

ABC methods for phase-type distributions with applications in insurance risk problems

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Introduction

- The main features of **loss data sets** are strong skewness, heavy-tails, heterogeneity and the presence of extremes.
- The class of **phase-type distributions** (PH) is a very large and flexible family of distributions defined on the positive real line (Neuts, 1981).
- PH distributions are dense on $[0, \infty)$ and therefore, any positive distribution can be theoretically well approximated by a PH distribution.
- Basically, a positive random variable is PH if each realization can be expressed as a sum of exponential random variables.
- Using PH distributions, it is possible to obtain ruin probabilities in **insurance risk**, system failure times in **reliability** and waiting times in **queuing systems**.

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- Classical estimation methods for PH distributions are traditionally based on the **method of moments** (Johnson and Taaffe, 1990) and **maximum likelihood estimation** (Asmussen, 1996).
- However, using these approaches, it is not easy how to derive confidence intervals for quantities of interest depending on the estimated PH distributions such as the **ruin probability** in a risk reserve process with PH claim sizes.
- This can be done in a natural way from the **Bayesian perspective** using MCMC methods (Bladt et al., 2003).
- Nevertheless, classical and Bayesian methods for PH distributions are **very time consuming**, mainly due to the difficulties in the evaluation of the likelihood.

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- Our proposal is to make use of the recently developed **Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC)** methods (Marin et al., 2012) to make Bayesian inference on PH distribution and further, estimate quantities of interest such as ruin probabilities.
- ABC methods provide the advantage of avoiding the evaluation of the likelihood and are mainly based on **simulation**.
- Therefore, ABC methods seems to be very suitable for PH distributions whose likelihood is difficult and computationally expensive to evaluate but rather easy to simulate.
- We will apply our proposed ABC method to estimate credible intervals for the **ruin probability** of an insurance company.

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Definition of PH distribution

A continuous PH(α, T) distribution of order m is defined as the distribution of the time until absorption in a finite Markov process on the states $\{1, \dots, m+1\}$ with infinitesimal generator:

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} T & \mathbf{T}^0 \\ \mathbf{0} & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

where:

- T is a non-singular $m \times m$ matrix with $T_{ii} < 0$ and $T_{ij} \geq 0$.
- $\mathbf{T}^0 = -T\mathbf{1}$.
- α is a $m \times 1$ vector with the initial probabilities in each of the m transient states.
- The distribution function is given by,

$$F(x) = 1 - \alpha \exp\{Tx\}\mathbf{1}, \quad \text{for } x \geq 0.$$

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Exponential distribution, $Exp(\lambda)$: This is the simplest PH distribution with $m = 1$, $\alpha = 1$ and $T = -\lambda$.

Erlang distribution, $Er(k, \lambda)$: It is defined as the sum of k exponentials with the same rate, λ , and then, it is a PH distribution with $m = k$, $\alpha = (1, 0, \dots, 0)_{(1 \times k)}$ and

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda & \lambda & & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & & \\ & & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & & -\lambda & \lambda & \\ & & & & & & -\lambda \end{bmatrix}_{(k \times k)}$$

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Mixture of Exponential distributions, $H_k(\alpha, \lambda)$, whose density is given by:

$$f(x | \alpha, \lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i \lambda_i \exp(-\lambda_i x), \quad x > 0,$$

such that the variable is an $Exp(\lambda_i)$ with probability α_i .

This model is also a PH distribution with $m = k$, $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$ and

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda_1 & & & & \\ & -\lambda_2 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & -\lambda_k & \\ & & & & \cdot \end{bmatrix}_{(k \times k)}$$

Some more properties

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Assume a random variable X following a PH distribution, $X \sim PH(\alpha, T)$, then:

- The density function is given by:

$$f(x) = \alpha \exp\{Tx\} \mathbf{T}^0, \quad \text{for } x \geq 0.$$

- The r -th moment is given by:

$$E[X^r] = (-1)^r r! \alpha T^{-r} \mathbf{1}.$$

Lack of identifiability: Unfortunately, a PH representation (m, α, T) is not unique. For example, given an invertible matrix S such that $S\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{1}$, both representations (m, α, T) and $(m, \alpha S, S^{-1}TS)$ lead to the same PH distribution.

Interpretation of phases

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- Also, in **survival analysis**, there are many examples where PH distributions with known number of phases and known structures can be applied.
- One popular example is the **compartmental kinetics model** of pharmacokinetics which consists in describing the movements of a drug in the body.
- On the contrary, in **finance and insurance** risk, PH models are usually considered for describing loss distributions and in this case, the number of phases, m , and the structures of α and T are unknown.

Estimation of PH distributions

Assume that we have observed a sample of positive observations, $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, from a PH distribution with unknown (α, T) .

- Traditional approximation methods (mostly in engineering) are based on the **method of moments**, (Johnson and Taaffe, 1990). These are fast and easy to implement but possible solutions are limited by the moment bounds.
- **Maximum likelihood estimation** methods can be developed through the Expectation-Maximization algorithm, (Asmussen, 1996), where the observed data is augmented such that for each transient state, $i = 1, \dots, m$, we have:
 - B_i : The number of observations starting in state i , .
 - Z_i : The total time spent in state i .
 - N_{ij} : The total number of jumps from state i to state j , for $j \neq i$ and for $j = 1, \dots, m + 1$.

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Thus, the likelihood of the complete data set, \mathbf{x}_c , is simplified to:

$$\begin{aligned}
 l(\alpha, T \mid \mathbf{x}_c) &= \prod_{i=1}^m \alpha_i^{B_i} \prod_{i=1}^m \exp(t_{ij} Z_i) \prod_{i=1}^m \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^{m+1} t_{ij}^{N_{ij}} \\
 &= \prod_{i=1}^m \alpha_i^{B_i} \prod_{i=1}^m t_{i,m+1}^{N_{i,m+1}} \exp(-t_{i,m+1} Z_i) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^m t_{ij}^{N_{ij}} \exp(-t_{ij} Z_i)
 \end{aligned}$$

where $t_{i,m+1}$ is the i -th element of the exit vector, T^0 .

Given the complete data, the MLE of the PH parameters can be obtained:

$$\hat{\alpha}_i = \frac{B_i}{n}; \quad \hat{t}_{i,m+1} = \frac{N_{i,m+1}}{Z_i}; \quad \hat{t}_{ij} = \frac{N_{ij}}{Z_i}; \quad \hat{t}_{ii} = - \left(\hat{t}_{i,m+1} + \sum_{j=1; j \neq i}^m \hat{t}_{ij} \right)$$

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- The EM algorithm alternates these steps:
 - **E-step**: Computes the expectation of the missing quantities: B_i, Z_i, N_{ij} , for $i = 1, \dots, m$, and for $j = 1, \dots, m + 1$ with $j \neq i$.
 - **M-step**: Given the expected missing quantities, the MLE of (α, T) are directly obtained.
- The E-step is computationally heavy since these expectations depend on exponential matrices.
- Alternatively, Bladt et al. (2001) develop a **Bayesian algorithm** to make inference on (α, T) .
- They propose a Gibbs sampling method based on the same data augmentation strategy considered in the EM algorithm.

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Bladt et al. (2001) assume the following semi-conjugate priors:

$$(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\phi_1, \dots, \phi_m)$$

$$t_{i,m+1} \sim \text{Gamma}(\nu_{i,m+1}, \zeta_i), \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, m.$$

$$t_{ij} \sim \text{Gamma}(\nu_{ij}, \zeta_i), \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, m; j \neq i.$$

Estimation of PH distributions

Given a sample of observed data, $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, the following **Gibbs sampling** algorithm is developed:

Set some initial values for (α, T) .

- 1 Generate a complete sample $\{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ where each y_i is a realization of a continuous time Markov process which get absorbed at time x_i .
- 2 Given the complete data, obtain the missing quantities: B_i, Z_i, N_{ij} , for $i = 1, \dots, m$, and for $j = 1, \dots, m + 1$ with $j \neq i$.
- 3 Generate a sample from the conditional posterior:

$$(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\phi_1 + B_1, \dots, \phi_m + B_m)$$

$$t_{i,m+1} \sim \text{Gamma}(\nu_{i,m+1} + N_{i,m+1}, \zeta_i + Z_i), \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, m.$$

$$t_{ij} \sim \text{Gamma}(\nu_{ij} + N_{i,j}, \zeta_i) + Z_i, \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, m; j \neq i.$$

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- The main difficult part is step 1 since a **Metropolis-Hastings** method is used to simulate the missing sample with the exact observed absorption times.
- To do that, proposal underlying processes are simulated such that the absorption times are larger than those observed in the sample. This is done by **rejection sampling**.
- Frequently, this algorithm produces **low acceptance rates** which implies a bad mixing of the MCMC chain.
- Therefore, it seems reasonable to study the performance of **ABC methods** to make Bayesian inference for general PH models.

ABC methods

- ABC methods, (Marin et al., 2012), replace the calculation of the likelihood function with a **simulation of the model** that produces an artificial data set.
- The simulated data is then compared with the observed data using some kind of distance to **approximate the posterior** distribution of the model parameters.
- The idea is similar to **approximation methods** based on simulation which is standard in computer models.
- ABC methods are becoming popular in genetics, epidemiology and in population biology, where likelihood functions can usually not be calculated explicitly but **stochastic simulation** is straightforward.

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Assume that we have observed a data sample $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ from a **discrete** variable, $X | \theta \sim f(x | \theta)$ and consider a prior, $f(\theta)$.

Suppose that the likelihood, $f(\mathbf{x} | \theta)$, is unknown (or difficult to evaluate) but it is easy to sample from $X | \theta$.

We may obtain a sample from the posterior distribution $f(\theta | \mathbf{x})$ with:

Repeat:

- ① Simulate a value θ^* from the prior, $f(\theta)$.
- ② Simulate an iid sample $\mathbf{x}^* = \{x_1^*, \dots, x_n^*\}$ from $X | \theta^*$.

The pairs (θ^*, \mathbf{x}^*) are values from the joint distribution $f(\theta, \mathbf{X})$.

Now, we reject those sampled pairs such that $\mathbf{x}^* \neq \mathbf{x}$. Then, the values of θ^* that remain come from the posterior distribution $f(\theta | \mathbf{x})$.

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A problem with the previous approach is that if the sample size is large, it may take a very large number of iterations to generate artificial samples such that $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{x}$

If there is a **sufficient** statistic, $s(\mathbf{x})$, for θ , we know that $f(\theta | \mathbf{x}) = f(\theta | s(\mathbf{x}))$.

Therefore, we can use the same idea as previously, but accepting samples \mathbf{x}^* such that $s(\mathbf{x}^*) - s(\mathbf{x})$.

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When X is **continuous**, for any θ , the time taken to generate $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{x}$ (or $s(\mathbf{x}^*) = s(\mathbf{x})$) will be infinite.

In this case, we may accept samples not too far away from \mathbf{x} .

Defining a distance measure, $\|\cdot\|$ and a tolerance, ϵ , we accept samples such that $\|\mathbf{x}^* - \mathbf{x}\| < \epsilon$ (or $\|s(\mathbf{x}^*) - s(\mathbf{x})\| < \epsilon$).

In practice, the value of ϵ is not fixed, but instead it is accepted just a certain proportion of the sampled values (e.g. 5%, 1%, 0.5%) with the smallest differences from the real data.

Trivial example

Exponential data: Suppose we have a sample $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ from an exponential r.v., $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$.

Assume a conjugate prior $\lambda \sim \text{Gamma}(a, b)$ such that the true posterior is known: $\lambda \mid \mathbf{x} \sim \text{Gamma}(a + n, b + n\bar{x})$.

For this case, a sufficient statistic for λ is $s(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x}$. Then, we may construct the following ABC algorithm by repeating:

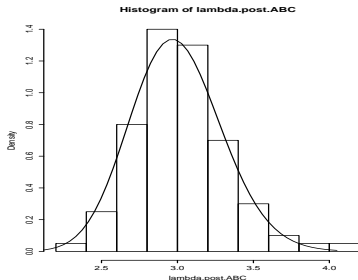
- 1 Simulate a value $\lambda^* \sim \text{Gamma}(a, b)$.
- 2 Simulate an iid sample $x_i^* \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda^*)$, for $i = 1, \dots, n$.
- 3 Compute the mean of the simulated sample, \bar{x}^* .
- 4 Reject if $|\bar{x}^* - \bar{x}| > \epsilon$.

Trivial example

We generate $n = 100$ observations from an $Exp(\lambda = -3)$.

We implement the previous ABC method for 10000 iterations using a non informative prior, $\lambda \sim Gamma(0.01, 0.01)$.

The figure shows a histogram of the approximated posterior sample using the 1% of the simulated samples with smallest mean differences in abs. The solid line shows the true posterior density.

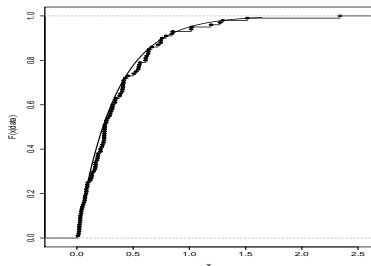
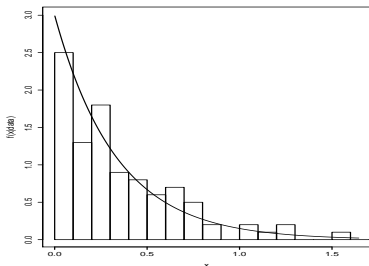


Trivial example

Clearly, we may obtain an approximated sample of the predictive density, $f(x_{n+1} | \mathbf{x})$, by just including in the ABC algorithm the step:

- Sample $x_{n+1}^* \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda^*)$

The figures show a histogram and the empirical cdf of the approximated predictive sample together with the true exponential pdf and cdf, resp.



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Unfortunately, for any other PH distribution different from the single exponential, sufficient statistics are not available.

Then, we propose the use of the first m sample moments:

$$r_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^k, \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, m,$$

which we hope are close to be sufficient.

Theoretically, as $\epsilon \rightarrow \infty$, we are then approximating $f(\alpha, T \mid \mathbf{r})$, where $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_m)$, instead of $f(\alpha, T \mid \mathbf{x})$.

ABC for PH distributions

Given a data sample \mathbf{x} from a general $\text{PH}(\alpha, T)$ distribution, we propose the following ABC algorithm to approximate $f(\alpha, T | \mathbf{x})$.

Repeat:

- 1 Simulate a value (α^*, T^*) from the prior:

$$(\alpha_1^*, \dots, \alpha_m^*) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\phi_1, \dots, \phi_m)$$

$$t_{i,m+1}^* \sim \text{Gamma}(\nu_{i,m+1}, \zeta_i), \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, m.$$

$$t_{ij}^* \sim \text{Gamma}(\nu_{ij}, \zeta_i), \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, m; j \neq i.$$

Reject and repeat if $|\det(T^*)| < \varepsilon$

- 2 Simulate an iid sample $x_i^* \sim \text{PH}(\alpha^*, T^*)$, for $i = 1, \dots, n$.
- 3 Compute the sample moments of the simulated sample:

$$r_k^* = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i^*)^k, \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, m,$$

ABC for PH distributions

Once we have the simulated samples, we propose to accept e.g. the 1% of them with the smallest Mahalabobis distance:

$$d_M(\log \mathbf{r}^*, \log \mathbf{r}) = \sqrt{(\log \mathbf{r}^* - \log \mathbf{r})^T S_r^{-1} (\log \mathbf{r}^* - \log \mathbf{r})}$$

where:

- $\log \mathbf{r}^*$ are the log moments of each simulated sample.
- $\log \mathbf{r}$ are the log moments of the observed sample.
- S_r is the sample covariance matrix of the moments, $\log \mathbf{r}^*$ using the whole set of simulations.

As usual, we may then obtain a predictive sample by sampling for each accepted pair (α^*, T^*) :

- Sample $x_{n+1}^* \sim PH(\alpha^*, T^*)$

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We generate $n = 100$ observations from a PH distribution with $m = 4$ phases, $\alpha = (1, 0, 0, 0)$ and

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} -1.29 & 0.1 & 0.67 & 0.29 \\ 0.88 & -5.84 & 2.71 & 2.11 \\ 0.42 & 0.54 & -2.86 & 0.05 \\ 2.97 & 0.12 & 1.09 & -4.73 \end{bmatrix}$$

We implement the proposed ABC method for 10000 iterations using a non informative prior:

$$(\alpha_1^*, \dots, \alpha_m^*) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(1, \dots, 1)$$

$$t_{i,m+1}^* \sim \text{Gamma}(0.01, 0.01), \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, m.$$

$$t_{ij}^* \sim \text{Gamma}(0.01, 0.01), \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, m; j \neq i.$$

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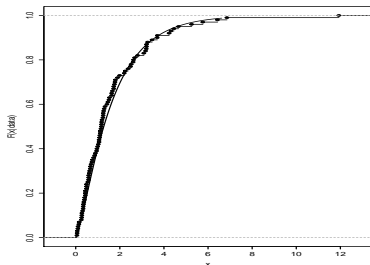
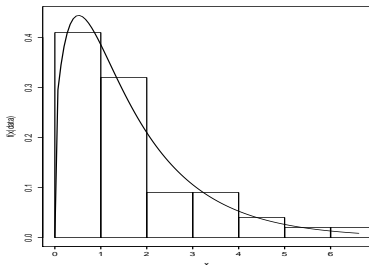
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The figures show a histogram and the empirical cdf of the approximated predictive sample together with the true exponential pdf and cdf, resp.



Ruin probabilities

Assume a **risk reserve process**, R_t , defined by:

$$R_t = u + ct - \sum_{i=1}^{N(t)} X_i,$$

where:

- u is the initial capital of the insurance company.
- c is the premium income per unit time.
- $N(t)$ is number of claims arrived up to time t .
- X_1, X_2, \dots are iid claim sizes independent from $N(t)$.

Further, we assume that:

- $N(t)$ follows a Poisson process of rate λ .
- Claim sizes are iid following a $\text{PH}(\alpha, T)$ distribution

Ruin probabilities

Given the equilibrium condition,

$$-\lambda\alpha T^{-1}\mathbf{1} < c$$

the **limit probability of ruin** of the company is given by:

$$\Pr\left(\inf_{t>0} R_t < 0 \mid R_0 = u\right) = \alpha_+ \exp\left\{\left(T + \mathbf{T}^0\alpha_+\right)u\right\} \mathbf{1}$$

where $\alpha_+ = -\lambda\alpha T^{-1}$.

Otherwise, the limit ruin probability is one.

Note that the problem of estimating the ruin probability for this model is equivalent to estimating the **stationary waiting time** in a M/PH/1 queueing system with Poisson arrival rate λ and PH(α, T) distributed service times.

Ruin probabilities

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Assume now that we have a sample, $\mathbf{t} = \{t_1, \dots, t_n\}$, of **interarrival claim times** from a Poisson process of rate λ .

And we also have the corresponding sample of **claim sizes**, $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, that we assume to be generated from a $\text{PH}(\alpha, T)$.

We may assume the standard conjugate prior, $\lambda \sim \text{Gamma}(a, b)$ such that the posterior is,

$$\lambda \mid \mathbf{t} \sim \text{Gamma}\left(a + n, b + \sum_{i=1}^n t_i\right).$$

Therefore, given a sample from $\lambda \mid \mathbf{t}$ and a sample from $(\alpha, T) \mid \mathbf{x}$ obtained from the ABC algorithm, we can obtain a sample of **ruin probabilities** that can be used to approximate credible intervals for the ruin probabilities.

Example

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Assume we have a sample of $n = 100$ claim sizes simulated in the previous example from a PH distribution with $m = 4$ phases, $\alpha = (1, 0, 0, 0)$ and

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} -1.29 & 0.1 & 0.67 & 0.29 \\ 0.88 & -5.84 & 2.71 & 2.11 \\ 0.42 & 0.54 & -2.86 & 0.05 \\ 2.97 & 0.12 & 1.09 & -4.73 \end{bmatrix}$$

Also, we simulate $n = 100$ interarrival times from an exponential distribution with, $\lambda = 0.5$.

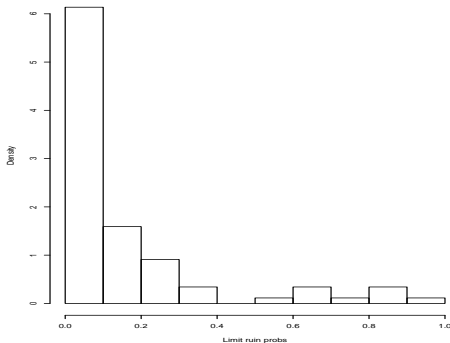
Given the simulated data, a premium income, $c = 1$ and initial capital $u = 10$, we want to estimate the posterior distribution for the limit ruin probability.

Example for ruin probabilities

For the true parameters, the equilibrium condition holds:

$$-\lambda\alpha T^{-1}\mathbf{1} = 0.8407 < 1 \text{ and the true ruin probability is } 0.2884.$$

The figure shows the posterior sample from ruin probabilities:



A 95% credible interval is $[0, 0.7213]$.

Extensions

- Up to now, we have assumed that the number of phases, m , is known. However, we could impose a **prior distribution on m** and use ABC to sample from the joint posterior of (m, α, T) .
- We have observed that problems may appear when there are many zeros in the intensity matrix, T . One possibility could be to impose **positive prior mass on zero** values for the off diagonal elements of T .
- Another alternative could be to consider **canonical representations** of PH distributions.
 - As mentioned, the **Coxian family** represents the whole set of acyclic PH distributions.
 - There is also a canonical representation for the whole set of PH distributions called **monocyclic representation**. However, the order of this PH representation is often larger than that of the original representation.

- The efficiency of the proposed approach could be also improved by considering the ABC-MCMC approach.

For $s = 1$ to S :

- 1 Simulate a value $(\alpha^{(s)}, T^{(s)}) \sim q(\alpha, T \mid \alpha^{(s-1)}, T^{(s-1)})$.
Reject and repeat if $|\det(T^{(s)})| < \varepsilon$
- 2 Simulate an iid sample $x_i^{(s)} \sim PH(\alpha^{(s)}, T^{(s)})$, for $i = 1, \dots, n$.
- 3 Compute the sample moments, $r_k^{(s)}$, of $\mathbf{x}^{(s)}$, for $k = 1, \dots, m$.
- 4 If $d_M(\log \mathbf{r}^{(s)}, \log \mathbf{r}) < \epsilon$, accept $(\alpha^{(s)}, T^{(s)})$ with probability:

$$\min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(\alpha^{(s)}, T^{(s)})q(\alpha^{(s-1)}, T^{(s-1)} \mid \alpha^{(s)}, T^{(s)})}{\pi(\alpha^{(s-1)}, T^{(s-1)})q(\alpha^{(s)}, T^{(s)} \mid \alpha^{(s-1)}, T^{(s-1)})} \right\}$$

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