ occurs”}$$

If (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is a given probability space, then a function $Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is called \mathcal{F} -*measurable* if

$$Y^{-1}(U) := \{\omega \in \Omega; Y(\omega) \in U\} \in \mathcal{F}$$

for all open sets $U \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

If $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is any function, then the σ -algebra \mathcal{H}_X generated by X is the smallest σ -algebra on Ω containing all the sets

$$X^{-1}(U) ; U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \text{ open.}$$

That is $\mathcal{H}_X = \{X^{-1}(B); B \in \mathcal{B}\}$, where \mathcal{B} is the Borel σ -algebra on \mathbb{R}^n .

A random variable X is an \mathcal{F} -measurable function mapping Ω to the real numbers, i.e., $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is such that

$$X^{-1}((-\infty, x]) \in \mathcal{F} \text{ for any } x \in \mathbb{R},$$

where $X^{-1}((-\infty, x]) = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \leq x\}$. Every random variable induces a probability measure μ_X on \mathbb{R} , defined by

$$\mu_X(B) = P(X^{-1}(B)).$$

μ_X is called *the distribution of X*.

The actuary deals with objects such as random variables. An example of a random variable is the amount of a claim associated with the occurrence of an automobile accident.

2.2 Distribution Functions

To each random variable X is associated a function F_X called *the distribution function of X* or the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of X . The distribution F_X does not indicate what is the actual outcome of X , but shows how the possible values for X are distributed. The CDF of the random variable X is defined as

$$F_X(x) = P[X^{-1}((-\infty, x])] \equiv P[X \leq x], \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$F_X(x)$ represents the probability that the random variable X assumes a value that is less than or equal to x . If X is the total amount of claims generated by some policyholder, $F_X(x)$ is the probability that this policyholder produces a total claim amount of at most x Thai Baht.

Any distribution function F has the following properties:

- (i) F is nondecreasing, i.e., If $x < y$ then $F(x) \leq F(y)$.

$$(ii) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} F(x) = 1.$$

$$(iii) \quad F \text{ is right-continuous, that is, } \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} F(x+h) = F(x) \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Definition 2.2. A random variable X is called *discrete* if it takes values in some countable subset $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ of \mathbb{R} . The discrete random variable X has *probability mass function* $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0,1]$ given by

$$f(x) = P(X = x).$$

Definition 2.3. A random variable X is called *continuous* if its distribution function can be expressed as

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(u) du \quad ; \quad x \in \mathbb{R},$$

for some integrable function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0,1]$ called *the probability density function* (PDF) of X .

Definition 2.4. Suppose that $X_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are random variables on a probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . They can be composed to a random vector in \mathbb{R}^n is defined by

$$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)'$$

Definition 2.5. The expectation of a continuous random variable X with density function f is given by

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

whenever this integral exists.

Definition 2.6. The variance of a continuous random variable X with density function f is given by

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

We can rewrite as $\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$.

Theorem 2.1. If X has density function f with $f(x) = 0$ when $x < 0$, and distribution function F , then the expected value of X is

$$E[X] = \int_0^{\infty} [1 - F(x)] dx.$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} [1 - F(x)] dx &= \int_0^{\infty} P(X > x) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \left(\int_{y=x}^{\infty} f(y) dy \right) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \left(\int_0^y f(y) dx \right) dy \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} (y - 0) f(y) dy \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} y f(y) dy \end{aligned}$$

Conclusion that

$$E[X] = \int_0^{\infty} [1 - F(x)] dx.$$

□

Definition 2.7. Let X be a continuous random variable with density function f . The moment generating function (MGF) of the random variable X is the function $M : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ given by $M_X(t) = E(e^{tX})$. That is,

$$M_X(t) = E[e^{tX}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} dF(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx.$$

Example. If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then $E[e^{rX}] = \exp\left(\mu r + \frac{1}{2} r^2 \sigma^2\right)$. In the special case when $X \sim N(0, 1)$ we have $M_X(t) = E[e^{tX}] = e^{t^2/2}$.

2.3 Lognormal Distribution

Lognormal distribution is useful as a model for the claim size distributions. A random variable X is said to have the Lognormal distribution with parameters μ and σ if $Y = \ln X$ has the normal distribution with mean μ and standard deviation σ . We assume that the random variable X representing claim size has the Lognormal distribution with parameters μ and σ .

Assume that $X \sim \text{Lognormal}(\mu, \sigma)$, abbreviated $X \sim LN(\mu, \sigma)$.

$$\text{CDF} : F_X(x) = \Phi\left(\frac{\ln x - \mu}{\sigma}\right); \quad \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \sigma > 0 \text{ and } x > 0.$$

$$\text{PDF} : f_X(x) = \frac{1}{x\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

$$\text{Moment} : E[X^k] = \exp\left(k\mu + \frac{1}{2} k^2 \sigma^2\right)$$

$$\text{Mean} : \exp\left(\mu + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2\right)$$

$$\text{Median} : \exp(\mu)$$

$$\text{Variance} : \left[\exp(\sigma^2) - 1\right]\left[\exp(2\mu + \sigma^2)\right]$$

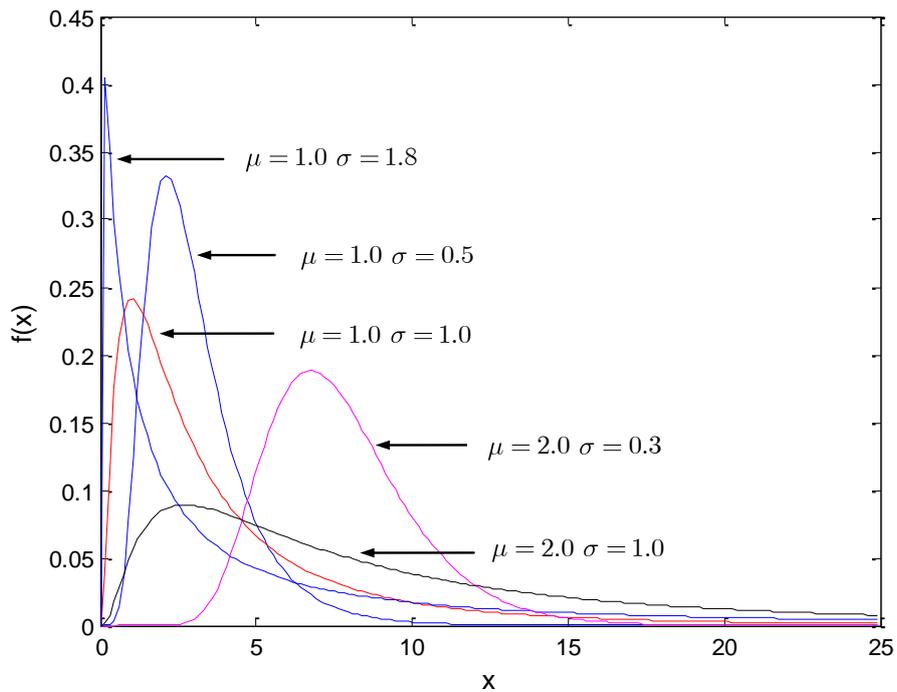


Figure 2.1 The PDF of the Lognormal distribution.

2.4 Uniform Distribution

The random variable X has the uniform distribution with parameters α and β , abbreviated $X \sim Uni(\alpha, \beta)$, if its density function is given as follows:

$$\text{PDF} : f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(\beta - \alpha)} & , \alpha \leq x \leq \beta \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases} , \alpha < \beta.$$

Example: $X \sim Uni(0,1)$.

$$\text{PDF} \quad : \quad f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & , x \in (0,1) \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{CDF} \quad : \quad F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

Lemma 2.1. Suppose X has a continuous and strictly increasing CDF F . Then $F(X)$ has the uniform distribution,

$$F(X) \sim Uni(0,1).$$

Proof:

Let $u \in (0,1)$.

$$\begin{aligned} P[F(X) \leq u] &= P[F^{-1}F(X) \leq F^{-1}(u)] \\ &= P[X \leq F^{-1}(u)] \\ &= F(F^{-1}(u)) \\ &= u. \end{aligned}$$

The lemma has been proved. □

Note that above we have used:

- (1) F is strictly increasing and continuous $\Rightarrow F^{-1} : (0,1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ exists.
- (2) $F^{-1}(F(x)) = x, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.
- (3) $F(F^{-1}(x)) = x, \forall x \in (0,1)$.

Corollary 2.1. Let X be a random variable with continuous and strictly increasing CDF F and Φ be the standard normal distribution. If $V = \Phi^{-1}[F(X)]$, then V has distribution Φ , i.e.,

$$P(V \leq x) = \Phi(x).$$

Proof:

Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$, one has:

$$\begin{aligned} P(V \leq x) &= P[\Phi^{-1}(F(X)) \leq x] \\ &= P[F(X) \leq \Phi(x)]. \end{aligned}$$

By Lemma 2.1, $F(X) \sim Uni(0,1)$.

Conclusion that

$$P(V \leq x) = \Phi(x), \quad V \sim N(0,1). \quad \square$$

2.5 Mixture Models

A mixture model is a discrete or continuous weighted combination of distributions and represents a heterogeneous population comprised of two or more distinct subpopulations. The source of heterogeneity could be gender, age, mode of benefit payment, etc.

2.5.1 The Finite Mixture Models

A finite mixture model allows us to combine two or more characteristics into one model. It can be represented by a probability density function (PDF) of the form:

$$f(x) = \tau_1 f_1(x) + \cdots + \tau_k f_k(x)$$

with $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $\tau_j > 0$ for $j = 1, \dots, k$ and $\tau_1 + \dots + \tau_k = 1$.

All $f_k(\cdot)$ are PDF (either continuous or discrete). The τ_k are called *the mixing weights* (mixing values) and the $f_k(x)$ are called *the components*, k is the number of component distributions of the mixture. In most situations, the $f_k(\cdot)$ have specified parametric forms:

$$f(x) = \tau_1 f_1(x | \theta_1) + \dots + \tau_k f_k(x | \theta_k),$$

where θ_j denotes the vector of parameters in density $f_j(\cdot)$ for $j = 1, \dots, k$.

2.6 Random Vector and Covariance

Definition 2.8. The joint distribution function of random variables X and Y is the function $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0,1]$ given by

$$F(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y).$$

Definition 2.9. The random variables X and Y are (jointly) continuous with joint probability density function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ if

$$F(x, y) = \int_{v=-\infty}^y \int_{u=-\infty}^x f(u, v) du dv, \text{ for each } x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

From here on, let X, Y be random variables with joint PDF $f(x, y)$. Then the marginal distribution functions of X and Y are

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) \text{ and } F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y),$$

respectively. Hence,

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x,y) dy dx, \quad F_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x,y) dx dy$$

and it follows that the marginal density functions of X and Y are

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x,y) dy \quad \text{and} \quad f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x,y) dx, \quad \text{respectively.}$$

Definition 2.10. Suppose that $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function. If X and Y are continuous random variables with joint probability density function f , then the expected value of the random variable $g(X, Y)$ is given by

$$E[g(X, Y)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, y) f(x, y) dx dy.$$

Definition 2.11. If X and Y are random variables, the covariance of X and Y is

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])].$$

It can be rewritten as

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y].$$

The correlation (coefficient) of X and Y is

$$\text{Corr}[X, Y] = \frac{\text{Cov}[X, Y]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[X]\text{Var}[Y]}} = \frac{\text{Cov}[X, Y]}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

as long as the variances are non-zero.

Lemma 2.2. Let V be a random variable which has the standard normal distribution,

$V \sim N(0, 1)$. Then for every $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$, $\text{Cov}[V, -\theta V] = -\theta$.

Proof:

$$\text{Cov}(V, -\theta V) = E[V(-\theta V)] - E[V]E[-\theta V]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
Cov[V, -\theta V] &= -\theta E[V^2] + \theta E[V]E[V] \\
&= -\theta[E[V^2] - (E[V])^2] \\
&= -\theta Var[V] \\
&= -\theta . \quad \square
\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.2. Suppose that X_1 and X_2 are normal and independent. Then $X_1 + X_2$ is normal.

Lemma 2.3. For $j = 1, \dots, k$, suppose that random variables X_j are independent and let $g_j : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, be continuous functions. Then the random variables $g_j(X_j)$, $j = 1, \dots, k$ are also independent.

Definition 2.12. Let random variables (X, Y) have the joint PDF

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_X\sigma_Y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left[\left(\frac{x-\mu_X}{\sigma_X} \right)^2 - 2\rho \left(\frac{x-\mu_X}{\sigma_X} \right) \left(\frac{y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y} \right) + \left(\frac{y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y} \right)^2 \right] \right\},$$

where $-\infty < x < \infty$, $-\infty < y < \infty$, $-\infty < \mu_X < \infty$, $-\infty < \mu_Y < \infty$, $\sigma_X, \sigma_Y > 0$ and $-1 < \rho < 1$. Then X, Y are said to have a bivariate normal distribution, and $E[X] = \mu_X$, $E[Y] = \mu_Y$, $Var[X] = \sigma_X^2$, $Var[Y] = \sigma_Y^2$, $Cov[X, Y] = \rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y$ and $Corr[X, Y] = \rho$.

Definition 2.13. The joint moment generating function of (X, Y) is defined by

$$M_{X,Y}(t_1, t_2) = E \left[e^{t_1 X + t_2 Y} \right]$$

and the moment generating function (MGF) for the bivariate normal distribution is

$$M_{X,Y}(t_1, t_2) = \exp\left(t_1\mu_X + t_2\mu_Y + \frac{1}{2}(t_1^2\sigma_X^2 + 2\rho t_1 t_2\sigma_X\sigma_Y + t_2^2\sigma_Y^2)\right),$$

where $E[X] = \mu_X$, $E[Y] = \mu_Y$, $Var[X] = \sigma_X^2$, $Var[Y] = \sigma_Y^2$, $Cov[X, Y] = \rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y$

and $Corr[X, Y] = \rho$.

Lemma 2.4. Suppose X, Y is bivariate normal then

$$M_{X,Y}(s, -1) = E[e^{-Y}] \exp\left(sE[X] + \frac{s^2}{2}Var[X] - sCov[X, Y]\right).$$

Proof:

By MGF for the bivariate normal distribution, one gets

$$M_{X,Y}(s, t) = \exp\left(s\mu_X + t\mu_Y + \frac{1}{2}(s^2\sigma_X^2 + 2\rho st\sigma_X\sigma_Y + t^2\sigma_Y^2)\right).$$

$$\begin{aligned} M_{X,Y}(s, -1) &= \exp\left(s\mu_X - \mu_Y + \frac{1}{2}(s^2\sigma_X^2 - 2\rho s\sigma_X\sigma_Y + \sigma_Y^2)\right) \\ &= \exp\left(sE[X] + \frac{s^2}{2}Var[X] - E[Y] + \frac{1}{2}Var[Y] - \rho s\sigma_X\sigma_Y\right) \\ &= \exp\left(sE[X] + \frac{s^2}{2}Var[X] - E[Y] + \frac{1}{2}Var[Y] - sCov[X, Y]\right) \\ &= \exp\left(-E[Y] + \frac{1}{2}Var[Y]\right) \exp\left(sE[X] + \frac{s^2}{2}Var[X] - sCov[X, Y]\right). \end{aligned}$$

The MGF of the univariate random variable of normal distribution is

$$\eta(s) = M_Y(s) = \exp\left(s\mu_Y + \frac{1}{2}s^2\sigma_Y^2\right). \quad (2.5)$$

If $s = -1$, then $\eta(-1) = M_Y(-1) = \exp\left(-\mu_Y + \frac{1}{2}\sigma_Y^2\right) = E[e^{-Y}]$.

Conclusion that

$$M_{X,Y}(s, -1) = E\left[e^{-Y}\right] \exp\left[sE[X] + \frac{s^2}{2} \text{Var}[X] - s \text{Cov}[X, Y]\right]. \quad \square$$

Lemma 2.5. Suppose that (X, Y) is jointly normally distributed. Then

$$E\left[e^{-Y} f(X)\right] = E\left[e^{-Y}\right] E\left[f(X - \text{Cov}[X, Y])\right]$$

for any $f(x)$ for which the above expectation exists.

Proof:

Let $\xi(x, y)$ be the joint density of (X, Y) and define

$$\xi_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y} \xi(x, y) dy, \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$

Then

$$E\left[e^{-Y} f(X)\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y} f(x) \xi(x, y) dx dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \xi_X(x) dx.$$

Denoting the MGF of (X, Y) by

$$\eta(s, t) = E\left[e^{sX+tY}\right]$$

one obtains that

$$\eta(s, -1) = E\left[e^{sX-Y}\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{sx} \xi_X(x) dx. \quad (2.6)$$

Since

$$E\left[e^{sX-Y}\right] = \eta(s, -1) = M_{X,Y}(s, -1) = E\left[e^{sX} e^{-Y}\right]$$

and as (X, Y) is bivariate normally distributed, applying Lemma 2.4 it follows that

$$\eta(s, -1) = E[e^{-Y}] \exp \left(sE[X] + \frac{s^2}{2} \text{Var}[X] - s \text{Cov}[X, Y] \right). \quad (2.7)$$

Next, we consider

$$\exp \left(sE[X] + \frac{s^2}{2} \text{Var}[X] - s \text{Cov}[X, Y] \right) \text{ of Eq. 2.7.}$$

For any random variable $X - \text{Cov}[X, Y]$, its mean and variance are

$$E[X - \text{Cov}[X, Y]] = E[X] - \text{Cov}[X, Y]$$

and

$$\text{Var}[X - \text{Cov}[X, Y]] = \text{Var}[X] = \sigma_X^2.$$

Since

$$M_{X - \text{Cov}[X, Y]}(s) = E[e^{s\{X - \text{Cov}[X, Y]\}}] = \exp \left(s(E[X] - \text{Cov}[X, Y]) + \frac{1}{2} s^2 \text{Var}[X] \right)$$

then Eq. 2.7 can be written as

$$\eta(s, -1) = E[e^{-Y}] E[e^{s\{X - \text{Cov}[X, Y]\}}]. \quad (2.8)$$

Consider Eq. 2.6 and Eq. 2.8, one gets

$$E[e^{-Y}] E[e^{s\{X - \text{Cov}[X, Y]\}}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{sx} \xi_X(x) dx$$

$$E[e^{s\{X - \text{Cov}[X, Y]\}}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{sx} \frac{\xi_X(x)}{E[e^{-Y}]} dx.$$

Let $\text{Cov}[X, Y] = a$ and $x = u - a$.

Then we get that

$$E[e^{s(X-a)}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{s(u-a)} \frac{\xi_X(u-a)}{E[e^{-Y}]} du.$$

Thus, the density function of the random variable $(X - a)$ is

$$\frac{\xi_X(u - a)}{E[e^{-Y}]}.$$

We have seen that

$$E[e^{-Y} f(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \xi_X(x) dx.$$

Then we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} E[e^{-Y} f(X)] &= E[e^{-Y}] \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \frac{\xi_X(x)}{E[e^{-Y}]} dx \\ &= E[e^{-Y}] \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(u - a) \frac{\xi_X(u - a)}{E[e^{-Y}]} du \\ &= E[e^{-Y}] E[f(X - a)]. \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that

$$E[e^{-Y} f(X)] = E[e^{-Y}] E[f(X - Cov[X, Y])]. \quad \square$$

2.7 Equilibrium Price

2.7.1 A Model for the Market

The economic premiums are not only depending on the risk but also on market conditions. We can describe the risk by a random variable X and the market conditions by a random variable Z ; such as an aggregate risk, collective wealth, correlation and etc.

In the market we are considering agents $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$. They constitute buyers of insurance, insurance companies or reinsurance companies. Each agent j is characterized by his

- (i) utility function $u_j(x)$ with first derivative and second derivative of $u_j(x)$ are $u'_j(x) > 0$ and $u''_j(x) < 0$, respectively, and
- (ii) initial wealth w_j .

The risk aspect is modeled by a finite (for simplicity) probability space with states $s = 1, 2, \dots, S$ and probabilities π_s of state s happening, i.e.,

$$\sum_{s=1}^S \pi_s = 1.$$

The states s can be described as follows:

(a) Consider a whole insurance business; states are lines of insurance business such as the insurance of fire, motor, automobile, marine, health and etc. The amount of claims are produced from each line of business.

(b) Consider one line of business. For example, in automobile insurance; states may be the type of coverage such as type 1 (comprehensive cover), type 2 (third party fire and theft cover) and type 3 (third party cover).

(c) Consider one type of coverage. For example, in type 1 (comprehensive cover) of automobile insurance, states are loss of properties, accidental benefits and third party coverage.

Each agent j in the market has an original risk function $X_j(s)$; the payment caused to j if s is happening. He is buying an exchange function $Y_j(s)$; payment

received by j if s is happening. The notion of price for this purchase is given by a vector

$$\mathbf{p} = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_S)'$$

and

$$\text{Price}[Y_j] = \sum_{s=1}^S p_s Y_j(s).$$

Hence p_s is the price for one unit of conditional money and $\sum_{s=1}^S p_s = 1$.

Definition 2.14. $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n)'$ is a risk exchange (REX) if $\sum_{j=1}^n Y_j(s) = 0$

for all $s = 1, 2, \dots, S$.

2.7.2 Equilibrium Price

Definition 2.15. The pair (\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{Y}) is called in *equilibrium* of the market if

$$(i) \quad \text{For all } j, \sum_{s=1}^S \pi_s u_j \left[w_j - X_j(s) + Y_j(s) - \sum p_s Y_j(s) \right] = \max \text{ for all}$$

possible choices of exchange functions Y_j .

$$(ii) \quad \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j(s) = 0 \text{ for all } s = 1, 2, \dots, S.$$

If condition (i) and (ii) are satisfied, \mathbf{p} is called an *equilibrium price* and \mathbf{Y} is called an *equilibrium risk exchange (REX)*.

The notion of equilibrium price can be extended to an arbitrary probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) where the risk function $X_j(s)$ and exchange function $Y_j(s)$ will be

represented by the random variables $X_j(\omega)$ and $Y_j(\omega)$, $\omega \in \Omega$, respectively. The notion of price is given by a function $\varphi : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and the price $[Y_j]$ is defined by

$$\text{Price } [Y_j] = \int_{\Omega} Y_j(\omega) \varphi(\omega) dP(\omega).$$

Definition 2.16. The pair (Y_j, φ) is called in *equilibrium* if

(i) For all j , $E[u_j(w_j - X_j + Y_j - \text{Price}(Y_j))]$ is a maximum among all possible choices of the exchange variables Y_j and

$$(ii) \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j(\omega) = 0 \text{ for all } \omega \in \Omega.$$

In the equilibrium, Y_j is called *the equilibrium risk exchange* and φ is called *the equilibrium price density*.

2.7.3 Bühlmann's Equilibrium Pricing Model

Definition 2.17. (Bühlmann's equilibrium pricing model).

Each agent j has an exponential utility function

$$u_j(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda_j} [1 - \exp(-\lambda_j x)].$$

So that $u'_j(x) = \exp(-\lambda_j x)$, λ_j stands for the risk aversion and $\frac{1}{\lambda_j}$ stands for the

risk tolerance unit. Then the equilibrium price density satisfies:

$$\varphi_e(\omega) = \frac{e^{(\lambda Z(\omega))}}{E[e^{\lambda Z}]},$$

where $Z(\omega) = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j(\omega)$ is the aggregate risk (the sum of original risk functions in

the market) and λ satisfies

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{\lambda_j}.$$

The parameters λ_j can be seen as *the risk aversion index* of the j^{th} agent.

Lemma 2.6. The equilibrium price for any risk X of Bühlmann's equilibrium pricing model is

$$H_B(X, Z) = \frac{E[Xe^{\lambda Z}]}{E[e^{\lambda Z}]},$$

where $Z(\omega) = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j(\omega)$ is the aggregate risk and λ satisfies

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{\lambda_j}.$$

Proof:

The price of any risk X is

$$\begin{aligned} H_B(X, Z) &:= \text{Price } [X] \\ &= \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) \varphi(\omega) dP(\omega) \\ &= \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) \frac{e^{\lambda Z(\omega)}}{E[e^{\lambda Z}]} dP(\omega) \\ &= \frac{1}{E[e^{\lambda Z}]} \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) e^{\lambda Z(\omega)} dP(\omega) \end{aligned}$$

$$H_B(X, Z) = \frac{1}{E[e^{\lambda Z}]} E[Xe^{\lambda Z}].$$

We conclude that

$$H_B(X, Z) = \frac{E[Xe^{\lambda Z}]}{E[e^{\lambda Z}]}.$$

□

2.8 Wang Transform

Definition 2.18. Let Φ denote the standard normal cumulative distribution function,

i.e., $\Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}s^2} ds$, and let θ be a real valued parameter. By definition, the

Wang transform transforms a CDF $F(x)$ to a function $F^*(x)$:

$$F^*(x) = \Phi[\Phi^{-1}(F(x)) + \theta], \quad (2.9)$$

It is obvious that $F^*(x)$ is also a CDF.

The key parameter θ in the Wang transform of Eq. 2.9 has a positive sign as the random variable X is kept in asset. On the other hand, in the insurance business, a liability of loss variable X is viewed as a negative asset. Thus, the Wang transform of our study has a negative sign in front of θ . That is

$$F^*(x) = \Phi[\Phi^{-1}(F(x)) - \theta], \quad (2.10)$$

where θ is a positive constant that is relevant to the market price of risk.

For a liability with loss variable X , the Wang transform in Eq. 2.9 has an equivalent representation.

$$S^*(x) = \Phi[\Phi^{-1}(S(x)) + \theta], \quad (2.11)$$

where $S(x) = 1 - F(x)$.

Lemma 2.7. For any θ , $S^*(x) = 1 - F^*(x)$. That is, transform Eq. 2.10 and Eq. 2.11 are equivalent.

Proof:

As $S(x) = 1 - F(x)$ and $S^*(x) = \Phi[\Phi^{-1}(S(x)) + \theta]$.

That is,

$$\begin{aligned}
 S^*(x) &= \Phi[\Phi^{-1}(S(x)) + \theta] \\
 &= \Phi[\Phi^{-1}(1 - F(x)) + \theta] \\
 &= \Phi[-\Phi^{-1}(F(x)) + \theta] \\
 &= \Phi[-(\Phi^{-1}(F(x)) - \theta)] \\
 &= 1 - \Phi[(\Phi^{-1}(F(x)) - \theta)] \\
 &= 1 - F^*(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the lemma has been proved. □

Note that above we have used:

$$(1) \quad 1 - \Phi(x) = \Phi(-x)$$

$$(2) \quad \Phi^{-1}(1 - u) = -\Phi^{-1}(u)$$

Lemma 2.8. Let F be the Lognormal cumulative distribution function of a loss X with μ and σ , i.e., $X \sim LN(\mu, \sigma)$. Then the Wang transform F^* is a Lognormal CDF with $\mu + \theta\sigma$ and σ corresponding to some loss X' i.e., $X' \sim LN(\mu + \theta\sigma, \sigma)$.

Proof:

As $X \sim LN(\mu, \sigma)$ then $\frac{\ln X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$.

By the Wang transform, for any constant θ , one has:

$$\begin{aligned}
 F^*(x) &= \Phi\left[\Phi^{-1}(F(x)) - \theta\right] \\
 &= \Phi\left[\Phi^{-1}\left[\Phi\left(\frac{\ln x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)\right] - \theta\right] \\
 &= \Phi\left(\frac{\ln x - \mu}{\sigma} - \theta\right) \\
 &= \Phi\left(\frac{\ln x - \mu - \theta\sigma}{\sigma}\right) \\
 &= \Phi\left(\frac{\ln x - (\mu + \theta\sigma)}{\sigma}\right).
 \end{aligned}$$

The proof is completed, one obtains that

$$\ln X \sim N(\mu + \theta\sigma, \sigma),$$

that is

$$X \sim LN(\mu + \theta\sigma, \sigma).$$

□

CHAPTER III

CLAIM MODELING

In this chapter, the finite mixture of Lognormal distributions is presented for the modeling of insurance claims. The EM algorithm is used to perform a parametric fit of given data to a mixture of Lognormal distributions. We have performed numerical experiments to fit data simulated by mixtures of various loss distributions to finite mixture Lognormal distributions, and also modeled an actual set of insurance claim data to a finite mixture of Lognormal distributions.

We consider individual claim policies, and the claim amount X_i is paid for the i^{th} policy. Some assumptions and restrictions are specified as below.

Assumption 1: (Policy independence): Consider n different policies. Let X_i denote the response for policy i . Then X_1, \dots, X_n are independent.

Assumption 2: Severity losses are non-catastrophic losses.

Assumption 3: There are no deductibles and no reinsurance agreement.

Assumption 4: A recorded claim is equal to an actual claim (observation).

Assumption 5: The loss distributions are skewed to the right.

The right skewness of loss distributions are considered for this study. We assume that the portfolio claim amount is arising from different loss distributions, e.g., the empirical data are generated by mixing of Lognormal, Gamma, Pareto and Weibull distributions. We have performed numerical experiments by simulation, see

section A. 3 of Appendix A for details. The probability density function (PDF) and cumulative distribution function (CDF) of loss distributions are specified in Appendix A.

3.1 Single Parametric Distribution

On the basis of the analyst's knowledge, experience and statistical tests, the Lognormal distribution is our selection for modeling and fitting to the data set. The maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) is used for parameter estimation, as explained below.

3.1.1 The Model

Assume that $X \sim \text{Lognormal}(\mu, \sigma)$, abbreviated $X \sim \text{LN}(\mu, \sigma)$, with density

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{x\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right); \quad \mu \in R, \quad \sigma > 0, \quad x > 0. \quad (3.1)$$

3.1.2 Estimation for the Model

Let a vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)'$ be an independent observation. Consider the amount x_i paid for the i^{th} contract. We fit the Lognormal distribution in Eq. 3.1 to the

data set by MLE. The likelihood function is $L = \prod_{i=1}^n f_X(x_i); \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$

$$\text{Then } \ln L = \ln \prod_{i=1}^n f_X(x_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \ln f_X(x_i)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\ln L &= \sum_{i=1}^n \ln \left[\frac{1}{x_i \sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{(\ln x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[-(\ln \sigma + \ln x_i) - \frac{1}{2} \ln 2\pi - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\ln x_i - \mu)^2 \right].\end{aligned}$$

We estimate $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$ for μ and σ respectively by $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \ln L = 0$ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln L = 0$.

We obtain maximum likelihood estimates for the parameter μ and the parameter σ as follows:

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \ln x_i}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu})^2}{n}}, \text{ respectively.} \quad (3.2)$$

3.2 Finite Mixture Models

Next, second-order and higher-order finite mixture models are considered. In this section, we aim to find the mixing weights according to the number of Lognormal distributions and estimated parameters by the MLE via EM algorithm.

3.2.1 The Model

The PDF of finite mixture Lognormal distributions is

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= \tau_1 f_1(x) + \cdots + \tau_k f_k(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{x\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\tau_1 \frac{1}{\sigma_1} \exp \left(-\frac{(\ln x - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} \right) + \cdots + \tau_k \frac{1}{\sigma_k} \exp \left(-\frac{(\ln x - \mu_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2} \right) \right), \quad (3.3)\end{aligned}$$

$\mu_j \in \mathbb{R}$, $\sigma_j > 0$, $x > 0$, where $0 < \tau_j < 1$ for $j = 1, \dots, k$ and $\tau_1 + \cdots + \tau_k = 1$.

The likelihood function can be written as follows:

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{x_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\tau_1 \frac{1}{\sigma_1} \exp \left(-\frac{(\ln x_i - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} \right) + \dots + \tau_k \frac{1}{\sigma_k} \exp \left(-\frac{(\ln x_i - \mu_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2} \right) \right)$$

and the log-likelihood function is in the form

$$\ln L = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln \left[\sum_{j=1}^k \tau_j \frac{1}{x_i \sqrt{2\pi} \sigma_j} \exp \left(-\frac{(\ln x_i - \mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2} \right) \right].$$

3.2.2 Estimation for the Model

Here, we construct the complete data set which is composed of observed data (incomplete data) and unobservable (latent) data. The EM algorithm is a powerful algorithm for parameter estimation of data arising from mixtures. The details of MLE via EM algorithm are as follows.

Let a sample $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)'$ be observed data to be matched to the mixture of Eq. 3.3 and having a postulated PDF as

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \psi),$$

where ψ is a vector of unknown parameters; $\psi = (\theta, \boldsymbol{\tau})$, $\boldsymbol{\tau} = (\tau_1, \dots, \tau_{k-1})'$ and $\theta = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_k, \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_k)'$.

Let \mathbf{z} be the unobservable data matrix; denoted by

$$\mathbf{z} = (z_{ij}, i = 1, \dots, n; j = 1, \dots, k)$$

The values z_{ij} are indicators defined as

$$z_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{observation } x_i \text{ comes from the distribution } f_j \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

The unobservable matrix \mathbf{z} tell us, where the i^{th} observation x_i comes from.

Let \mathbf{Z} be a random matrix whose realization is the unobservable matrix \mathbf{z} .

Let $k(\mathbf{z} | \psi, \mathbf{x})$ denote the conditional PDF of the unobserved data and define the PDF as

$$k(\mathbf{z} | \psi, \mathbf{x}) = t_{ij},$$

where

$$t_{ij} = \frac{\tau_j f_j(x_i | \mu_j, \sigma_j)}{\sum_{j=1}^k \tau_j f_j(x_i | \mu_j, \sigma_j)} = \frac{\tau_j f_j(x_i | \mu_j, \sigma_j)}{f(x_i)}.$$

Note that t_{ij} is the probability of the i^{th} observation coming from the j^{th} component.

We obtain that

$$E(Z_{ij} | \mathbf{x}) = P(Z_{ij} = 1 | \mathbf{x}) = t_{ij}.$$

Assume that \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Z} are independent. Then the complete likelihood takes form;

$$L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{j=1}^k \left[\tau_j \frac{1}{x_i \sqrt{2\pi\sigma_j}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln x_i - \mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right) \right]^{z_{ij}}.$$

The complete log-likelihood function is

$$\begin{aligned} \ln L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) &= \ln \left[\prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{j=1}^k \left[\tau_j \frac{1}{x_i \sqrt{2\pi\sigma_j}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln x_i - \mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right) \right]^{z_{ij}} \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k \ln \left[\tau_j \frac{1}{x_i \sqrt{2\pi\sigma_j}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln x_i - \mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right) \right]^{z_{ij}} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k z_{ij} \ln \left[\tau_j \frac{1}{x_i \sqrt{2\pi\sigma_j}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln x_i - \mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right) \right] \end{aligned}$$

We obtain that

$$\ln L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k z_{ij} \left[\ln \tau_j - \ln x_i - \ln \sigma_j - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_j^2} (\ln x_i - \mu_j)^2 \right]. \quad (3.4)$$

Note that: $\psi = (\theta, \boldsymbol{\tau})$, $\boldsymbol{\tau} = (\tau_1, \dots, \tau_{k-1})'$ and $\theta = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_k, \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_k)'$.

For each k components, there are $3k - 1$ unknown parameters that will be estimated by the EM algorithm. We use a computer for the calculation of the parameters and visualization as a way to see its modeling. The proper number of components to be included in the mixture model will be considered.

Expectation Step (E-step):

Replacing z_{ij} in Eq. 3.4 by its expected value, \hat{t}_{ij} , yields the expected complete log-likelihood,

$$E[\ln L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{t}_{ij} \left[\ln \tau_j - \ln x_i - \ln \sigma_j - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_j^2} (\ln x_i - \mu_j)^2 \right], \quad (3.5)$$

where \hat{t}_{ij} is the estimated value of t_{ij} .

Note that: t_{ij} is given by

$$t_{ij} = P(Z_{ij} = 1 | X_i = x_i, \psi) = \frac{\tau_j f_j(x_i | \mu_j, \sigma_j)}{\sum_{j=1}^k \tau_j f_j(x_i | \mu_j, \sigma_j)} = \frac{\tau_j f_j(x_i | \mu_j, \sigma_j)}{f(x_i)}.$$

Maximization Step (M-step):

We maximize Eq. 3.5 to estimate ψ . Firstly, we solve the first order condition:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau_j} E[\ln L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})] = 0,$$

with constraint

$$\tau_1 + \dots + \tau_k = 1.$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau_j} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{t}_{ij} \left[\ln \tau_j - \ln x_i - \ln \sigma_j - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_j^2} (\ln x_i - \mu_j)^2 \right] = 0.$$

Without loss of generality (w.l.g.), we consider

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau_j} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{t}_{ij} [\ln \tau_j] = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau_j} \left[\sum_{j=1}^k \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij} \right) \ln \tau_j \right] = 0.$$

This has the same form as the MLE for the multinomial distribution, for details see multinomial distribution and MLE in Appendix B. We get that

$$\hat{\tau}_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}}{\sum_{j=1}^k \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij} \right)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \hat{t}_{ij} \right)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}. \quad (3.6)$$

Secondly, we solve the equation $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} E[\ln L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})] = 0$ for estimated parameters

of $\theta_j = (\mu_j, \sigma_j)$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$.

Consider $\theta_1 = (\mu_1, \sigma_1)$.

We will estimate θ_1 by solving;

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_1} E[\ln L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})] = 0 \text{ and } \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma_1} E[\ln L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})] = 0.$$

Note that the relation $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_1} E[\ln L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})] = 0$ and equation (3.6) imply

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{t}_{ij} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_j} \left[\ln \tau_j - \ln x_i - \ln \sigma_j - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_j^2} (\ln x_i - \mu_j)^2 \right] = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_1} \left[\ln \tau_1 - \ln x_i - \ln \sigma_1 - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2} (\ln x_i - \mu_1)^2 \right] = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1} (\ln x_i - \mu_1) = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1} \ln x_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1} \mu_1 = 0$$

$$\hat{\mu}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1} \ln x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1}}.$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma_1} E[\ln L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})] = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{t}_{ij} \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma_1} \left[\ln \tau_j - \ln x_i - \ln \sigma_j - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_j^2} (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu}_j)^2 \right] = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1} \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma_1} \left[\ln \tau_1 - \ln x_i - \ln \sigma_1 - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2} (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu}_1)^2 \right] = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1} \left[-\frac{1}{\sigma_1} + \frac{1}{\sigma_1^3} (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu}_1)^2 \right] = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1} \left[-1 + \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu}_1)^2 \right] = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1} (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu}_1)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_1 = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1} (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu}_1)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{i1}}} .$$

Similarly, one can show that

$$\hat{\mu}_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij} \ln x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\sigma}_j = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij} (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu}_j)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}}}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, k.$$

In summary, we obtain that

$$\hat{\tau}_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}, \quad \hat{\mu}_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij} \ln x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\sigma}_j = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij} (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu}_j)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}}};$$

$j = 1, 2, \dots, k$.

Note that the expected complete log-likelihood function is given by

$$E[\ln L_c(\psi | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{t}_{ij} \left[\ln \tau_j - \ln x_i - \ln \sigma_j - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_j^2} (\ln x_i - \mu_j)^2 \right].$$

For a given set of parameters ψ , i.e. $\hat{\theta}_j = (\hat{\mu}_j, \hat{\sigma}_j)$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$ and

$\hat{\boldsymbol{\tau}} = (\hat{\tau}_1, \dots, \hat{\tau}_{k-1})'$, the E-step consists of calculating \hat{t}_{ij} and $\hat{\tau}_j$ for M-step. Given

$\hat{\tau}_j$, the M-step consists of maximizing the expected complete log-likelihood function.

The E-step and M-step are repeated in an alternating fashion until the expected complete log-likelihood fails to increase. At this point, we conduct a final M-step in which the set of parameters ψ is estimated. Otherwise, we return to the E-step for the next iteration. In the final step after the m^{th} iteration, the EM algorithm is produced as below:

E-step: Given our current estimation of the parameters $\psi^{(m)}$ after the m^{th} iteration. Thus the E-step results in the function:

$$Q(\psi | \psi^{(m)}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{t}_{ij}^{(m)} \left[\ln \hat{\tau}_j^{(m)} - \ln x_i - \ln \hat{\sigma}_j^{(m)} - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2\hat{\sigma}_j^{(m)2}} (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu}_j^{(m)})^2 \right]. \quad (3.7)$$

M-step: Maximizing ψ . That is

$$\hat{\tau}^{(m+1)} = \arg \max_{\tau} Q(\psi | \psi^{(m)}) \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\theta}^{(m+1)} = \arg \max_{\theta} Q(\psi | \psi^{(m)}).$$

By taking partial derivative Eq. 3.7 with respect to ψ and by equating to zero, one gets

$$\hat{\tau}_j^{(m+1)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}^{(m)}, \quad \hat{\mu}_j^{(m+1)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}^{(m)} \ln x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}^{(m)}}$$

and

$$\hat{\sigma}_j^{m+1} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}^{(m)} (\ln x_i - \hat{\mu}_j^{(m)})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{t}_{ij}^{(m)}}}.$$

Note that $\left| \frac{Q(\psi | \psi^{(m+1)}) - Q(\psi | \psi^{(m)})}{Q(\psi | \psi^{(m)})} \right| \leq 10^{-3}$ is applied for our programming.

3.3 Bootstrap Technique

We are interested in the bootstrap sample for observation and residual. We shall recalculate the estimated parameters of the Lognormal distribution by using the bootstrap technique and MLE. One advantage of the bootstrap technique is that we can calculate as many replications of the sample as we want.

3.3.1 Observation Bootstrap

Define

$$\mathbf{x}^* = (x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_n^*)'. \quad (3.8)$$

The bootstrap data points $x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_n^*$ are a random sample of size n with replacement from the observation of n objects $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)'$. Then we recalculate the estimated parameters, $\hat{\mu}^*$ and $\hat{\sigma}^*$, by MLE based on \mathbf{x}^* .

3.3.2 Residual Bootstrap

There are many forms of the residual definition and it is important to use an appropriate residual definition for the determination of each problem. We have already run trials with some forms of residual definitions, such as the unscaled Pearson residual and the unscaled Anscombe residual, but these forms of residual proved not suitable for our data. Instead, we consider the residual form $\hat{\mu}$, that is, we define the form of the residual as follows.

$$\varepsilon_i = \ln x_i - \hat{\mu},$$

where ε_i is the residual ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n$) and $\hat{\mu}$ comes from Eq. 3.2.

Let $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = (\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \dots, \varepsilon_n)'$ and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^* = (\varepsilon_1^*, \varepsilon_2^*, \dots, \varepsilon_n^*)'$ be the resample residual.

By using the bootstrap technique, we obtain a resample $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^*$ and the bootstrap data samples

$$\ln x_i^* = \varepsilon_i^* + \hat{\mu} ; i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \quad (3.9)$$

We recalculate the estimated parameters, $\hat{\mu}^*$ and $\hat{\sigma}^*$ by MLE based on $\ln x_i^*$,
 $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

3.4 Goodness of Fit Test

The goodness of fit (GOF) test measures the compatibility of a random sample with a theoretical probability distribution function. We use the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (*K-S* test) and the Anderson-Darling test (*A-D* test) for showing how well the distribution fits our data set.

The *K-S* test is used to decide if a sample comes from a hypothesized continuous distribution. It is based on the empirical cumulative distribution function (ECDF) and denoted by

$$F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} [\text{Number of observations} \leq x].$$

The *K-S* test statistic is defined by

$$D = \sup_x \left| F_n(x) - F_X^*(x) \right|.$$

The *A-D* test is a general test to compare the fit of an observed cumulative distribution function to an expected cumulative distribution function. This test gives more weight to the tails than the *K-S* test.

The *A-D* test statistic is defined as

$$A^2 = -n - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (2i-1) \left[\ln F_X^*(x_i) + \ln (1 - F_X^*(x_{n-i+1})) \right],$$

where F_X^* is the theoretical cumulative distribution of the distribution being tested.

The test, for both *K-S* and *A-D*, is defined by:

H_0 : The data follow the specified distribution.

H_1 : The data do not follow the specified distribution.

Level critical values: The hypothesis regarding the distributional form is rejected at the chosen significance level (alpha, α) if the test statistic, D and A^2 , is greater than the critical value obtained from Appendix A, Table A.4 and Table A.5 for D and A^2 , respectively. On the other hand, we can calculate the P -value and interpret the result of hypothesis test. The interpretation of the P -value is given in Table A.6 of Appendix A.

3.5 The Simulation

We assume that the insurance portfolio is heterogeneous, due to variability in the parameters and distributions, and thus cannot be fitted to any single parametric distribution. For this reason, we have performed numerical experiments matching simulated data to finite mixtures of Lognormal distribution. The simulated heterogeneous data was generated by applying various combinations of loss distributions. The programming for this study is in MATLAB.

The data is generated by simulations that are under the following assumptions.

1) Sample size

n : 100, 300, 500, 800 and 1,000 for 2 and 4 mixed components.

n : 150, 300, 600, 900 and 1,200 for 3 mixed components.

2) The empirical data

2.1) The loss distributions: Lognormal, Gamma, Pareto and Weibull.

2.2) The empirical data: The x_i is simulated by loss distributions, due to variability in the parameters and distributions as detailed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 The variability of mixed components.

Components	Variability	
	Parameters	Distributions
2	Lognormal	Lognormal/Gamma
	Gamma	Lognormal/Pareto
	Pareto	Lognormal/Weibull
	Weibull	Gamma/Pareto
		Gamma/Weibull Pareto /Weibull
3	Lognormal	Lognormal/Gamma/Weibull
	Gamma	Gamma/Weibull/Pareto
	Pareto	Weibull/Pareto/Lognormal
	Weibull	
4	-	Lognormal/Gamma/Weibull/Pareto

The proportion of mixing is the same for each component mixed. The empirical data are simulated according to assumed parameters for each component mixed, see the imposed parameters for details in Table A.1, Table A.2 and Table A.3 of appendix A. The simulations span 90 cases.

2.3) The compound Poisson-mixed loss distributions: the frequency distribution is Poisson and the severity distributions are loss distributions. For $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, the claim X_i occurs at time t_i and is to be discounted at time zero with the risk free of interest rate j per annum. The claim amount at time zero is defined by

$$X_i^* = X_i (1 + j)^{-t_i}.$$

The j are assumed as 0.5%, 1% , 2%, 3%, 4% and 5% per annum.

3) The model of finite mixture distributions

The models for fitting to the empirical data is the finite mixture of Lognormal distributions. The k components depend on the sample size n . The total number of calculated components is 752 for 2, 3 and 4 components are 410, 301 and 41 cases, respectively. The single parametric distribution of Lognormal is used as a control to compare how well the finite mixture Lognormal distributions perform.

4) The bootstrap

The bootstrap process is a tool for fitting and it is not complicated to implement. We apply the bootstrap technique to reproduce pseudo data; reproduce from empirical data, then recalculate the estimated parameters by MLE and compare to the finite mixture Lognormal distributions.

The simulations run 200 iterations for the best solution that provide the estimated parameters for model fitting. That is, the average of estimated parameters are rather stable as the number of iterations is 200 times.

$$\left| \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{200} \hat{\mu}_t}{200} - \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{199} \hat{\mu}_t}{199} \right| \leq 10^{-4} \quad \text{and} \quad \left| \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{200} \hat{\sigma}_t}{200} - \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{199} \hat{\sigma}_t}{199} \right| \leq 10^{-4}.$$

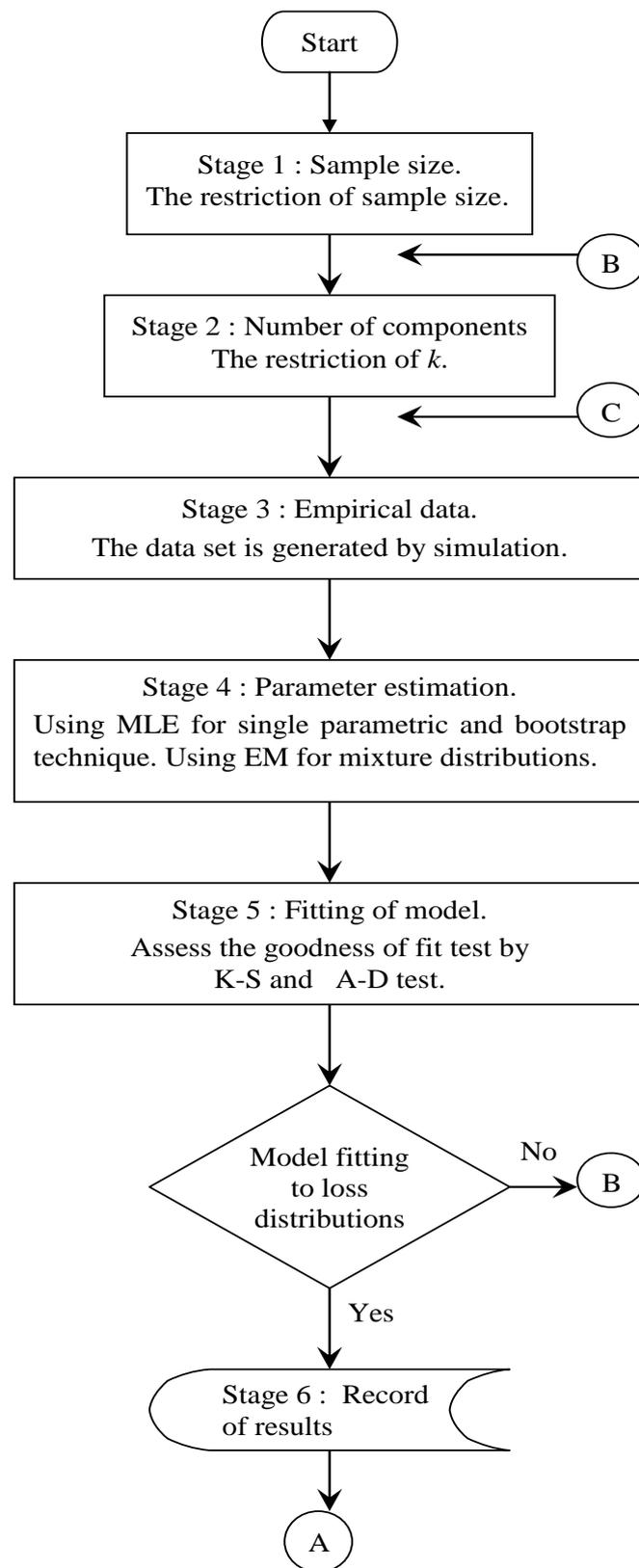


Figure 3.1 Flowchart of the claim modeling process.

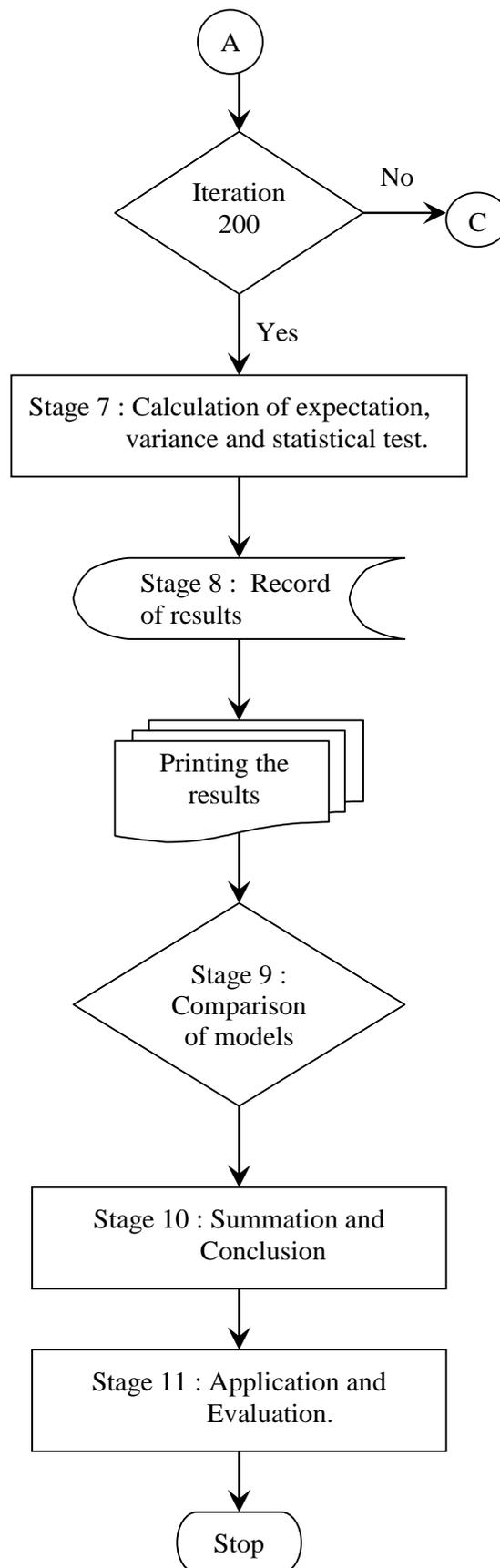


Figure 3.1 Flowchart of the claim modeling process (Continued).

3.6 Simulation Results

The purpose of claim modeling is to investigate the k components and summarize what kind of mixed loss data can be fitted by the finite mixture of Lognormal distributions. The empirical data is simulated by mixed components of loss distributions; Lognormal, Gamma, Pareto and Weibull distributions. The methodologies for parameter estimation are the MLE for single parametric Lognormal distribution and the EM for finite mixture Lognormal distributions. The statistical test for model fitting are $K-S$ and $A-D$ test. Some symbols are defined for easier explanation.

EMD means the empirical data which are simulated by mixed components of loss distributions.

EDP means the empirical data of discounted compound Poisson-mixed loss distributions with interest rate j per annum.

SPLD means the fitting of single parametric Lognormal distribution to EMD.

SPLD with Boot means the fitting of single parametric Lognormal distribution to the EMD with the bootstrap technique.

DCP means the fitting of single parametric Lognormal distribution to the EDP.

$P-AS$ means P -value based on $A-D$ test

$P-KS$ means P -value based on $K-S$ test

We analyze and present the value of A^2 , D , $P-AS$, $P-KS$, $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$ on tables.

The results are shown as the following tables.

Tables 3.2 - 3.20 show the values of A^2 , D , $P-AS$, $P-KS$, $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$ of SPLD, SPLD with Boot and DCP for each sample size.

The results: For SPLD, the single parametric Lognormal distribution cannot be fitted to any EMD by $A-D$ and $K-S$ test. The SPLD with Boot, the single parametric Lognormal distribution is fitted to some sample sizes of EMD respective to $K-S$ test only. The DCP, the single parametric Lognormal distribution cannot be fitted to any EDP by $A-D$ and $K-S$ test. For each sample size, the value of A^2 and D are mostly reduced when interest rate j increases.

Tables 3.21 - 3.39 show the values of A^2 , D , $P-AS$ and $P-KS$ of finite mixture Lognormal distributions for fitting in each sample size. The results show that the finite mixture Lognormal distributions can be fitted to EMD at a significant level of $\alpha = 0.10$, for both $K-S$ and $A-D$ test. The mixture Lognormal distributions are a better fit to the EMD while k is increased.

