

2018 Predictive Analytics Symposium

Session 26: AP - Assessing Credibility of Predictive Model

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Assessing credibility of predictive models

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Introduction



Agenda

1. Pleased to meet you
2. Define key terms
3. Predictive model validation
4. Useful statistical techniques:
 - a. Linear mixed effects models
 - b. Elastic net regularized (“penalized”) models
 - c. Limited fluctuation application to GLMs (if time!)
5. Questions and discussion
6. Github repository:

https://github.com/milliman/SOA_PAS_CrediblePredictiveModels

Definitions



Credibility

ASOP 25:

- *A measure of the predictive value in a given application that the actuary attaches to a particular set of data (predictive is used here in the **statistical sense** and not in the sense of predicting the future).*
- *In [predictive models], credibility can be estimated based on the **statistical significance** of parameter estimates, model performance on a holdout data set, or the consistency of either of these measures over time.*

“Statistical sense” and “statistical significance” suggest a focus on data *quantity*

Credibility

ASOP 25:

- *A measure of the predictive value in a given application that the actuary attaches to a particular set of data (predictive is used here in the statistical sense and not in the sense of predicting the future).*
- *In [predictive models], credibility can be estimated based on the statistical significance of parameter estimates, **model performance on a holdout data set**, or the consistency of either of these measures over time.*

Other credibility considerations

Data integrity

- Large set of bad data worse than small set of bad data
- See: ASOP 23

Predictive model appropriateness

- Various methods will lead to various sets of “credible” predictions. Is one method most appropriate?

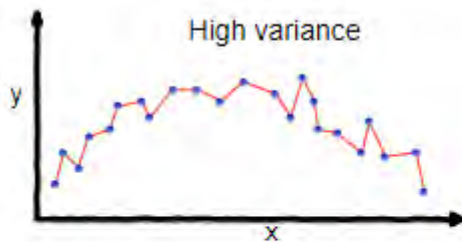
Bias-variance tradeoff

- Minimize this: $E \left[\left(y - \hat{f}(x) \right)^2 \right]$
$$= \left(E[\hat{f}(x) - f(x)] \right)^2 + \left(E[\hat{f}(x)^2] - E[\hat{f}(x)]^2 \right) + \text{Var}(y)$$

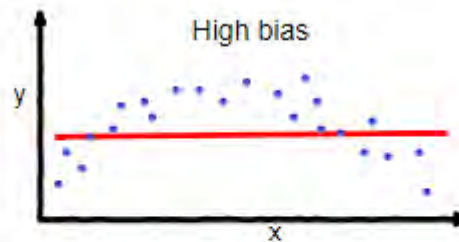
$$= \textit{bias}^2 + \textit{(model) variance} + \textit{random error}$$
- A model complexity tradeoff between over- and under-fitting...between bias and variance.

Bias-variance breakdown

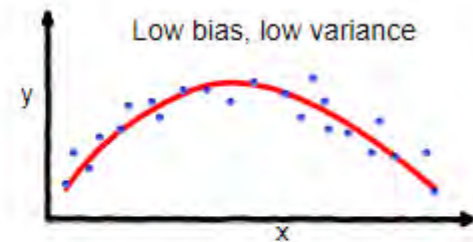
- The goal is to find the sweet spot; balance bias and variance so that overall error is low
 - Separate the signal from the noise effectively



overfitting



underfitting



Good balance

<https://towardsdatascience.com/understanding-the-bias-variance-tradeoff-165e6942b229>

Tabular model

- Data are segmented by a few dimensions, average outcomes are calculated in each segment
- Note that this *is* a predictive model
- Bias-variance tradeoff: Low-bias, high-variance

Attained age	Sex	Smoker	q
...			
65	M	S	0.010
65	M	N	0.005
65	F	S	0.008
65	F	N	0.004
66	M	S	0.011
...			

Predictive model*

- A model with the ability to consolidate segments by identifying patterns between covariates and the outcome variable
- Can control model complexity more easily; can control bias-variance tradeoff
- Including (but not limited to):
 - Linear regression
 - Regularization and mixed effects
 - Bayesian models
 - Decision trees (and ensembles thereof)
 - Support vector machines
 - Neural networks

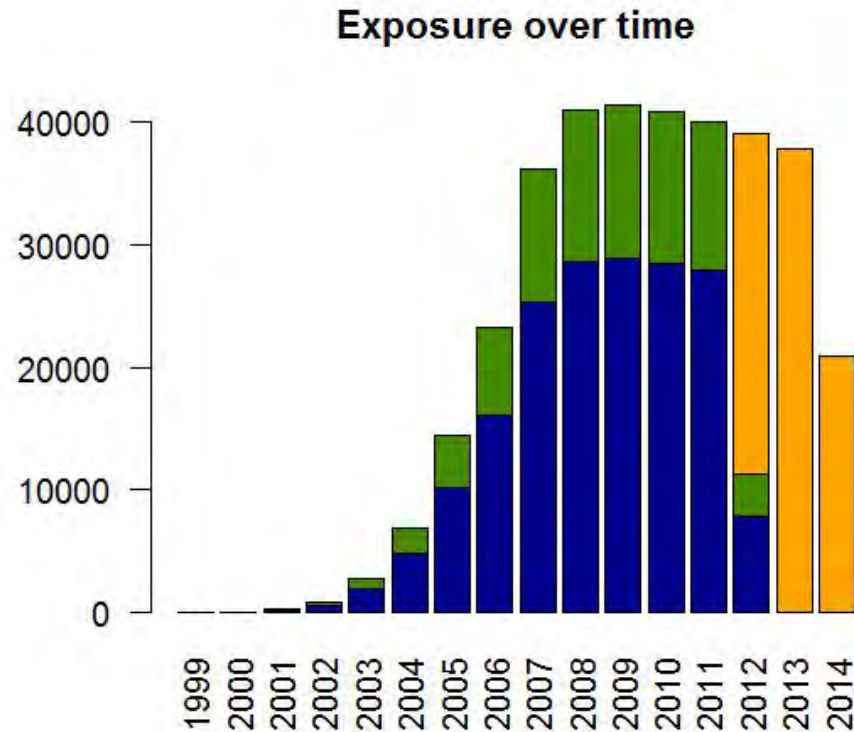
A credible predictive model

1. The data are adequately cleaned and reviewed for reasonableness
2. The data are plentiful enough to generate confident predictions across a useful range of relevant dimensions
3. The predictive modeling method used is able to optimize the bias-variance tradeoff
 - Validation: use of holdout datasets to test goodness of fit
 - Consistency of parameter estimates and validation over time

Model validation

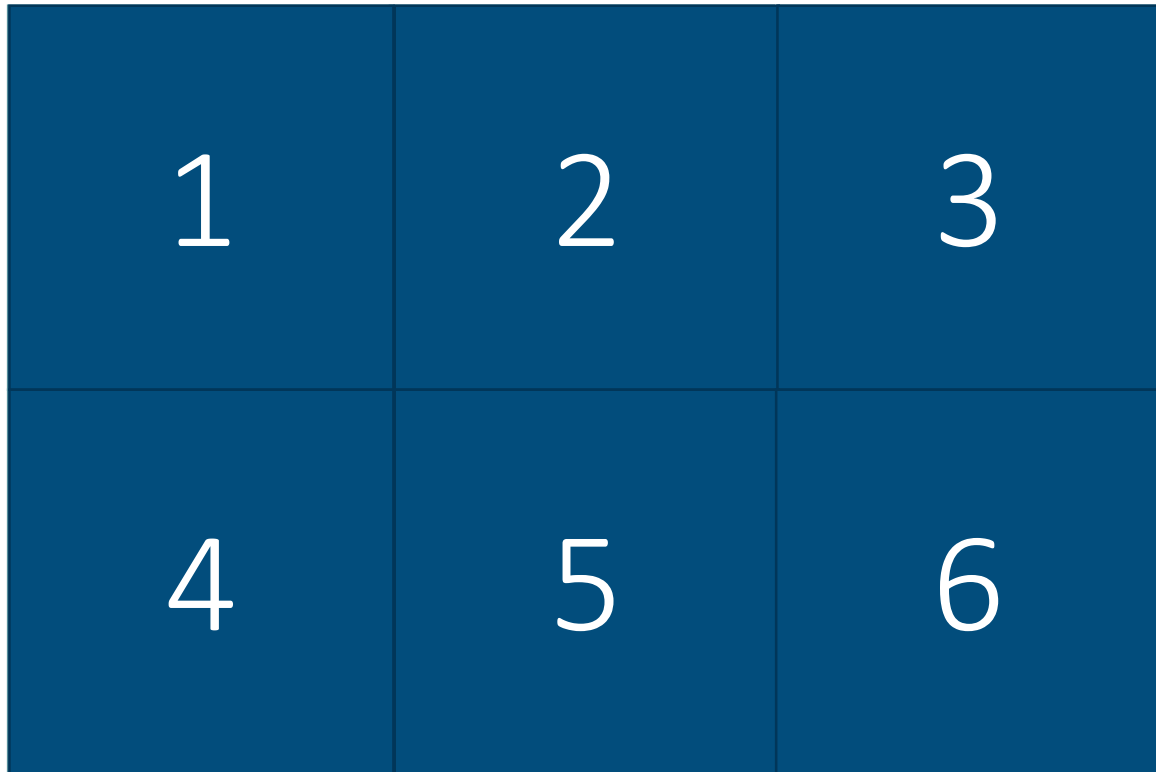


Training versus holdout data



Cross-validation

- Useful for smaller datasets



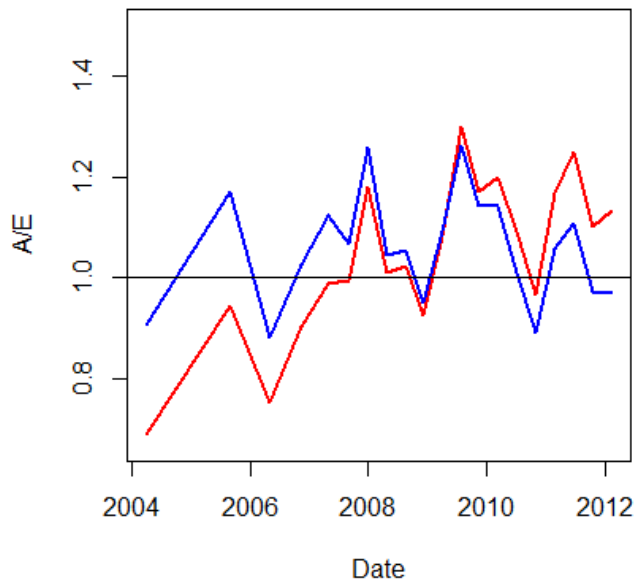
Model fit

- R^2
- Log-likelihood/AIC/BIC
- Actual-to-expected plots
 - Two-way lift charts
- Area under the ROC curve

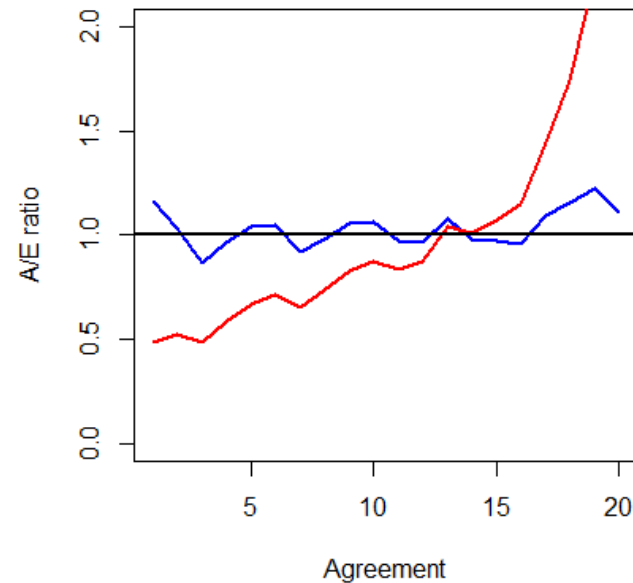
Model comparison: Lift charts

- Actual-to-expected
- Two-way lift

A/E Plot

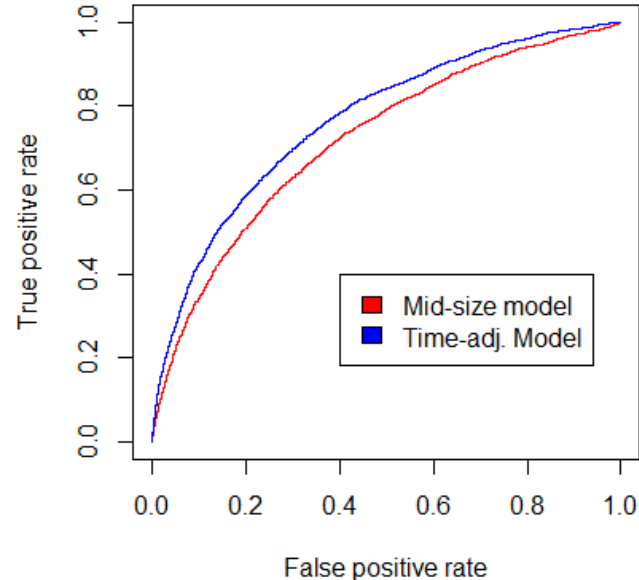


Two-way Lift Plot



Area under the curve (AUC)

- The curve here is the relationship of the true positive rate and false positive rate as the positive/negative threshold moves from 0 to 1



Linear mixed effects



Linear mixed effects models

- Model parameters can be fit as a random effects, which allows for some family-wise shrinkage
- Coefficients that are fit based on “small sample sizes” are shrunk toward zero
 - Similar to regularization in its goal
- “lme4” package in R has a relatively efficient algorithm for such fits

Linear mixed effects model (LMM)

Case study:

- A company uses many distinct distributors, but not a lot of exposure for many of the distributors. It would like to generate “credible” surrender predictions for policyholders, *taking distributor into account*.
- Many distributors will have limited exposure in the datasets
- GLMs struggle with fixed effects where either 0% or 100% of the observations recorded an event

LMM data and model

Data:

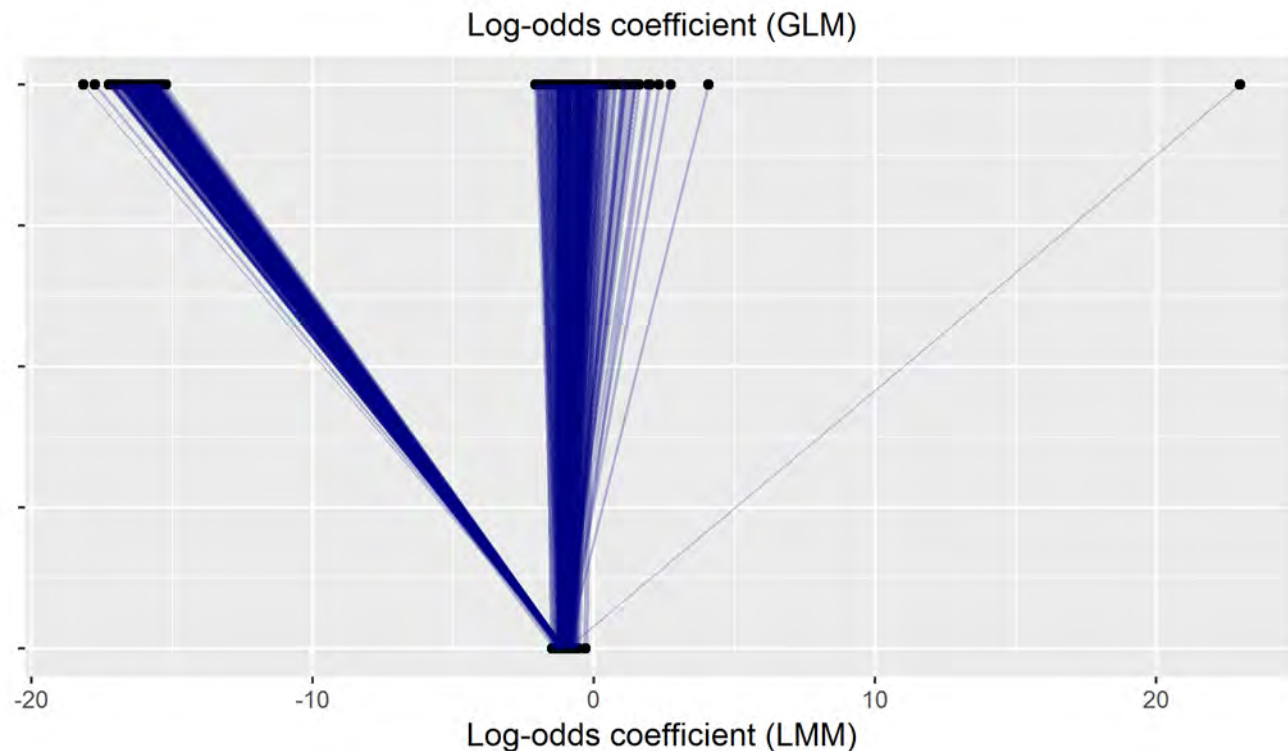
- 50,000 observations from 10,000 policyholders, undersampled to produce a 2% quarterly surrender rate.

Model:

- Probability of surrender (Surr) is a function of **moneyness** of the guarantee (ITM), **duration** (q), the **surrender charge phase** (IN, OUT), and **distributor** (DistCode)
- GLM
 - $\text{Surr} \sim \text{IN} + \text{Dur_IN} + \text{ITM:Dur_IN} + \text{Dur_OUT} + \text{ITM:Dur_OUT} + \text{DistCode}$
- LMM
 - $\text{Surr} \sim \text{IN} + \text{Dur_IN} + \text{ITM:Dur_IN} + \text{Dur_OUT} + \text{ITM:Dur_OUT} + (1 \mid \text{DistCode})$

LMM continued

Fixed distributor effects from the GLM are shrunk to more credible random effects in the LMM:



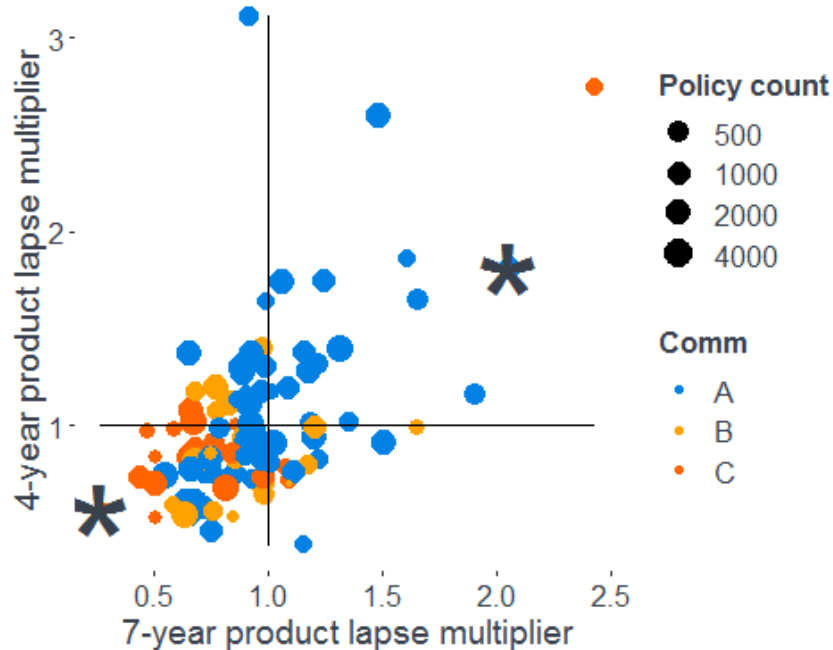
LMM interpretation

- Coefficient comparison: Even with shrinkage, we get differentiation of distributors
 - More than 3x surrender rates from maximum effect to minimum
 - More than 1.5x surrender rates across middle 95%
- Model comparison:
 - LMM fits much better than GLM on holdout dataset (not including DistCode)

LMM credibility

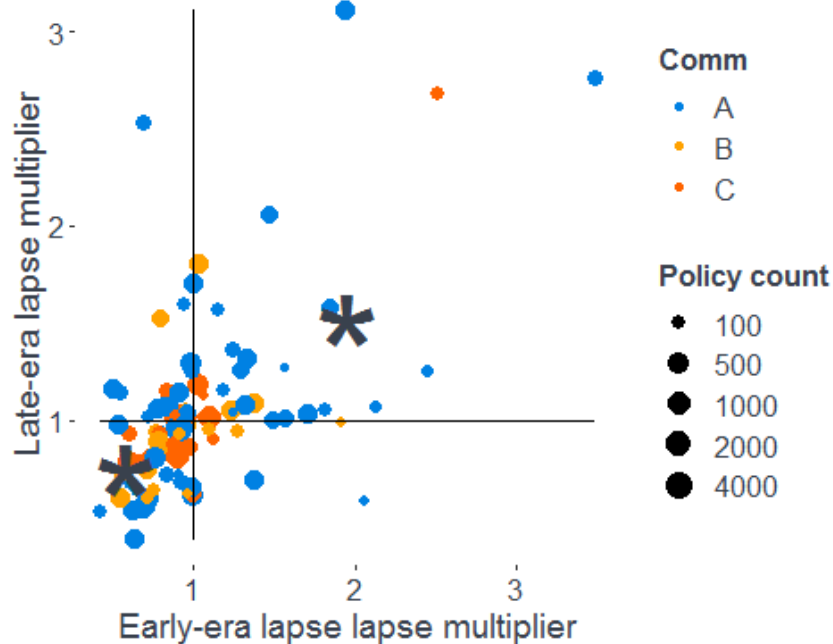
- We were able to arrive at more credible surrender predictions by distributor...
- ...and more credible estimates of the effects of each distributor
- What makes the predictions credible overall?
 - The random effects process
 - Performance on a holdout dataset, and the consistency thereof over time (ASOP 25)
- What can we do with these models?!

Consistency across product



- We observe consistent effects by distributor across products (4- and 7-year SC products).
- These effects can help explain periodic variations in observed lapse behavior.
- This framework can identify anti-selective commission elections and quantify the cost of these behaviors.

Consistency across issue era



- We observe consistent distributor effects across issue eras.
- This framework can provide insights to inform policy recommendations around financial advice and sales/marketing practices.
- Example: Explore effects of proposed DOL rules by strategically setting issue era split dates; if rules were implemented

Regularization with offset



Using offset as “credibility target”

What is an offset?

- A covariate that is constrained to have a coefficient of 1
- Like a null hypothesis

How is it implemented?

- Input as a vector in most R model functions
- **Should be in units of the prediction**

What can it do for us?

- Input some known credible assumptions as an offset to serve as a credibility target

Regularization with offset

- Additional constraints (“penalties”) on the model coefficients
- Set the offset to some “credibility target”
 - The offset effectively forces the model to identify regions where the data stray from the null hypothesis
- The coefficient constraints serve as a credibility weighting method
- Where data are scarce, the model will be weighted heavily toward the offset

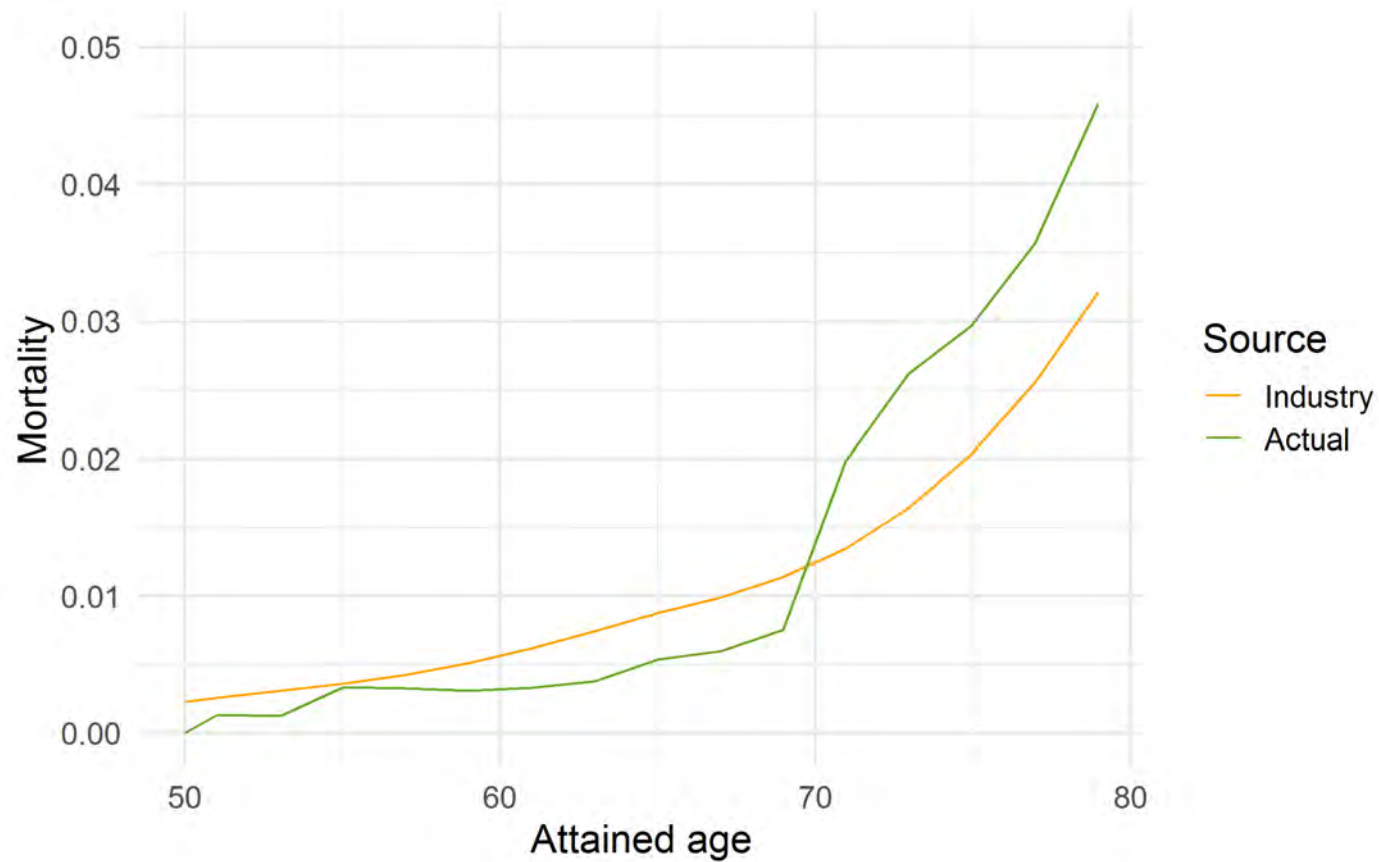
Logistic regression offset

- $\ln\left(\frac{\hat{q}}{1-\hat{q}}\right) = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \cdots + \widehat{\beta}_p x_p + 1 \cdot \text{offset}$
- Observation i has prescribed mortality of $q_i = 0.01$
- $\ln\left(\frac{q_i}{1-q_i}\right) = \ln\left(\frac{0.01}{0.99}\right) = -4.595$

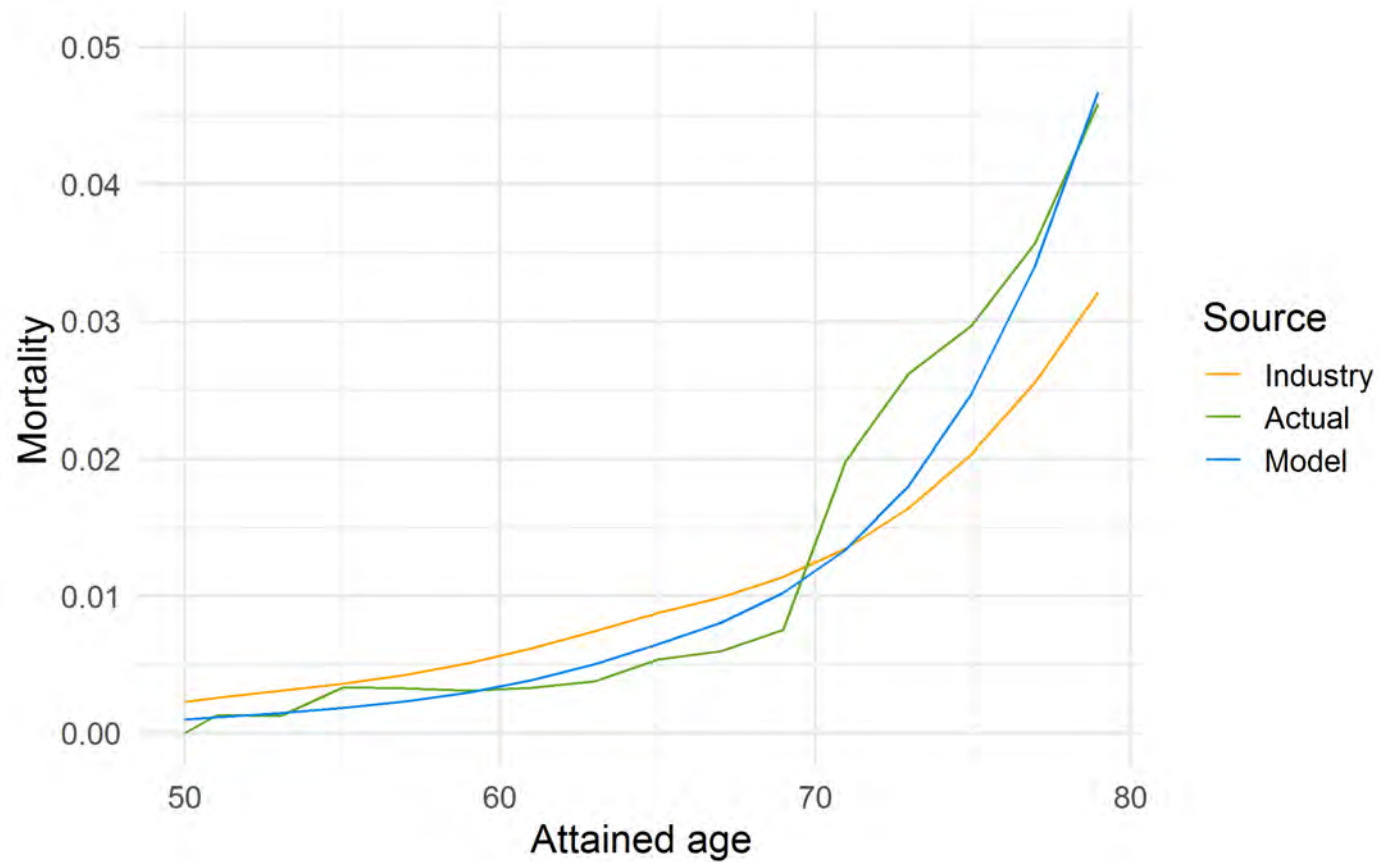
Regularization details

- Penalties:
 - GLM: maximize(log-likelihood)
 - Lasso: maximize(log-likelihood - $\lambda \sum |\beta_j|$)
 - Ridge: maximize(log-likelihood - $\lambda \sum \beta_j^2$)
- Requires standardized covariates because the value of the coefficient is part of the penalty
- “glmnet” package in R

Case study: VA mortality



Case study: VA mortality



Limited fluctuation credibility



Limited fluctuation credibility (LFC)

- More credible when the probability of proportionally small errors (k) is large ($1 - \alpha$)
 - $P(|\bar{X} - \mu| < k\mu) > 1 - \alpha$
- For an observed cell, probability distribution typically comes from Central Limit Theorem
- We often look for at least 1,082 events in a cell for “full credibility.” Where does 1,082 come from?

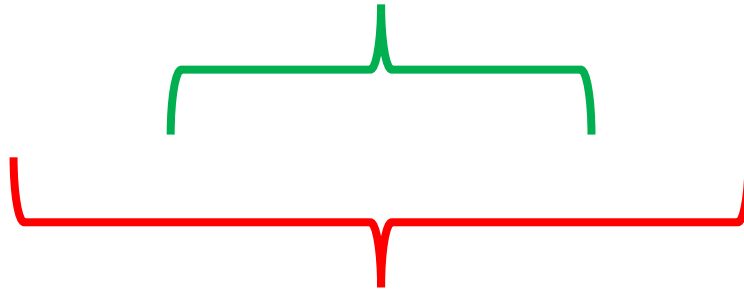
1,082 derivation (proportions)

- Recall: $\mu = q$; $\sigma^2 = \frac{q(1-q)}{n}$
- Work through some algebra and probability theory:
 1. $P(|\hat{q} - q| < kq) > 1 - \alpha$
 2. $P\left(\left|\frac{\hat{q}-q}{\sqrt{\frac{q(1-q)}{n}}}\right| < \frac{kq}{\sqrt{\frac{q(1-q)}{n}}}\right) > 1 - \alpha$
 3. $P\left(|Z| < \frac{k\sqrt{nq}}{\sqrt{1-q}}\right) > 1 - \alpha$
 4. $nq > \left(\frac{Z_{\alpha}}{k}\right)^2 \cdot (1 - q)$
 5. Choose $k = 5\%$ and $1 - \alpha = 90\%$
 6. $nq > \left(\frac{1.645}{0.05}\right)^2 (1 - q) = 1,082.4(1 - q)$ and $1 - q$ is typically very close to 1

LFC using confidence intervals

$$3. P\left(|Z| < \frac{k\sqrt{nq}}{\sqrt{1-q}}\right) > 1 - \alpha \Rightarrow 4. \mathbf{Z}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\hat{q}(1-\hat{q})}{n}} \leq k \cdot \hat{q}$$

Width of confidence interval: $2 \cdot \mathbf{Z}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\hat{q}(1-\hat{q})}{n}}$



Width of error tolerance interval: $2 \cdot k \cdot \hat{q}$

LFC with a GLM

- GLM coefficients (and thus predictions) have approximate normal distributions, with variances derived from the variance-covariance matrix
- Compare GLM prediction confidence interval to an error tolerance interval to determine full credibility
- All can be done in base R

<https://www.soa.org/globalassets/assets/library/newsletters/predictive-analytics-and-futurism/2017/december/2017-predictive-analytics-newsletter-issue-16.pdf>

LFC with a GLM pros and cons

Pros

- Follows from commonly used credibility method
- GLMs are interpretable and commonly used

Cons

- No obvious weighting scheme for predictions with less than full credibility

- $Weight = "Z" = \sqrt{\frac{n}{n^*}}$

Lightning round: things to consider



Things to consider

1. If underlying distribution changes over time, are you relying on a consistency that doesn't actually exist?
 - E.g. rising interest rate scenario
 - Mortality: improvement, cure shocks, etc.
2. Weighting recent data vs. distant past data
3. Thresholds for data cleanliness
4. What proportion of deriving credible estimates should be qualitative?

Bayesian model (MCMC)

- Modeler declares model parameters, their prior distributions, and their likelihood functions
- “Coefficients” are represented by posterior distributions, derived from sampling the data and Bayes’ theorem
- “rstan” package in R

“Bayesian inference in Machine Learning”

<https://www.soa.org/Library/Newsletters/Predictive-Analytics-and-Futurism/2017/june/2017-predictive-analytics-newsletter-issue-15.pdf>

Bayesian model pros and cons

Pros

- Flexible model specification
- Priors are an intuitive form of “credible targets”
- Produces full distributions of parameters (coefficients)

Cons

- Computationally intensive
- Steeper learning curve: specifying the model, priors, and likelihood functions can be an involved process

Questions

Thank you!

