

Distributional Regression for Actuarial Applications: Distributional Refinement Network

Insurance Data Science Conference

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A key task in actuarial modelling is to learn a multivariate function $\mathbf{f}$, or univariate f , parameterised by $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, to make “predictions” about insurance loss Y given covariates $\mathbf{X}$, which defines a risk profile.

- **Option 1 (Point Estimate):** Assume the loss is exactly equal to the model output, i.e.,

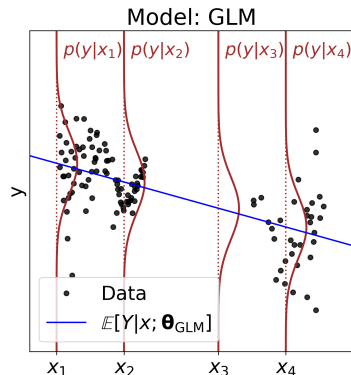
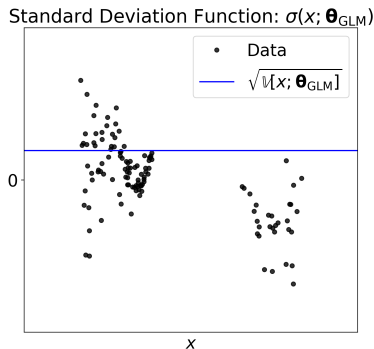
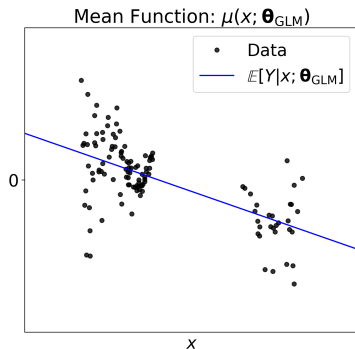
$$f(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mu(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}[Y|\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}].$$

- **Option 2 (Distributional Regression):** Assume the loss (conditional on $\mathbf{x}$) is drawn from a distribution $\mathcal{D}$, with distributional parameters, e.g., $\mathbb{E}[Y|\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}]$, $\sqrt{\mathbb{V}[Y|\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}]}$, $\dots$, determined by the modelled function:

$$Y|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \sim \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})).$$

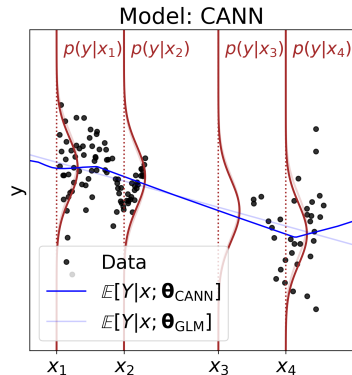
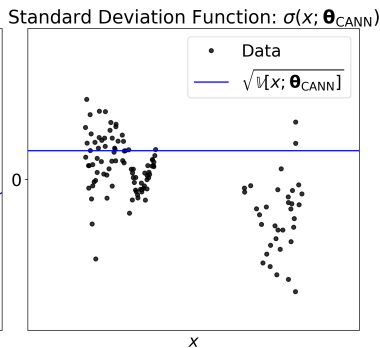
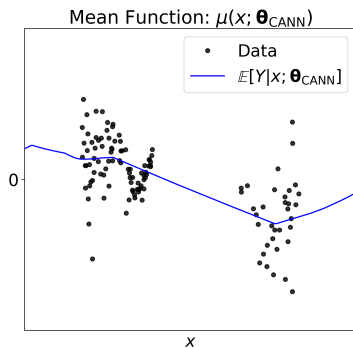
Model 1: Generalised Linear Models (GLMs)

- **Nelder and Wedderburn (1972)**: $Y|\mathbf{f}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}}), \sigma^2(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}}))$, i.e., $\mathbf{f}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}}) = [\mu(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}}), \sigma(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}})]^\top$.
 - A simple mean function: $\mu(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}}) = \mathbb{E}[Y|x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}}] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$.
 - A constant standard deviation function (in the Gaussian case): $\sigma(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}}) = \sqrt{\mathbb{V}[Y|x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}}]} = \hat{\sigma}_{\text{GLM}}$.



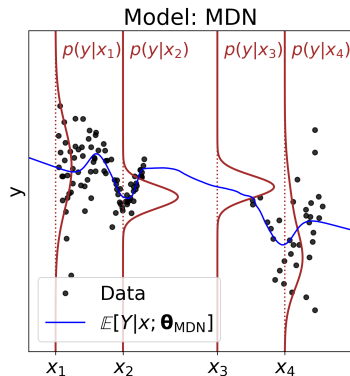
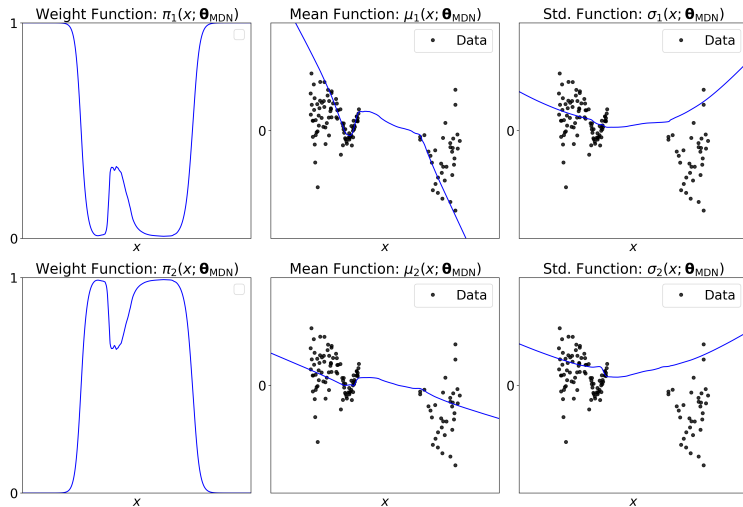
Model 2: Combined Actuarial Neural Networks (CANNs)

- [Schelldorfer and Wüthrich \(2019\)](#): $Y|\mathbf{f}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{CANN}}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{CANN}}), \sigma^2(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{CANN}}))$, i.e., $\mathbf{f}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{CANN}}) = [\mu(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{CANN}}), \sigma(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{CANN}})]^\top$.
- Flexible and correlated mean and standard deviation functions:
 $\mu(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{CANN}}) = \sum_{j=1}^J \phi_j(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{CANN}}) + \mu(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}})$, $\sigma(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{CANN}}) = \hat{\sigma}_{\text{CANN}}$, where ϕ_j 's are expressive basis functions learnt by the neural network.



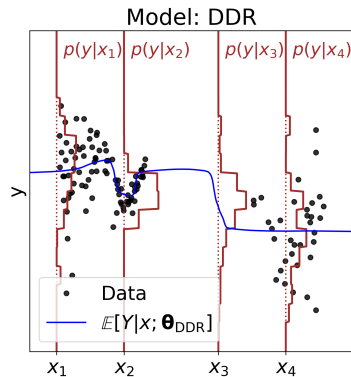
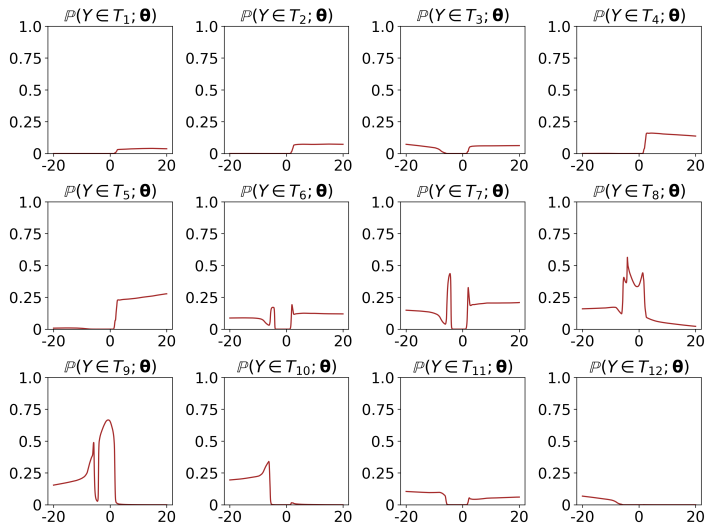
Model 3: Mixture Density Networks (MDNs)

- Bishop (1994): $Y|\mathbf{f}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{MDN}}) \sim \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{MDN}}) \cdot \mathcal{N}(\mu_k(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{MDN}}), \sigma_k^2(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{MDN}}))$,
i.e., $\mathbf{f}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{MDN}}) = [\boldsymbol{\pi}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{MDN}})^\top, \boldsymbol{\mu}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{MDN}})^\top, \boldsymbol{\sigma}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{MDN}})^\top]^\top$.



Model 4: Deep Distribution Regression (DDR)

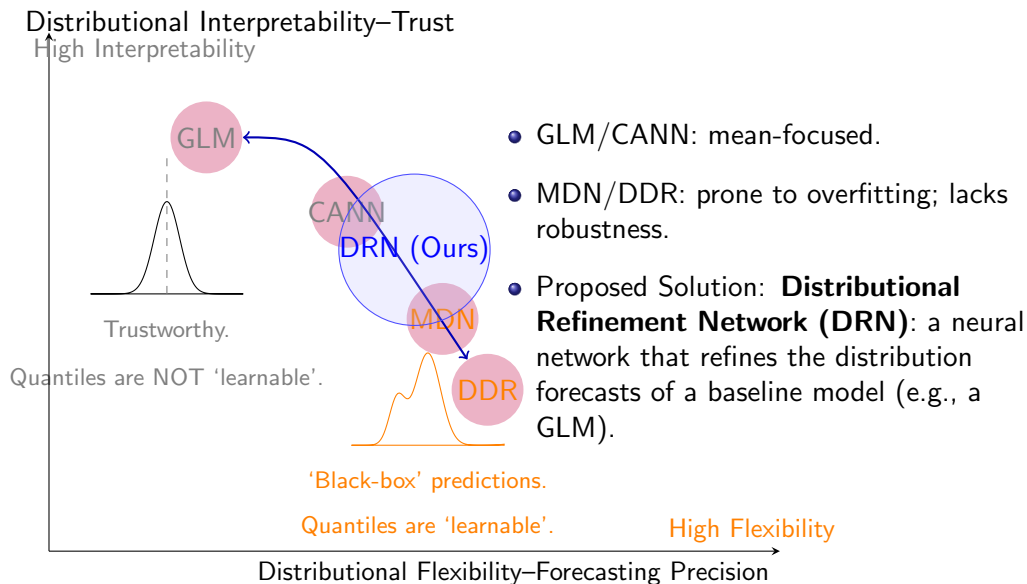
- Li et al. (2021): $Y|\mathbf{f}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DDR}}) \sim \sum_{k=1}^K f_k(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DDR}}) \cdot \mathcal{U}(c_{k-1}, c_k)$, where $\mathbf{f}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DDR}}) = [\mathbb{P}(Y \in T_1 | \mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DDR}}), \dots, \mathbb{P}(Y \in T_K | \mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DDR}})]^\top$, and $T_k = [c_{k-1}, c_k)$.



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Why Distributional Refinement Networks (DRNs)?



Distributional Refinement Networks (DRNs)

- DRNs can **incorporate a baseline** model and are initialised to align closely with its distributional behaviour.
- DRNs **adopt a novel training loss** function:

$$\mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{X}, Y)}[\mathcal{L}(Y, \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DRN}}))] = \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{X}, Y)} \left[\underbrace{-\log(p(Y|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DRN}})))}_{\text{Data Loss}} \right] \quad (1)$$

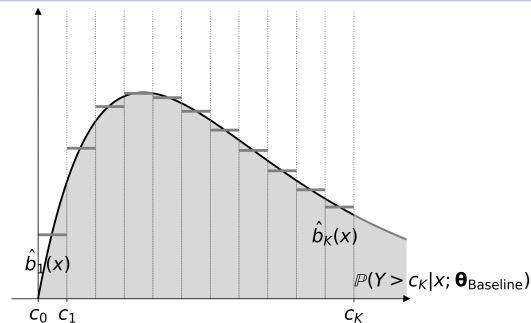
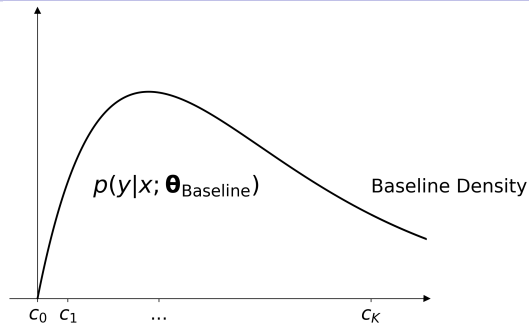
$$+ \alpha_1 \cdot \underbrace{d(p_{Y|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DRN}})}, p_{Y|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{Baseline}})})}_{\text{Distributional Resemblance}} \quad (2)$$

$$+ \alpha_2 \cdot \underbrace{\text{second_order_diff}(p_{Y|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DRN}})})^2}_{\text{Density Smoothness Loss}} \quad (3)$$

$$+ \alpha_3 \cdot \underbrace{(\mathbb{E}[Y|\mathbf{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DRN}}] - \mathbb{E}[Y|\mathbf{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{Baseline}}])^2}_{\text{Mean Resemblance Loss}} \quad (4)$$

where $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a chosen divergence measure that quantifies the statistical distance between two probability distributions, e.g., KL divergence.

Baseline Integration

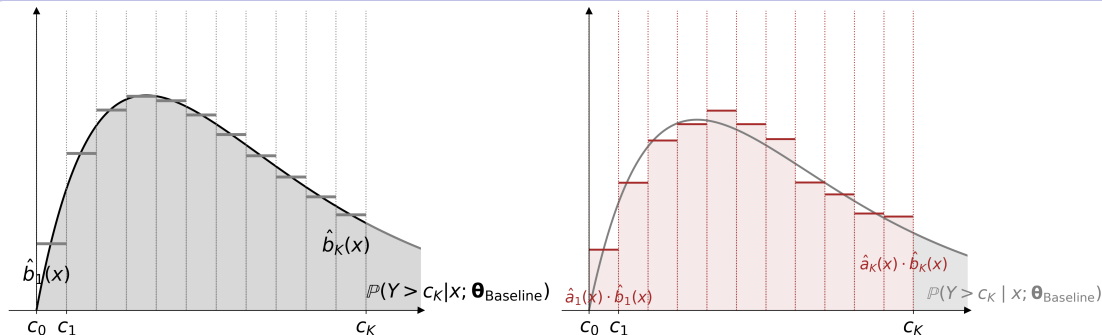


We first approximate the baseline distribution using a K -component mixture of uniform distributions over a refinement region $[c_0, c_K)$, defined by ordered cutpoints $\{c_k\}_{k=0}^K$:

$$p(y|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \theta_{\text{Baseline}})) = \begin{cases} \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^K \int_{c_{k-1}}^{c_k} p(y|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \theta_{\text{Baseline}})) \, dy \cdot \frac{\mathbb{1}_{\{y \in [c_{k-1}, c_k)\}}}{c_k - c_{k-1}}}_{\hat{b}_k(\mathbf{x})}, & \text{if } y \in [c_0, c_K), \\ p(y|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \theta_{\text{Baseline}})), & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

(5)

Adjustment Factors



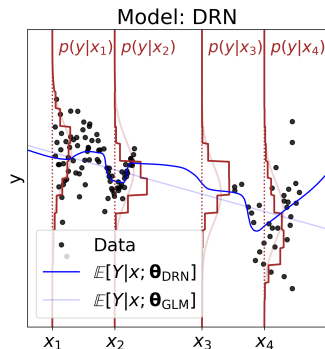
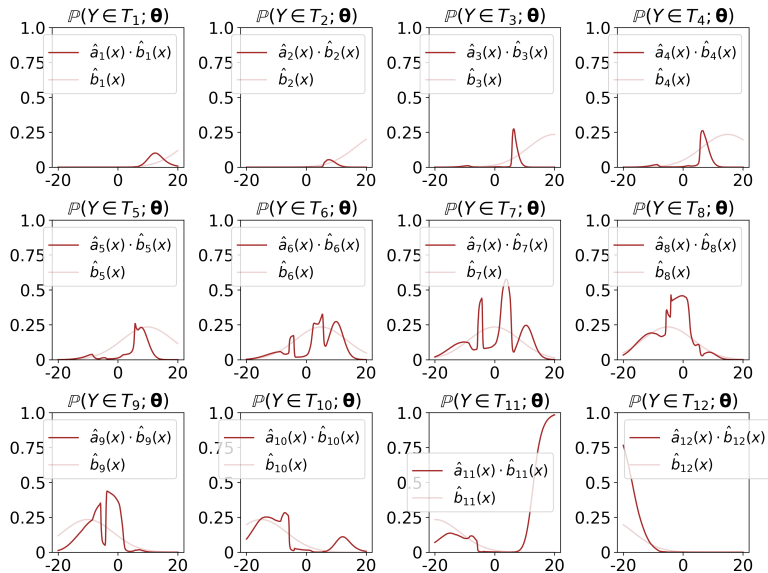
Subsequently, the neural network component learns the “adjustment” function:

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \theta_{\text{DRN}}) \equiv \hat{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{x}) = [\hat{a}_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \hat{a}_K(\mathbf{x})]^\top, \quad (6)$$

which directly refines the baseline model:

$$p(y | \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \theta_{\text{DRN}})) = \begin{cases} \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{a}_k(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \hat{b}_k(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \frac{\mathbb{1}_{\{y \in [c_{k-1}, c_k)\}}}{c_k - c_{k-1}}, & \text{if } y \in [c_0, c_K), \\ p(y | \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \theta_{\text{Baseline}})) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Distributional Refinement



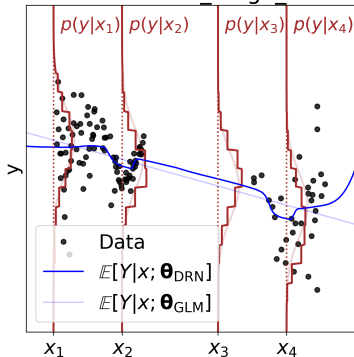
Controlled Distributional Refinement

Empirically, with a GLM baseline and KL divergence regularisation, a DRN minimises:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Data Loss} + \alpha_1 \cdot \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_{\text{Train}}|} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{Train}}} D_{\text{KL}}[p_{Y|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{DRN}})} \| p_{Y|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{GLM}})}] \\ & + 0.001 \cdot \text{Density Smoothness Loss} + 0 \cdot \text{Mean Resemblance Loss} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

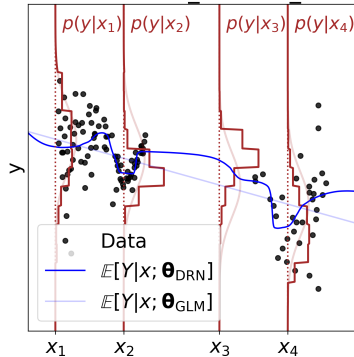
• Large α_1

Model: DRN Large KL



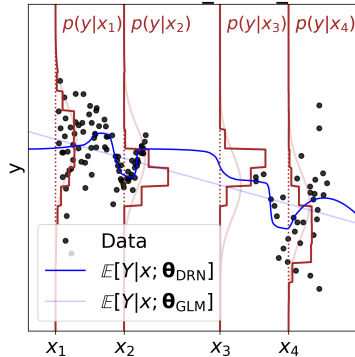
• Medium α_1

Model: DRN Medium KL



• Small α_1

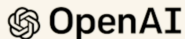
Model: DRN Small KL



A Fun Fact

The KL regularisation term is used in AI Chat Models.

State-of-the-art LLMs still use this approach



“Following Jaques et al. (2017; 2019), we use a KL constraint to prevent the fine-tuned model from drifting too far from the pretrained model.”

- [Fine-Tuning Language Models from Human Preferences](#) (2019)
- [Learning to summarize from human feedback](#) (2020)
- [InstructGPT / ChatGPT](#) (2022)
- [Direct Preference Optimization \(DPO\)](#) (2024)



$$\mathcal{J}_{GRPO}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[q \sim P(Q), \{o_i\}_{i=1}^G \sim \pi_{\theta, \text{old}}(O|q)]$$
$$\frac{1}{G} \sum_{i=1}^G \left(\min \left(\frac{\pi_{\theta}(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta, \text{old}}(o_i|q)} A_i, \text{clip} \left(\frac{\pi_{\theta}(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta, \text{old}}(o_i|q)}, 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon \right) A_i \right) - \beta \mathbb{D}_{\text{KL}}(\pi_{\theta} || \pi_{\text{ref}}) \right), \quad (1)$$

$$\mathbb{D}_{\text{KL}}(\pi_{\theta} || \pi_{\text{ref}}) = \frac{\pi_{\text{ref}}(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta}(o_i|q)} - \log \frac{\pi_{\text{ref}}(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta}(o_i|q)} - 1, \quad (2)$$

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drn Python Package

The code below provides a minimal working example of how to use the drn package to train a DRN, with the data preprocessing steps omitted for brevity.

```
from drn import GLM, DRN, drn_cutpoints, train
import pandas as pd
import torch

train_dataset = torch.utils.data.TensorDataset(X_train, y_train)
val_dataset = torch.utils.data.TensorDataset(X_val, y_val)

c_0, c_K = 0, y_train.max().item() * 1.1
cutpoints = drn_cutpoints(c_0, c_K, proportion=0.1, y=y_train)
glm = GLM.from_statsmodels(X_train, y_train, distribution="gamma")

drn_model = DRN(glm, cutpoints, hidden_size=128, num_hidden_layers=2)
train(drn_model, train_dataset, val_dataset, batch_size=256, epochs=10)
```

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Conclusion

- 1 We propose the **Distributional Refinement Network (DRN)**—a neural network that refines a baseline model from a distributional perspective, providing
 - **High distributional flexibility** for distributional regression.
 - E.g., modelling the full conditional distribution.
 - **Controlled anchoring to a trusted baseline**, enhancing trust and improving robustness.
 - E.g., when a strong inductive bias toward the baseline or limited refinement is preferred.
- 2 A developed `drn` Python package for distributional regression networks, including implementations of MDNs, CANNs, and DRNs.



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Bishop, C.M., 1994. Mixture density networks .

Li, R., Reich, B.J., Bondell, H.D., 2021. Deep distribution regression. Computational Statistics & Data Analysis 159, 107203.

Nelder, J.A., Wedderburn, R.W.M., 1972. Generalized linear models. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series A (General) 135, 370–384. URL: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2344614>.

Schelldorfer, J., Wüthrich, M.V., 2019. Nesting classical actuarial models into neural networks. SSRN .