

CHAIN LADDER AND INTERACTIVE MODELLING (CLAIMS RESERVING AND GLIM)

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1. MOTIVATION

The prediction of outstanding claims amounts in non-life insurance is, by its very nature, highly speculative. Partially because of this and partially because of the variety of features suggested by various researchers for possible inclusion in the structure of the underlying prediction model, the past two decades have seen a proliferation of methodologies for making such predictions. Specific details of these developments are contained in a comprehensive and highly detailed survey conducted by Taylor (1986)⁽¹⁰⁾ in which a taxonomy of methods is established. One feature common to all of these methods is the utilization of current and past records of claims amounts—invariably in the form of the familiar so-called run-off triangle or a variant thereof—to calibrate the proposed prediction model before use. Prudence dictates that diagnostic checks should then be made to establish whether or not the data are supportive of the structure imparted to the prediction model before use, a feature which apart from some notable exceptions including Zehnwrith (1985)⁽¹⁴⁾ and Taylor (1983),⁽⁸⁾ is not always emphasized in the literature.

Our purpose is not to add to the existing plethora of methodologies but rather to return to the grass roots of the subject by exploring more fully the statistical setting for the basic chain-ladder and related techniques. Essentially a deterministic technique, see for example Hossack *et al.* (1983),⁽⁵⁾ it was left to Kremer (1982)⁽⁶⁾ to point out that the mathematical structure underpinning the chain-ladder technique is identical to that of the linear statistical model involving a log response variable regressing on two non-interactive convariables. Yet, judging by the lack of literature, there would not appear to have been a concerted effort to develop this connection. Perhaps the answer lies partly in the realization, in some quarters, that the model is heavily parameterized, a phenomenon known to lead to predictor instability.

The aims therefore are:

- (i) To develop more fully the statistical analogue of the original actuarial chain-ladder technique.
- (ii) To investigate the magnitude and nature of predictor instability associated with the technique.

- (iii) To suggest a method for improving predictor stability.
- (iv) To make the methodology readily available to practitioners so that they may make their own judgements in these matters.

The GLIM software package, because of its user defined macro facility, is an invaluable tool in achieving these objectives. Indeed we note with interest that Taylor (1983)⁽⁸⁾ and Taylor & Ashe (1983)⁽⁹⁾ used the GLIM package to fit Taylor's so called 'invariant see-saw' model to run-off data.

We identify our philosophical approach to estimating claims whole-heartedly with the sentiments expressed by Taylor & Ashe (1983)⁽⁹⁾ from which we quote the following passage:

Our view is that claims analysis is a special case of data analysis; that therefore there are few preconceptions as to what should be done with the data; indeed, anything goes, if it leads to a model which exhibits acceptable adherence to the data and is plausible in the light of any collateral information. To us, faced with a problem of multivariate data analysis, regression analysis represents a most useful exploratory tool.

We would view this application of GLIM to run-off data as the natural extension of other applications of generalized linear models in actuarial work reported by Haberman and Renshaw (1988).⁽⁴⁾

2. CLAIMS DATA

Claims run-off data are generated when delay is incurred in settling insurance claims. Typically the format for such data is that of a triangle (Figure 1.1) in which the rows (i) denote accident years and the columns (j) delay or development years. The settlement or payment year is $k = i + j - 1$. The entries in the body of the triangle are the adjusted (non-cumulative) amounts

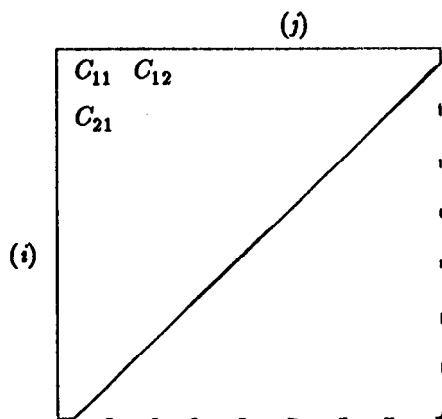


Figure 1.1.

$$C_{ij} = \frac{(\text{claims amount}) \times (\text{inflation factor})}{(\text{exposure})}$$

The triangle is augmented each year with the addition of a new diagonal. Two noteworthy variations of the triangular format are induced by either truncation after a fixed period of delay or by the removal of data for the early settlement years.

Additional information in the guise of numbers of claims settled per cell is required to implement Taylor's (1983)⁽⁸⁾ 'invariant see-saw' method.

An obvious first step in any analysis is to plot the adjusted claims against accident year, against development year and against payment year. One might even be tempted to use a three-dimensional plot. Such displays can be very informative about the type of model structure that the data might support.

The remit is essentially to predict likely claim amounts in the incomplete south-east region bounded by broken lines in Figure 1.1. A two stage modelling/predicting process is envisaged.

3. LOG-NORMAL MODELS

Let

$$Y_{ij} = \log(C_{ij})$$

and consider the class of log-normal models defined by

$$Y_{ij} = m_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

with

$$\varepsilon_{ij} \sim \text{IN}(0, \sigma^2) \quad \text{and} \quad Y_{ij} \sim \text{IN}(m_{ij}, \sigma^2).$$

Here we have assumed that the normal responses Y_{ij} decompose (additively) into deterministic non-random components (means) m_{ij} and independent homoscedastic normally distributed random error components about a zero mean. It will be necessary to monitor these assumptions by displaying various residual plots on fitting specific model structures to the logarithms of the adjusted claims data.

A number of specific model structures are of interest. These include:

$$\text{Case (I)} \quad \text{M: } m_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j \quad (3.1)$$

with accident and development years treated as non-interactive covariates. This structure is identical to that used in a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), but based on the incomplete data sketched in Figure 3.1(a). Indeed, our brief is to estimate the incomplete south-east triangular region. The structure is identical to that associated with the traditional actuarial chain-ladder technique.

$$\text{Case (II)} \quad \text{M: } m_{ij} = \mu + \beta_j + \gamma_k$$

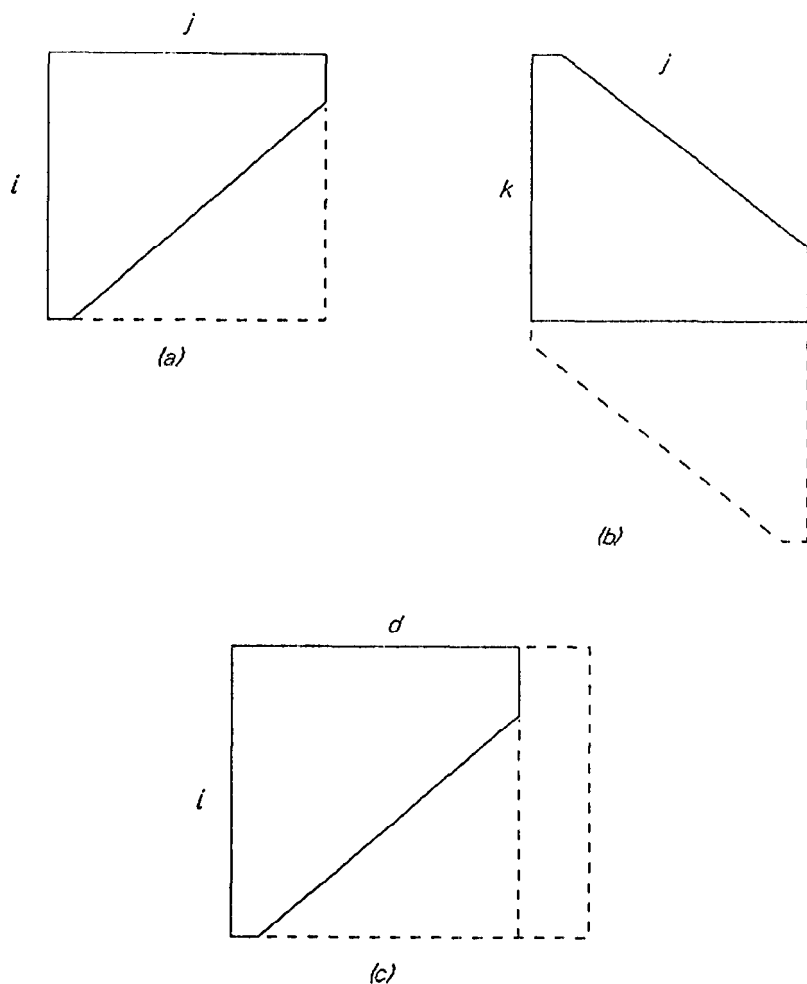


Figure 3.1. Typical run-off domains and prediction regions.

with development and settlement years treated as non-interactive covariates. The structure is motivated by the traditional actuarial so-called separation method, see, for example, Hossack *et al.* (1983)⁽⁵⁾; and was first treated statistically by Taylor (1979).⁽⁷⁾ Depicting the various levels of k along the rows while still representing the levels of j as columns distorts the basic data matrix into the form

sketched in Figure 3.1(b). This time our brief is the seemingly difficult one of predicting values in the lower protruding triangular region.

$$\text{Case (III)} \quad M: \quad m_i(d) = \alpha_i + \beta_i \log(1+d) + \gamma_i d \quad (3.2)$$

with $d=j-1$ treated as a continuous regressor variable. A version of this structure is discussed by Dejong and Zehnwirth (1983)⁽²⁾ in which parameters are estimated recursively using the Kalman filter. Practical implementation is possible using Zehnwirth's (1985)⁽¹⁴⁾ ICRFS purpose designed software package.

The untransformed model structure is

$$\exp(m_i(d)) = K_i(1+d)^{\beta_i} \exp(\gamma_i d) \quad (K_i = e^{\alpha_i})$$

so that $\gamma_i < 0$ ensures claims amounts ultimately decay. Referring to the data matrix sketched in Figure 3.1(c), prediction beyond the observed limit of d as well as in the south east triangular region is feasible.

$$\text{Case (IV)} \quad M: \quad \begin{cases} m_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j & j = 1, 2, \dots, q \\ m_i(d) = \lambda_i + v_i \log(d) + \gamma_i d, & d > q. \end{cases}$$

Here we have written d for j when j exceeds some fixed integer q . The model is clearly a mixture of Case I and Case III applied to separate parts of the data matrix.

Each of the models discussed above has obvious submodels. We concentrate on Case I.

4. MODEL FITTING

Consider the two-way ANOVA model structure

$$M: \quad m_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j$$

with an incomplete experimental design dictated by the pattern of adjusted claim amounts illustrated in Figure 4.1; obviously, $g=0$, $w=0$ for a run-off triangle, while $j=1, 2, \dots, l$; $i=1, 2, \dots, r$ in general. It is well known that whereas this parametric representation of the model structure involves a total of $r+l+1$ parameters, it contains only $r+l-1$ so-called free parameters. Consequently two constraints must be imposed on the parameters before estimation can proceed. The GLIM system sets $\alpha_1 = \beta_1 = 0$ and computes maximum likelihood estimates for the parameters. As a direct consequence of the normal error structure this is equivalent to estimation by least squares.

Define indicators δ_{ij} for all cross-classified factor levels (i, j) according to

$$\delta_{ij} = 1 \text{ if } C_{ij} > 0, \quad \delta_{ij} = 0 \text{ otherwise.}$$

Then

$$\delta_{++} = \sum_{ij} \delta_{ij}, \quad \delta_{i+} = \sum_j \delta_{ij}, \quad \delta_{+j} = \sum_i \delta_{ij}$$

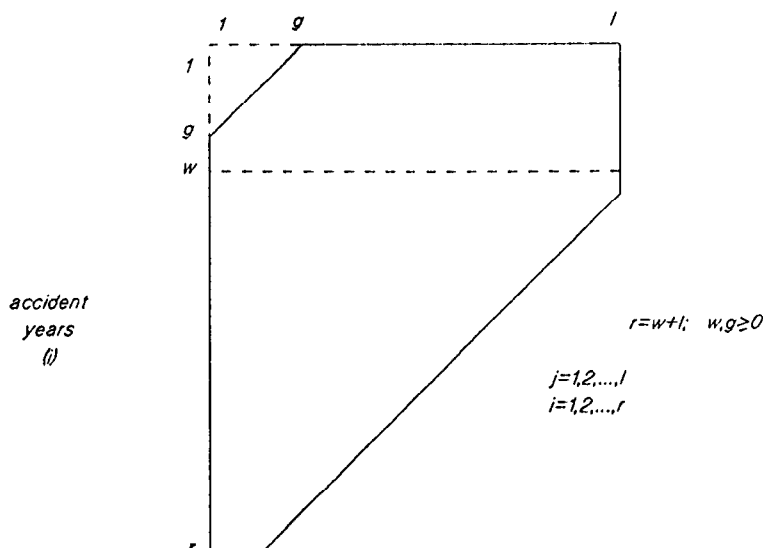
development (j)

Figure 4.1. Typical claims data format.

denote the total number of observations, the number of observations in row i and the number of observations in column j respectively.

We choose $\hat{\mu}$, $\hat{\alpha}_i$, $\hat{\beta}_j$ ($i, j \neq 1$) so as to minimize

$$\sum_{ij} (y_{ij} - \hat{\mu} - \hat{\alpha}_i - \hat{\beta}_j)^2 \quad (\hat{\alpha}_1 = \hat{\beta}_1 = 0).$$

Partial differentiation with respect to $\hat{\mu}$, $\hat{\alpha}_i$ for each i ($\neq 1$) and $\hat{\beta}_j$ for each j ($\neq 1$) leads to the system of linear equations

$$y_{++} = \delta_{++} \hat{\mu} + \sum_j \delta_{+j} \hat{\beta}_j + \sum_i \delta_{i+} \hat{\alpha}_i$$

$$y_{+j} = \delta_{+j} (\hat{\mu} + \hat{\beta}_j) + \sum_i \delta_{ij} \hat{\alpha}_i, \quad j = 2, 3, \dots, l$$

$$y_{i+} = \delta_{i+} (\hat{\mu} + \hat{\alpha}_i) + \sum_j \delta_{ij} \hat{\beta}_j, \quad i = 2, 3, \dots, r$$

where $y_{++} = \sum_{ij} y_{ij}, \quad y_{i+} = \sum_j y_{ij}, \quad y_{+j} = \sum_i y_{ij}$

denote the grand total, row totals and column total of the transformed adjusted claims. The solution of this set of non-singular linear equations yield the required estimates.

By way of illustration, the artificial data set

$j \rightarrow$	1	2	3	Totals
$i \downarrow$				
1	2	4	6	12
2	2	3	4	9
3	3	2		5
4	2			2
Totals	9	9	10	28

$$(I=3, \omega=1, r=4, g=0)$$

gives rise to the system of linear equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} 28 \\ 9 \\ 10 \\ 9 \\ 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 3 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mu} \\ \hat{\beta}_2 \\ \hat{\beta}_3 \\ \hat{\alpha}_2 \\ \hat{\alpha}_3 \\ \hat{\alpha}_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

which yield the solution

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mu} &= 2.917, \\ \hat{\beta}_2 &= .667, \quad \hat{\beta}_3 = 2.583, \\ \hat{\alpha}_2 &= -1.000, \quad \hat{\alpha}_3 = -.750, \quad \hat{\alpha}_4 = -.917. \end{aligned}$$

The corresponding fitted and predicted values

$$\hat{m}_{ij} = \hat{\mu} + \hat{\alpha}_i + \hat{\beta}_j, \quad (\hat{\alpha}_1 = \hat{\beta}_1 = 0)$$

are

$$\begin{array}{rrr} 2.917 & 3.583 & 5.500 \\ 1.917 & 2.583 & 4.500 \\ 2.167 & 2.833 & 4.750 \\ 2.000 & 2.666 & 4.583 \end{array}$$

Scrutiny of these fitted and predicted values reveals the true nature of the assumed non-interactive model structure which manifests itself in the constant differences between columns and between rows.

A noteworthy submodel is that involving development year effects only. The one-way ANOVA sub-structure is

$$H: m_{ij} = \mu + \beta_j$$

where, again we define $\beta_1 = 0$ because of overparameterization. This time the incomplete nature of the data matrix (Figure 4.1) is irrelevant. The parameter estimates are determined by

$$y_{+j} = \delta_{+j} \hat{\mu} + \sum_j \delta_{+j} \beta_j$$

$$y_{+j} = \delta_{+j} (\hat{\mu} + \hat{\beta}_j), \quad j = 2, 3, \dots, l.$$

The solution is

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{y}_{\cdot 1}, \quad \hat{\beta}_j = \bar{y}_{\cdot j} - \bar{y}_{\cdot 1}$$

so that the fitted and predicted values are the column averages. Justification for using this simplified model is sought by examining the t -statistics associated with the parameters α_i , examination of further residual plots and through a formal ANOVA F -test based on the statistic

$$\frac{(R_H - R_M)/(l - 1)}{R_M/(\delta_{+l} - l - r + 1)}$$

in which R_M and R_H denote the residual sums of squares or deviance under the full model M and the submodel H respectively.

Whereas it has been established by Kremer (1982)⁽⁶⁾ that the model structure in use here is identical to that utilized in the standard actuarial chain-ladder technique as described, for example, in Hossack *et al.* (1983)⁽⁵⁾, the current treatment of the model differs in two important respects—namely the ways in which the model parameters are estimated and the predicted values are constructed.

5. PREDICTED VALUES

The model is fitted on the log-response scale. On this scale

$$\hat{m}_{ij} = \hat{\mu} + \hat{\alpha}_i + \hat{\beta}_j \quad (5.1)$$

provides a point predictor for the empty (i, j) th cell in the south east triangular region. Since the $\hat{m}_{ij}$ are linear in the Y_{ij} s, they are distributed normally with

$$E(\hat{m}_{ij}) = E(\hat{\mu}) + E(\hat{\alpha}_i) + E(\hat{\beta}_j) \quad (5.2)$$

and

$$V(\hat{m}_{ij}) = V(\hat{\mu}) + V(\hat{\alpha}_i) + V(\hat{\beta}_j) + 2(\text{Cov}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\alpha}_i) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\beta}_j) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\alpha}_i, \hat{\beta}_j)). \quad (5.3)$$

If, in keeping with common practice, the predictor is augmented by an independent additive error term, distributed as $N(0, \sigma^2)$, then σ^2 has to be added to the RHS of (5.3).

Reverting to the original (anti-log) scale, predictors $\hat{C}_{ij}$ are needed where

$$\hat{m}_{ij} = \log(\hat{C}_{ij}).$$

Since the $\hat{m}_{ij}$ s are normally distributed, the $\hat{C}_{ij}$ s are log-normally distributed with

$$E(\hat{C}_{ij}) = \exp(E(\hat{m}_{ij}) + \frac{1}{2}V(\hat{m}_{ij})) \quad (5.4)$$

and

$$\sqrt{V(\hat{C}_{ij})} = E(\hat{C}_{ij})\sqrt{\exp(V(\hat{m}_{ij})) - 1} \quad (5.5)$$

One method of computing predicted values and their standard errors, apparently favoured by Zehnwirth (1985)⁽¹⁴⁾, is based on (5.4) and (5.5) in which $E(\hat{m}_{ij})$ and $V(\hat{m}_{ij})$ are replaced by their estimated values as dictated, in this instance by (5.2) and (5.3). It should be stressed, however, that Zehnwirth is working within a Bayesian framework and would presumably seek to justify the method of prediction within this framework.

6. PREDICTED TOTALS AND THEIR STANDARD ERRORS

Practitioners have a vested interest in

(i) the predicted row totals

$$\hat{t}_i = \sum_{j > c(i)}^l \hat{C}_{ij}, \quad i = w + 2, w + 3, \dots, r$$

where l and $c(i) = l + 1 - i$ are the upper and lower limits of j ;

(ii) the predicted diagonal totals

$$\hat{t}_k = \sum_{\substack{ij \\ i+j=k+1}} \hat{C}_{ij}, \quad k = r + 1, r + 2, \dots, r + l - 1;$$

(iii) the overall predicted total

$$\hat{t} = \sum_{i=w+2}^r \hat{t}_i = \sum_{k=r+1}^{r+l-1} \hat{t}_k$$

together with their standard errors.

Consequently, for the predicted row totals, it follows that

$$V(\hat{t}_i) = \sum_{j > c(i)}^l V(\hat{C}_{ij}) + 2 \sum_{j > c(i)}^l \sum_{k > j}^{r+l-1} \text{Cov}(\hat{C}_{ij}, \hat{C}_{ik}).$$

Making use of the Theorem 2.4 of Aitchison and Brown (1969)⁽¹⁾ it can be shown that

$$\text{Cov}(\hat{C}_{ij}, \hat{C}_{ik}) = E(\hat{C}_{ij}) E(\hat{C}_{ik}) (\exp(\text{Cov}(\hat{m}_{ij}, \hat{m}_{ik})) - 1) \quad (6.1)$$

from which (5.5) is retrieved on setting $j = k$. Further, (5.1) implies that for $j \neq k$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(\hat{m}_{ij}, \hat{m}_{ik}) = & V(\hat{\mu}) + 2\text{Cov}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\alpha}_i) + V(\hat{\alpha}_i) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_j, \hat{\beta}_k) \\ & + \text{Cov}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\beta}_j) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\beta}_k) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\alpha}_i, \hat{\beta}_j) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\alpha}_i, \hat{\beta}_k). \end{aligned} \quad (6.2)$$

This time (5.3) is retrieved on setting $j = k$. Also note the useful identity

$$2\text{Cov}(\hat{m}_{ij}, \hat{m}_{ik}) = (V(\hat{m}_{ij}) - V(\hat{\beta}_{ij})) + (V(\hat{m}_{ik}) - V(\hat{\beta}_{ik})) + 2(\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_j, \hat{\beta}_k) - \sigma^2)$$

where we have assumed the augmented version of (5.3).

Yet more general versions of (6.1) and (6.2), namely

$$\text{Cov}(\hat{C}_{i_1 j_1}, \hat{C}_{i_2 j_2}) = E(\hat{C}_{i_1 j_1}) E(\hat{C}_{i_2 j_2}) (\exp(\text{Cov}(\hat{m}_{i_1 j_1}, \hat{m}_{i_2 j_2})) - 1)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(\hat{m}_{i_1 j_1}, \hat{m}_{i_2 j_2}) = & V(\hat{\mu}) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\alpha}_{i_1}) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\alpha}_{i_2}) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\alpha}_{i_1}, \hat{\alpha}_{i_2}) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_{j_1}, \hat{\beta}_{j_2}) \\ & + \text{Cov}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\beta}_{j_1}) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\beta}_{j_2}) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\alpha}_{i_1}, \hat{\beta}_{j_2}) + \text{Cov}(\hat{\alpha}_{i_2}, \hat{\beta}_{j_1}) \end{aligned}$$

catering for between row dependencies are needed to compute the variances of the predicted diagonal totals and the overall predicted total. Notice that (6.1) and (6.2) are retrieved on setting $i_1 = i_2 = i$ (together with $j_1 = j, j_2 = k$).

7. PREDICTOR INSTABILITY

First the comment that the adjusted claim amounts are generally characterized by significant differences between development years but only small differences across accident years.

The extent of any instability exhibited by each predicted value depends directly on the number of parameters used to make the prediction, in this case just three which is not excessive, and more importantly on the extent to which the estimates of these parameters are sensitive to fluctuations in the data. Not surprisingly in view of the nature of the model structure and data format, simulation exercises confirm that predictions are sufficiently robust to data fluctuations in the heart of and in the north-west corner of the run-off triangle; and that stability deteriorates as data points further into the other two corners of the run-off triangle are varied. However, the instability in the north-east corner is generally not a serious problem since claims amounts in this region are relatively low in comparison with the remainder of the data triangle. The position is further improved if truncation has occurred.

Consequently, it is essential to improve predictor stability for the more recent accident years. There are a number of possibilities such as the estimation of the α_i s by empirical Bayes, see Verrall (1988)⁽¹²⁾ or by Kalman filtering as proposed by Dejong and Zehnirith (1983)⁽²⁾ and applied to Case III (discussed in Section 3). We note with particular interest in passing that were one to attempt to generate the α_i s as a first order autoregressive process within GLIM, the facility to handle non-diagonal weight matrices recently proposed by Green (1988)⁽³⁾ is needed.

Another possibility which we have been pursuing is a reduction in the total number of row parameters based on the multiple comparison *t*-criteria

$$\left| \frac{\hat{\alpha}_i - \hat{\alpha}_j}{\sqrt{\hat{V}(\hat{\alpha}_i - \hat{\alpha}_j)}} \right| < h \quad \forall i, j (i \neq j).$$

The objective is to partition the set of α_i s by varying the limit h . This would seem to work well, is objective, intuitively appealing, and induces the required degree of stability provided no new parameters are allocated to the more recent accident year.

8. IMPLEMENTATION

This is by user defined macros within GLIM. Essentially four primary macros are required:

- (i) to create related vectors, scalars and to output data plots;
- (ii) to do the model fitting and output graphical checks;
- (iii) to conduct the multiple comparison *t*-tests;
- (iv) to output further graphical checks; to compute and output the predicted claims amounts, their totals and standard errors.

It is suggested that these macros could form the basis of a more extensive suite of macros to be offered to practitioners. It is noted with interest that one such practitioner, Taylor (1988),⁽¹¹⁾ strongly recommends the use of such regression methods.

9. AN APPLICATION

Consider the non-cumulative run-off triangle with exposures (Table 9.1) computed from the data given in Taylor and Ashe (1983)⁽⁹⁾ and used by them to illustrate their 'invariant see-saw' method. Inflation effects are not discussed so we ignore these. The plot of adjusted claims against delay (Figure 9.1) is informative, hinting that a model of the type defined by (3.2) as well as that defined by (3.1) might well be appropriate. We concentrate on the latter because of its historical interest. The remaining adjusted claims plots are relatively uninformative and are consequently not reproduced here.

Table 9.1 Run-off claims data and exposures

development year j	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
accident 1	357848	766940	610542	482940	527326	574398	146342	139950	227229	67948
year 2	352118	884021	933894	1183289	445745	320996	527804	266172	425046	
(i) 3	290507	1001799	926219	1016654	750816	146923	495992	280405		
4	310608	1108250	776189	1562400	272482	352053	206286			
5	443160	693190	991983	769488	504851	470639				
6	396132	937085	847498	805037	705960					
7	440832	847631	1131398	1063269						
8	359480	1061648	1443370							
9	376686	986608								
10	344014									

EXPOSURES

610 721 697 621 600 552 543 503 525 420

[o]										
[o] adjusted claims vs. delay										
[o]										
[o] 3040.										
[o] 2880.		Y								
[o] 2720.										
[o] 2560.			Y							
[o] 2400.										
[o] 2240.										
[o] 2080.	Y	Y								
[o] 1920.	Y		Y							
[o] 1760.	2									
[o] 1600.	Y	2	Y							
[o] 1440.	Y		2							
[o] 1280.	3	2	Y	Y						
[o] 1120.	Y			Y						
[o] 960.		Y			Y					
[o] 800. 3			Y	2	Y	Y				
[o] 640. 4		Y	Y	Y	Y		Y			
[o] 480. 3			Y	Y		Y				
[o] 320.					Y	Y	Y			
[o] 160.				Y	Y	Y		Y		
[o] 0.										
[o] -----										
[o] 0.00 2.00 4.00 6.00 8.00 10.00 12.00										
[o]										
[o]										

Figure 9.1.

Residual plots for the two-way ANOVA Model defined by (3.1) (Figures 9.2(a)–(e)) are reasonably supportive of the model although the histogram is slightly skewed. Estimates for the model parameters and their standard errors are given in standard GLIM format (Table 9.2). Here the model parameters of (3.1) have been recoded according to 1 for μ , the general mean; $DY_{-}(j)$ for β_j , the development year parameters and $AY_{-}(i)$ for α_i , the accident year parameters. The system automatically sets $\alpha_1 = \beta_1 = 0$, a feature utilized in the development of Section 4.

```
[o]
[o] histogram of residuals
[o]
[o] [-1.00,-0.75) 1 X
[o] [-0.75,-0.50) 2 XX
[o] [-0.50,-0.25) 4 XXXX
[o] [-0.25, 0.00) 20 XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
[o] [ 0.00, 0.25) 18 XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
[o] [ 0.25, 0.50) 8 XXXXXXXXX
[o] [ 0.50, 0.75) 2 XX
[o]
[o]
```

Figure 9.2(a).

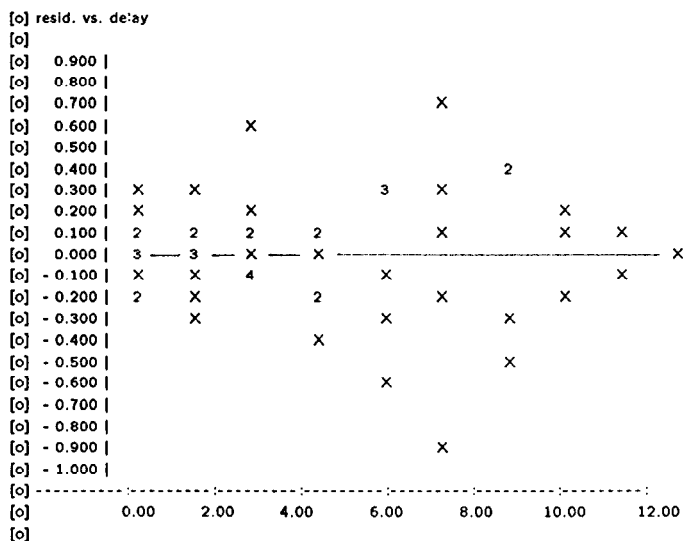


Figure 9.2(b).

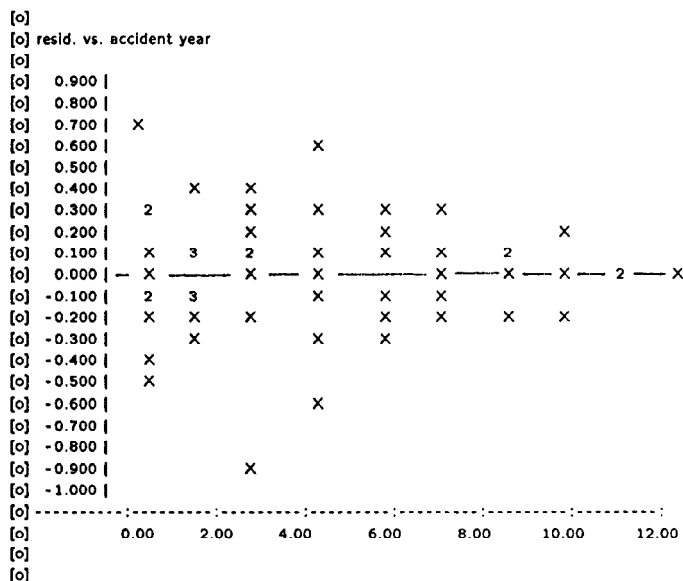


Figure 9.2(c).

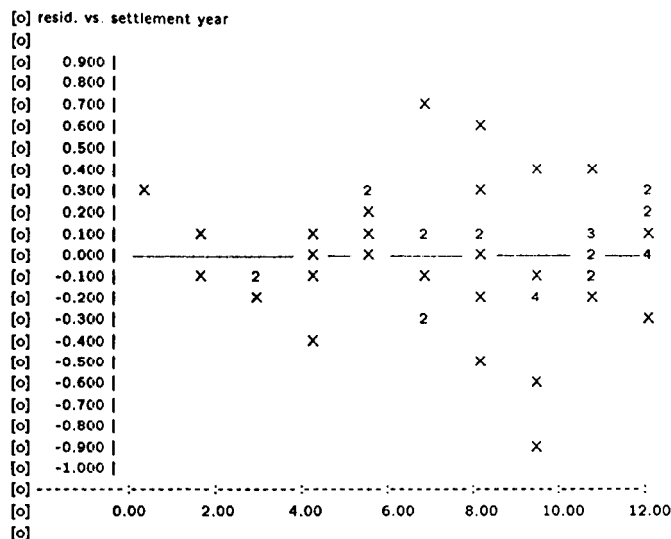


Figure 9.2(d).

Attempted model simplification by excluding accident year effects leads to an F -statistic value of 1.481 on 9,36 degrees of freedom with an observed significance level of approximately 20%. Whereas this is supportive of the simplification, two of the residual plots (Figures 9.3(a) and (b)) under the simplified one-way development year effects model become unacceptably distorted. The explanation for this is possibly to be found in the values of the parameter estimates (Table 9.2) under the full two-way ANOVA model. The t -statistics (obtained by dividing the estimates by their standard errors) indicate that the accident year parameters from year six onwards are all in fact significant; a feature which would appear to synchronize with the residual plots (Figures 9.3a–b). Consequently, we retain the two-way ANOVA model for the time being. We also have a vested interest in investigating the extent of predictor instability for this model. The run-off claims data, their expected (fitted) values under this model, the predicted claims values and their standard errors are presented in Table 9.3 together with the predicted totals and their standard errors.

We are involved in a two stage process in which the data are first utilized to calibrate/validate the proposed model before moving to the predictive second stage. Model validation is done through scrutiny of response and residual plots coupled with attempted model simplifications where appropriate. Given a satisfactory model, both the magnitude of the standard errors of the predicted values and the degree of stability exhibited by predicted values to fluctuations in the data are important aspects of performance with which to assess the effectiveness of this process. Clearly, if relatively minor fluctuations in the data induce excessive changes in the predicted values there is cause for concern, a phenomenon which is well known in the context of predictive regression modelling.

The extent of any instability exhibited by each predicted value depends directly in the number of parameters used to make each prediction, in this case just three (and not directly on the total number of model parameters), together with the extent to which the estimates of these parameters are sensitive to fluctuations in the data. We concentrate on the latter source of possible instability since the number of parameters involved in making each prediction is low. Indeed an identical number of parameters (three) is involved in each prediction based on the model defined by (3.2) in which a much more rigid structure is imputed to development year effects.

Suppose first that $g=0$, $w=0$ so that the data are triangular in shape. Not surprisingly in view of the nature of the model structure, simulation exercise reveals that predictor stability deteriorates as data points further into the apices of the run-off triangle are varied. This is illustrated by Figure 9.4(a) in which the arrows indicate the directions of decreasing predictor stability. However, the magnitude of predictor instability induced by changes in the data would not appear to be excessive in our experience except for changes in the last few data rows and columns. This is hardly surprising as so little data are yet available to stabilize the estimates of the corresponding row and column parameters.

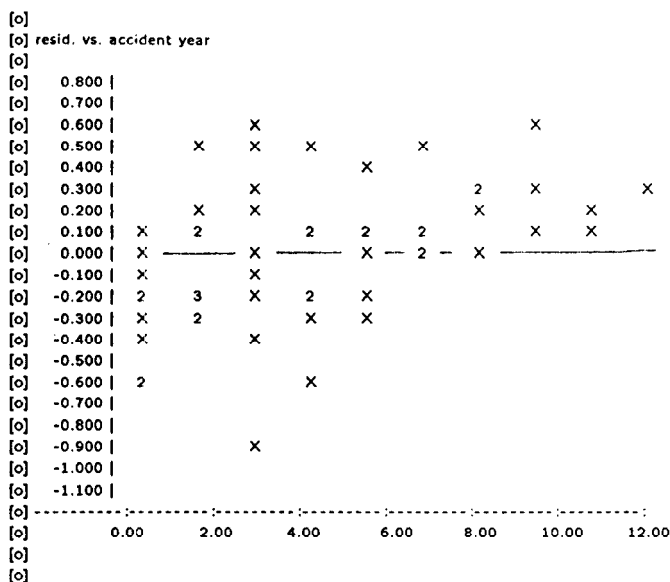


Figure 9.3(a).

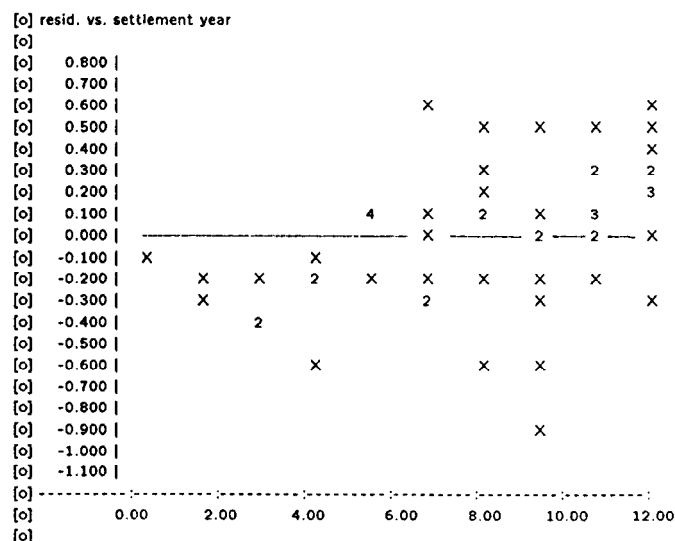


Figure 9.3(b).

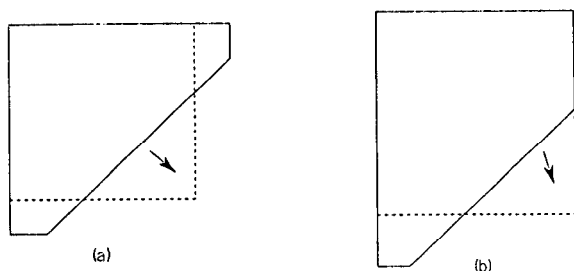


Figure 9.4. Arrows indicating direction of decreasing predictor stability.

Comparison of Tables 9.4a–b with Table 9.2 and Tables 9.5a–b with Table 9.3 give an indication of the degree of instability involved. In the construction of Tables 9.4(a) and 9.5(a) the original claims amount C'_{32} is changed approximately 10% from 1001799 to 901799 while Tables 9.4(b) and 9.5(b) are based on a substantial adjustment to the original claims amount C'_{28} from 266172 to 166172. We leave the reader to assess for his or herself the magnitude and pattern of changes induced in the predicted values by these two representative changes in the claims data by comparing Tables 9.5a–b with Table 9.3. As a further guide changes to the penultimate row or column of the run-off triangle induce some changes up to the same order of magnitude in the corresponding row or column

Table 9.4(a)

The parameter estimates are			
[o]			
[o]		estimate	s.e. parameter
[o]	1	6.106	0.1644 1
[o]	2	0.8995	0.1604 DY_(2)
[o]	3	0.9395	0.1678 DY_(3)
[o]	4	0.9663	0.1758 DY_(4)
[o]	5	0.3852	0.1854 DY_(5)
[o]	6	-0.002226	0.1975 DY_(6)
[o]	7	-0.1145	0.2139 DY_(7)
[o]	8	-0.4345	0.2383 DY_(8)
[o]	9	-0.05308	0.2802 DY_(9)
[o]	10	-1.393	0.3780 DY_(10)
[o]	11	0.1938	0.1604 AY_(2)
[o]	12	0.1358	0.1678 AY_(3)
[o]	13	0.1539	0.1758 AY_(4)
[o]	14	0.3000	0.1854 AY_(5)
[o]	15	0.4136	0.1975 AY_(6)
[o]	16	0.5112	0.2139 AY_(7)
[o]	17	0.6772	0.2383 AY_(8)
[o]	18	0.5015	0.2802 AY_(9)
[o]	19	0.6022	0.3780 AY_(10)
[o]	scale parameter taken as 0.1158		

Table 9.4(b)

[o] The parameter estimates are			
[o]		estimate	s.e. parameter
[o]	1	6.123	0.1663 1
[o]	2	0.9112	0.1623 DY_(2)
[o]	3	0.9387	0.1697 DY_(3)
[o]	4	0.9650	0.1779 DY_(4)
[o]	5	0.3832	0.1875 DY_(5)
[o]	6	-0.004909	0.1998 DY_(6)
[o]	7	-0.1181	0.2164 DY_(7)
[o]	8	-0.5963	0.2411 DY_(8)
[o]	9	-0.04369	0.2834 DY_(9)
[o]	10	-1.410	0.3823 DY_(10)
[o]	11	0.1415	0.1623 AY_(2)
[o]	12	0.1522	0.1697 AY_(3)
[o]	13	0.1370	0.1779 AY_(4)
[o]	14	0.2824	0.1875 AY_(5)
[o]	15	0.3953	0.1998 AY_(6)
[o]	16	0.4920	0.2164 AY_(7)
[o]	17	0.6568	0.2411 AY_(8)
[o]	18	0.4789	0.2834 AY_(9)
[o]	19	0.5854	0.3823 AY_(10)
[o]	scale parameter taken as 0.1185		

of predicted values, with changes of a much lower order of magnitude elsewhere in the predicted values. Changes in the final row or column induce changes of a greater order of magnitude in that row or column of predicted values while leaving the remaining predicted values unchanged. We would strongly recommend that any practitioners should conduct their own simulation exercises to

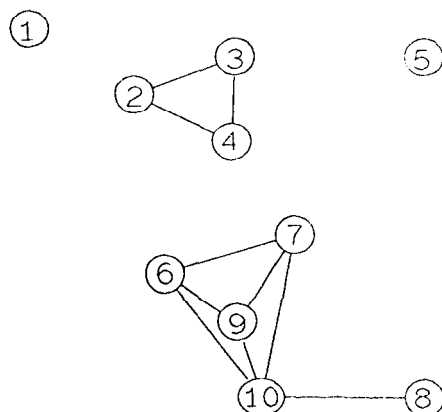


Figure 9.5. Partition of row parameters.

Table 9.5(b)

(a) The observed values and their expected values; the predicted values and their standard errors; the predicted row totals and their standard errors; the predicted diagonal totals and their standard errors; the predicted grand total and its standard error

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 O_P	357848	766940	610542	482940	527326	574398	146342	139950	227229	67948	0
1 E_E	278229	692032	711348	730277	408154	276866	247244	153259	266334	67948	0
2 O_P	352118	884021	933894	1183289	445745	320996	527804	166172	425046	105542	105542
2 E_E	378834	942266	948567	994340	555740	376979	336645	208676	362638	57940	57940
3 O_P	290507	1001799	926219	1016654	750816	146923	495992	280405	391615	103255	494869
3 E_E	370167	920709	946407	971591	543025	368354	328943	203902	184286	56986	197551
4 O_P	310608	1108250	776189	1562400	272432	352053	206286	195836	344128	90734	630698
4 E_E	324822	807924	830475	852574	476506	323232	288648	87135	163197	50378	205517
5 O_P	443160	693190	991983	769488	504851	470639	351662	219218	385216	101568	1057644
5 E_E	362965	902795	927995	952688	532460	361188	152765	98577	184432	56815	301042
6 O_P	396132	937085	847498	805037	705960	405156	363060	226324	397702	104860	1497101
6 E_E	373842	929849	955803	981237	548416	174796	160060	103200	192821	59238	398510
7 O_P	440832	847631	1131398	1063269	647921	440552	394779	246096	432447	114021	2275816
7 E_E	405100	1007596	1035720	1063280	281462	194224	177715	114455	213455	65331	600742
8 O_P	359480	1061648	1443370	1271116	711685	438908	433630	270315	475006	125242	3770902
8 E_E	442462	1100527	1131245	565571	320026	220654	201674	129670	241159	73390	1060538
9 O_P	376686	986608	1092238	1122884	628691	427477	383062	238792	419613	110637	4423394
9 E_E	346545	961444	513985	532508	301002	207257	189078	121234	224414	67621	1383026
10 O_P	344014	976117	1004603	1032790	578249	393179	352327	219633	385945	101760	5044603
10 E_E	344014	535863	554437	573434	323459	222117	201873	128701	225890	69545	2064060
11 O_P	0	5437202	4309385	3242442	2184722	1503863	1180146	764488	496582	101760	19300592
11 E_E	0	1024316	910462	759709	512567	406603	355971	276289	247916	69545	3197237

familiarize themselves with the nature and magnitude of such instability that exists.

Predictor instability with increasing development year ceases to be an issue (see Figure 9.4(b)) either if $w > 0$ or when using a model of the type defined by (3.2). In addition, as already stated in Section 7, instability in the north-east corner of the run-off triangle is generally not a serious problem since claims amounts in this region are relatively low in comparison with the remainder of the data matrix. One further noteworthy feature of the two-way ANOVA model when $w > 0$ is the invariance of predicted values to row permutations between the early accident years i , for which $i < w + 1$ in the data matrix.

One potent way of diminishing the degree of instability to satisfactory levels in the important south-west corner of the run-off triangle is by allocating the same

Table 9.6

[o]				
[o]		estimate	s.e.	parameter
[o]	1	6.119	0.1520	1
[o]	2	0.9024	0.1476	DY_(2)
[o]	3	0.9324	0.1528	DY_(3)
[o]	4	0.9363	0.1598	DY_(4)
[o]	5	0.3522	0.1696	DY_(5)
[o]	6	-0.01988	0.1838	DY_(6)
[o]	7	-0.1330	0.1995	DY_(7)
[o]	8	-0.4500	0.2202	DY_(8)
[o]	9	-0.05353	0.2580	DY_(9)
[o]	10	-1.406	0.3551	DY_(10)
[o]	11	0.1682	0.1267	MAY_(2)
[o]	12	0.3009	0.1746	MAY_(3)
[o]	13	0.5102	0.1467	MAY_(4)
[o]		scale parameter taken as 0.1030		
[o]				
[o]				
[o]		histogram of residuals		
[o]				
[o]	[-1.00,-0.75)	1	X	
[o]	[-0.75,-0.50)	2	XX	
[o]	[-0.50,-0.25)	5	XXXXX	
[o]	[-0.25, 0.00)	19	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX	
[o]	[0.00, 0.25)	18	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX	
[o]	[0.25, 0.50)	8	XXXXXXXXXX	
[o]	[0.50, 0.75)	2	XX	
[o]				
[o]				

Figure 9.6(a).

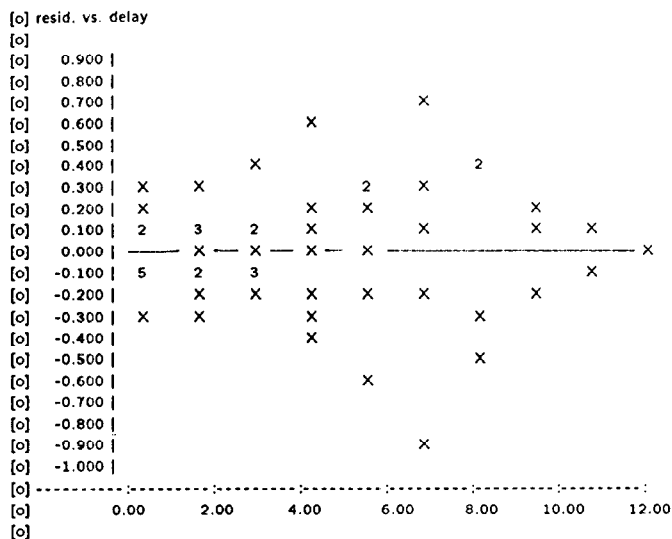


Figure 9.6(b).

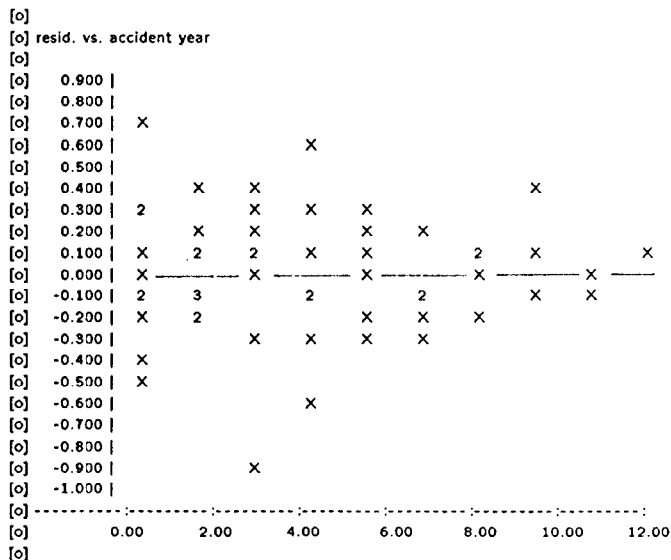


Figure 9.6(c).

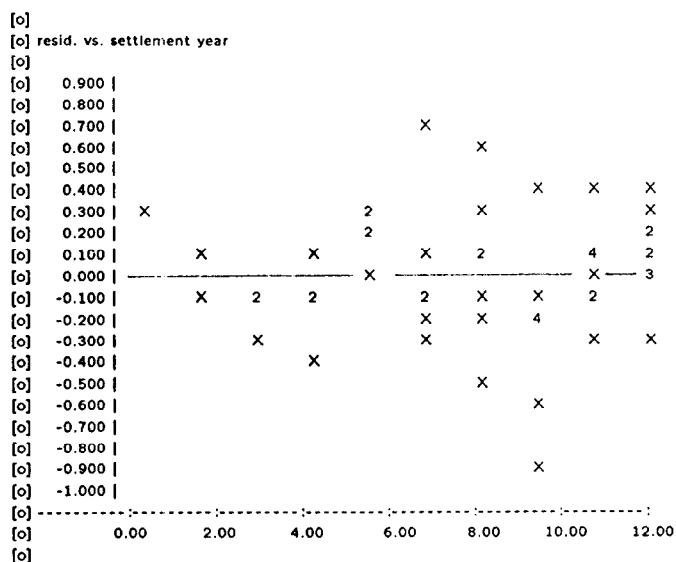


Figure 9.6(d).

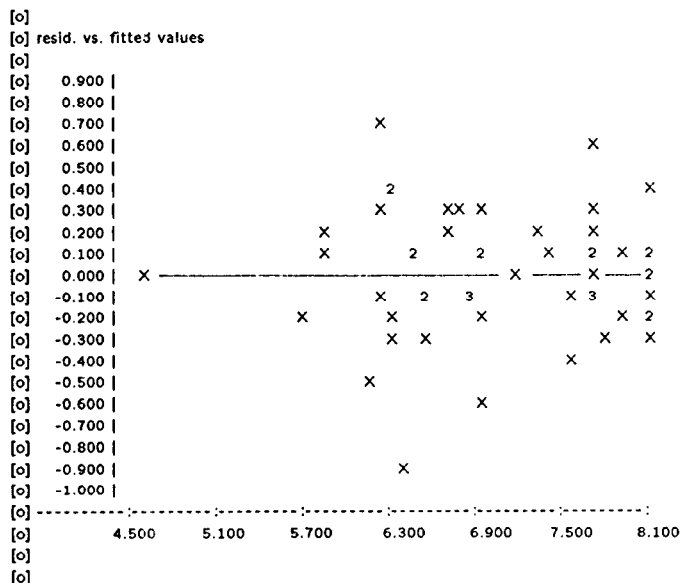


Figure 9.6(e).

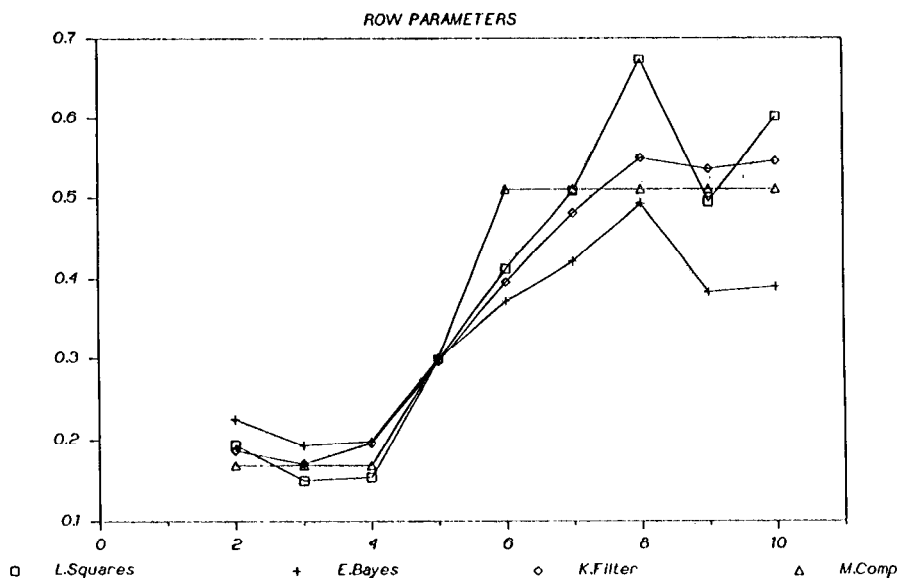


Figure 9.7.

α_i parameters to more than one accident year where appropriate. Indeed, this is vital if acceptable levels of stability are to be induced for the most recent accident years for which relatively little data are, as yet, available. We stress that this defect is also present in the traditional actuarial deterministic chain-ladder technique, giving rise to much concern about the apparent continuing esteem afforded to the technique.

A way forward is to examine all contrasts

$$\alpha_{i_1} - \alpha_{i_2}, \quad i_1 \neq i_2$$

between row parameters. Such contrasts are invariant of the somewhat arbitrary choice of the two parameter constraints ($\alpha_1 = \beta_1 = 0$) needed to estimate the α s.

Application of the multicomparison t -criterion

$$\left| \frac{\hat{\alpha}_{i_1} - \hat{\alpha}_{i_2}}{\sqrt{\hat{V}(\hat{\alpha}_{i_1} - \hat{\alpha}_{i_2})}} \right| < h \quad \forall i_1, i_2 (i_1 \neq i_2)$$

for $h = 5$, induces the partition in row parameters displayed in Figure 9.5 in which accident years are represented by numbered nodes; two nodes being linked if and only if the inequality is satisfied.

This allocates separate row parameters to years 1 and 5 while linking years, 2, 3

and 4 together as well as linking years 6 to 10 inclusive; making a total of just four row parameters. For sufficiently large h , all nodes are interlinked, while linkages are shed as h is reduced.

The residual plots (Figures 9.6(a)-(e)), the parameter estimates (Table 9.6) and predicted values (Table 9.7) are presented for scrutiny.

Verrall (1989)⁽¹³⁾ has conducted a comparative study of estimates for the α_i s based on a variety of estimation methods for these data. A graphical comparison of least squares, empirical Bayes, Kalman filter and multi comparison estimators is presented in Figure 9.7.

10. POSTSCRIPT

Possible future developments for incorporating within GLIM include:

- (i) alternative methods of mapping back from the logarithmic modelling space;
- (ii) use of the other model structures discussed in Section 3 (partially developed);
- (iii) use of methods other than the multicomparison tests to induce predictor stability.

We would like to acknowledge the financial support received from the Commercial Union Insurance Company together with the encouraging ongoing discussions held with Stavros Christofides and Peter Crane from that company. We are most interested to hear from any further practitioners interested in these highly practical developments.

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