

Analysis methods of heavy-tailed data

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Special References:

- ❶ **Beirlant, J., Goegebeur, Y., Teugels, J. and Segers, J. (2004)** *Statistics of Extremes: Theory and Applications*. Wiley, Chichester, West Sussex.
- ❷ **Embrechts, P., Klüppelberg, C. and Mikosch, T. (1997)** *Modeling Extremal Events*. Springer, Berlin.
- ❸ **Markovich, N.M. (2007)** *Nonparametric Analysis of Univariate Heavy-Tailed data: Research and Practice*. Wiley, Chichester, West Sussex.
- ❹ **Resnick, S.I. (2006)** *Heavy-Tail Phenomena. Probabilistic and Statistical Modeling*. Springer, New York.
- ❺ **Any basic course of probability theory and statistics.**

Required Knowledge:

Mathematical analysis, probability theory and statistics.

The course contains

- Practical exercises
- Theoretical exercises
- Control questions

The Modul 1 contains the introduction

with necessary definitions, basic properties and examples of heavy-tailed data. The tail index indicates the shape of the tail and therefore it is the basic characteristic of heavy-tailed data. Methods of tail index estimation are presented. Finally, several rough tools for the detection of heavy-tails, the number of finite moments and dependence are considered.

Modul 1: Lesson 1

Definitions and basic properties of heavy-tailed distributions

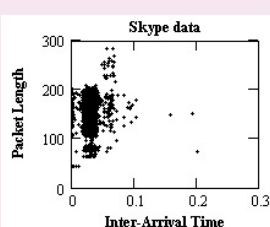
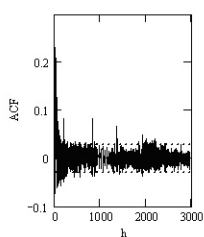
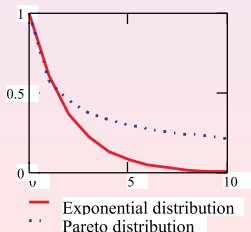
Definition of heavy-tailed distributions

Let X_1, \dots, X_n be a sample of **independent, identically distributed** (i.i.d.) r.v.s X_i governed by the distribution function (DF) $F(x) = \mathbb{P}\{X \leq x\}$ with probability density function (PDF) $f(x) = dF(x)/dx$.

Definition

A DF $F(x)$ (or the r.v. X) is called **heavy-tailed** if its tail $\bar{F}(x) = 1 - F(x) > 0$, $x \geq 0$ satisfies for all $y > 0$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}\{X > x + y | X > x\} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \bar{F}(x + y) / \bar{F}(x) = 1.$$



Examples of heavy- and light-tailed distributions

Heavy-tailed distributions:	Subexponential: Pareto, Lognormal, Weibull with shape parameter less than 1. With regularly varying tails: Pareto, Cauchy, Burr, Frechét, Zipf-Mandelbrot law. Super heavy-tailed: log-Cauchy
Light-tailed distributions	exponential, gamma, Weibull with shape parameter more than 1, normal, finite distributions.

Example of non-heavy tailed distribution: Exponential distribution $F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$, $x \geq 0$ satisfies

$$\bar{F}(x+y)/\bar{F}(x) = e^{-\lambda(x+y)}/e^{-\lambda x} = e^{-\lambda y} \rightarrow 0$$

as $x \rightarrow \infty$, $x \geq 0$, $y > 0$

Exercise 1:

Prove that normal distribution is not heavy-tailed.

Heavy-tailed distributions have been accepted as realistic models for various phenomena:

- WWW-session characteristics
 - sizes and durations of sub-sessions; sizes of responses
 - inter-response time intervals
- on/off-periods of packet traffic
- file sizes
- service-time in queueing model
- flood levels of rivers
- major insurance claims
- extreme levels of ozon concentrations
- high wind-speed values
- wave heights during a storm
- low and high temperatures

Basic definitions and results: Max-stable law

Let $X^n = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ be a sample of i.i.d. r.v. distributed with the DF $F(x)$ and $M_n = \max(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$.

Gnedenko (1943): Extreme value theory assumes that for a suitable choice of normalizing constants $a_n > 0$, b_n real it holds

$$\mathbb{P}\{(M_n - b_n)/a_n \leq x\} = F^n(b_n + a_n x) \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow \infty} H_\gamma(x), x \in R,$$

and an **Extreme Value** DF $H_\gamma(x)$ is of the following type:

$$H_\gamma(x) = \begin{cases} \exp(-x^{-1/\gamma}), & x > 0, \gamma > 0 & \text{'Fréchet'} & \Phi_\alpha(x), \\ \exp(-(-x)^{-1/\gamma}), & x < 0, \gamma < 0 & \text{'Weibull'} & \Psi_\alpha(x), \\ \exp(-e^{-x}), & \gamma = 0, x \in R & \text{'Gumbel'} & \Lambda(x). \end{cases}$$

Definition

The parameter γ is called the extreme value index (EVI) and defines the shape of the tail of the r.v. X .

The parameter $\alpha = 1/\gamma$ is called tail index.

Basic definitions and results: Max-stable law

The distribution $H_\gamma(x)$ can also be rewritten as

$$H_\gamma(x) = \begin{cases} \exp(-(1 + \gamma x)^{-1/\gamma}), & 1 + \gamma x > 0, & \text{if } \gamma \neq 0 \\ \exp(-e^{-x}), & x \in R & \text{if } \gamma = 0. \end{cases}$$

Transformation of max-stable random variables

If $X > 0$ has a 'Fréchet' Φ_α distribution

- $\log X^\alpha$ has a 'Gumbel' distribution Λ
- $-X^{-1}$ has a 'Weibull' distribution Ψ_α

Exercise 2:

Prove these transformations

Basic definitions and results: Min-stable law

Since $\min_{1 \leq i \leq n} X_i = -\max_{1 \leq i \leq n} (-X_i)$ the min-stable law is determined by

$$G_{\theta}^*(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - \exp(-(1 - \theta x)^{-1/\theta}), & 1 - \theta x > 0, \text{ if } \theta \neq 0 \\ 1 - \exp(-e^x), & x \in R \quad \text{if } \theta = 0. \end{cases}$$

θ is EVI for minima, measures the heaviness of the left-tail function $F(x)$, as $x \rightarrow -\infty$.

Basic results: Pickands's theorem

The limit distribution of the excess distribution of the i.i.d. X_i 's is necessarily of the Generalized Pareto form

$$\lim_{u \uparrow x_F, u+x < x_F} \mathbb{P}(X_1 - u > x | X_1 > u) = \Psi_{\sigma, \gamma}(x), \quad x \in R,$$

where

$$x_F = \sup\{x \in R : F(x) < 1\}$$

is the right endpoint of the distribution F and the shape parameter $\gamma \in R$.

Therefore, **the Generalized Pareto distribution (GPD)** with DF

$$\Psi_{\sigma, \gamma}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - (1 + \gamma x / \sigma)^{-1/\gamma}, & \gamma \neq 0, \\ 1 - \exp(-x/\sigma), & \gamma = 0, \end{cases}$$

where $\sigma \geq 0$, $x \geq 0$ for $\gamma \geq 0$; $0 \leq x \leq -\sigma/\gamma$ for $\gamma < 0$,
is often used as a **model of the tail** of the distribution.

Classification of distribution tails

- 1 $H_\gamma(x)$, $\gamma < 0 \leftrightarrow$ **short tails** with finite right endpoint
(Beta, Uniform)
- 2 $H_\gamma(x)$, $\gamma = 0 \leftrightarrow$ exponentially decaying tails, **light-tailed**
(Normal, Gamma) or **moderate heavy-tailed** (Lognormal)

$$\bar{F}(x) \sim \exp(-x), \quad x \rightarrow +\infty$$

- 3 $H_\gamma(x)$, $\gamma > 0 \leftrightarrow$ polynomially decaying tails, **heavy-tailed**
with infinite right endpoint
(Pareto, Cauchy, Student, Fréchet)

$$\bar{F}(x) \sim x^{-1/\gamma} = x^{-\alpha}, \quad x \rightarrow +\infty$$

Modul 1: Lesson 2

Classes of heavy-tailed distributions

The classes of heavy-tailed distributions

- **distributions with regularly varying tails (RVT)**

$(X \in \mathcal{R}_{-1/\gamma} \text{ or } X \in \mathcal{RV}_{-\alpha})$

$$\mathbb{P}\{X > x\} = x^{-1/\gamma} \ell(x), \forall x > 0, \gamma > 0,$$

where $\ell(x)$ is a slowly varying function, i.e.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ell(tx)/\ell(x) = 1, \quad \forall t > 0.$$

Examples:

Pareto, Burr, Fréchet distributions belong to *RVT*.

Examples of $\ell(x)$ give $c > 0$, $c \ln x$, $c \ln(\ln x)$, $\min(x, i)$ for $i \geq 1$ and all functions converging to positive constants.

Exercise 3:

Prove that $\ell(x) = \ln(\ln x)$ is slowly varying

Examples of not regularly varying functions

The following functions are not regularly varying

$$2 + \sin x, \quad e^{\lfloor \ln(1+x) \rfloor}$$

By inequality

$$x^{-\alpha} \ell_1(x) \leq f(x) \leq x^{-\alpha} \ell_2(x)$$

it does not follow that $f(x)$ is regularly varying function.

Example: $\ell_1(x) = 1$, $\ell_2(x) = 3$, $f(x) = x^{-\alpha}(2 + \sin x)$.

The classes of heavy-tailed distributions

- **subexponential distributions (S)** ($X \in \mathcal{S}$)

Let X, X_1, \dots, X_n be i.i.d. non-negative RV r.v.s.

$$\mathbb{P}\{S_n > x\} \sim n\mathbb{P}\{X > x\} \sim \mathbb{P}\{M_n > x\} \quad \text{as} \quad x \rightarrow \infty,$$

where $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$, $n \geq 2$, $M_n = \max_{i=1, \dots, n} \{X_i\}$.

Example:

Weibull with shape parameter τ less than 1 belongs to S:

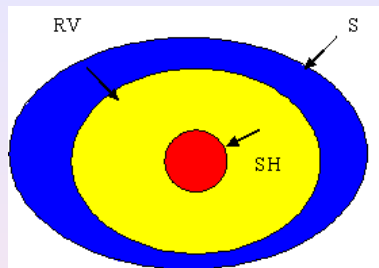
$$\bar{F}(x) = e^{-cx^\tau},$$

where $c > 0$, $0 < \tau < 1$.

Intuitively, subexponentiality means

that the only way the sum of i.i.d. r.v.s X_1, \dots, X_n can be large is by one of the summands getting large (in contrast, in the light-tailed case all summands are large if the sum is so).

Classes of Heavy-Tailed Distributions



Classes of heavy-tailed distributions:

subexponential (S), regularly varying (RV) and superheavy-tailed (SH)

Existence of distribution moments

- $\bar{F} \in RV_{-\alpha}$: heavy-tailed distributions have only **finite moments of order $< \alpha$** , $\alpha > 0$,
 $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \bar{F}(tx)/\bar{F}(t) = x^{-\alpha}$ for any $x > 0$
- $\bar{F} \in RV_0$: super-heavy-tailed distributions have **no finite moments** of any order, $\alpha = 0$,
 $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \bar{F}(tx)/\bar{F}(t) = 1$ for any $x > 0$, **slowly varying tail**

Examples of super-heavy tailed distributions

$$\overline{F}(x) = 1 - F(x) = x^{-1/\sqrt{\log x}}, \quad x > 1 \quad (1)$$

$$\overline{F}(x) = (\log x)^{-\beta}, \quad x \geq e, \beta > 0 \quad (2)$$

Cauchy distribution:

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \arctan \left(\frac{x - x_0}{\gamma} \right) + \frac{1}{2}, \quad x_0 \in R, \gamma > 0.$$

Exercise 4:

Prove that (1) and (2) are super-heavy-tailed, i.e.

$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \overline{F}(tx)/\overline{F}(t) = 1$ for any $x > 0$ is fulfilled.

Exercise 5:

Find other examples of super-heavy tailed distributions.

Property of super-heavy tailed distributions

Super-heavy tailed distribution does not need to belong to the domain of attraction of any extreme value distribution $H_\gamma(x)$.

Let us consider this on example (1).

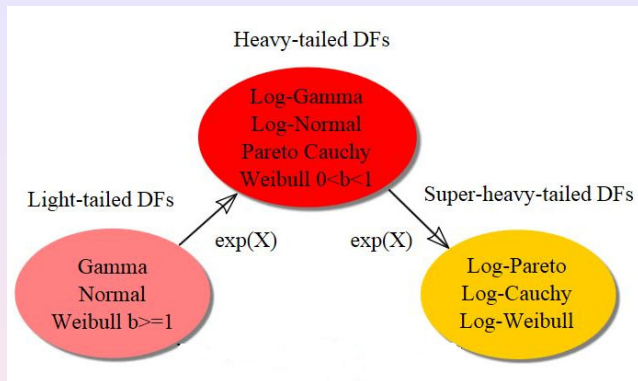
Since for any $c > 0$ we have $x^{-c}/(1 - F(x)) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, there are no normalizing sequences a_n and b_n such that

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\max_{1 \leq j \leq n} X_j \leq a_n x + b_n\right\} = F^n(a_n x + b_n) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} H_\gamma(x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Gnedenko's theorem

is not fulfilled for super-heavy tailed distributions.

Transformations Between Classes of Distributions



Exercise 6:

If X is Weibull distributed with shape parameter $\tau \geq 1$. Will $Y = \exp X$ be heavy- or super-heavy-tailed distributed?

Basic properties of heavy-tailed distributions

Heavy-tailed distributions	<p>Not all moments of the distribution exist or no one moment exists; Tail index $\alpha \geq 0$</p> <p>The distribution function $F(x) < 1$ for any x;</p> <p>Infinite end-point $x_F = \sup\{x \in R : F(x) < 1\}$;</p> <p>Hazard rate $h(x) = f(x)/\overline{F(x)}$ tends to 0 as $x \rightarrow \infty$</p> <p>$\overline{F(x)} \gg f(x) \gg f'(x) \gg \dots$,</p> <p>where $\overline{F(x)} = 1 - F(x)$ is the tail function,</p> <p>$f(x) = F'(x)$ is the probability density function</p>
Light-tailed distributions	<p>All moments of the distribution exist;</p> <p>Tail index $\alpha < 0$</p> <p>The distribution function $F(x) \leq 1$ for any x;</p> <p>For Weibull class end-point x_F is finite;</p> <p>For Gumbel class x_F is (in)finite</p> <p>Hazard rate $h(x)$ tends to ∞ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ or is constant</p> <p>$\overline{F(x)}, f(x), f'(x), \dots$ have the same magnitude.</p>

Basic properties of regularly varying distributions:

Lemma

Let $X \in \mathcal{R}_{-\alpha}$. Then,

- (i) $X \in \mathcal{S}$.*
- (ii) $\mathbb{E}\{X^\beta\} < \infty$ if $\beta < \alpha$, $\mathbb{E}\{X^\beta\} = \infty$ if $\beta \geq \alpha$.*
- (iii) If $\alpha > 1$, then $X^r \in \mathcal{R}_{1-\alpha}$ and*

$$\mathbb{P}\{X^r > x\} \sim \ell(x)x^{1-\alpha}/((\alpha-1)\mathbb{E}\{X\}) \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

- (iv) If Y is non-negative and independent of X such that $\mathbb{P}\{Y > x\} = \ell_2(x)x^{-\alpha_2}$, then $X + Y \in \mathcal{R}_{-\min(\alpha, \alpha_2)}$ and $\mathbb{P}\{X + Y > x\} \sim \mathbb{P}\{X > x\} + \mathbb{P}\{Y > x\}$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.*
- (v) If Y is non-negative and independent of X such that $\mathbb{E}\{Y^{\alpha+\varepsilon}\} < \infty$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$ then $XY \in \mathcal{R}_{-\alpha}$ and*

$$\mathbb{P}\{XY > x\} \sim \mathbb{E}\{Y^\alpha\}\mathbb{P}\{X > x\} \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

Important property for the rough detection of heavy tails and the number of finite moments:

Let $X \in \mathcal{R}_{-\alpha}$.

Then $\mathbb{E}\{X^\beta\} < \infty$, if $\beta < 1/\gamma$; $\mathbb{E}\{X^\beta\} = \infty$, if $\beta > 1/\gamma$.

Examples:

- If $\alpha = 2$, $\gamma = 0.5$, then
 $\mathbb{E}X_1 < \infty$ (the first moment is finite),
 $\mathbb{E}X_1^2 = \infty$ (the second moment is infinite, i.e. it does not exist).
- If $\alpha = 0.5$, $\gamma = 2$, then
 $\mathbb{E}X_1 = \infty$, $\mathbb{E}X_1^2 = \infty \dots$ (all moments are infinite, i.e. they do not exist).

Modul 1: Lesson 3

Tail index estimation.

Estimators of tail index

$$X_{(1)} \leq X_{(2)} \leq \dots \leq X_{(n)}$$

are order statistics of the sample $X^n = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$

For $\gamma > 0$:

- **Hill's estimator**

$$\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \ln X_{(n-i+1)} - \ln X_{(n-k)}$$

- **Ratio estimator** Goldie, Smith, (1987)

$$a_n = a_n(x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(X_i/x_n) I\{X_i > x_n\} / \sum_{i=1}^n I\{X_i > x_n\},$$

x_n is an arbitrary threshold level, e.g., $x_n = X_{(n-k)}$

Bias reduced modification of the Hill's estimator

The Hill's estimator is biased, i.e. $E\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k) - \gamma \neq 0$. A bias reduced modification is **the generalized Jackknife estimator**

$$\hat{\gamma}_k^{GJ} = 2\hat{\gamma}_k^V - \hat{\gamma}^H(n, k),$$

where $\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)$ is the Hill's estimator of the extreme value index $\gamma = 1/\alpha$,

$$\hat{\gamma}_k^V = \frac{M_{n,k}}{2\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)}, \quad M_{n,k} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k Y_{(i,k)}^2, \quad Y_{(i,k)} = \log\left(\frac{X_{(n-i+1)}}{X_{(n-k)}}\right).$$

is proposed in Gomes et al. (2000)^a

^aGomes, I., Martins, J., Neves, M. Alternatives to a Semi-Parametric Estimator of Parameters of Rare Events - The Jackknife Methodology. Extremes (2000) 3, 207-229

Estimators of tail index

For $\gamma \in R$:

- **"Moment estimator"**, Dekkers, Einmahl, de Haan, (1989):

$$\hat{\gamma}^M(n, k) = \hat{\gamma}^H(n, k) + 1 - 0.5 \left(1 - (\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k))^2 / S_{n,k} \right)^{-1},$$

$$S_{n,k} = (1/k) \sum_{i=1}^k (\ln X_{(n-i+1)} - \ln X_{(n-k)})^2$$

- **"UH estimator"**, Berline, (1998)

$$\hat{\gamma}^{UH}(n, k) = (1/k) \sum_{i=1}^k \ln UH_i - \ln UH_{k+1}, \quad UH_i = X_{(n-i)} \hat{\gamma}^H(n, i)$$

- **Pickands's estimator**

$$\hat{\gamma}^P(n, k) = \frac{1}{\ln 2} \ln \frac{X_{(n-k+1)} - X_{(n-2k+1)}}{X_{(n-2k+1)} - X_{(n-4k+1)}}, \quad k \leq n/4$$

Group estimator, Davydov, Paulauskas, Račkauskas, (2000):

The sample X^n is divided into l groups V_1, \dots, V_l , each group containing m r.v.s, i.e. $n = l \cdot m$.

Estimator of the function of the tail index:

$$z_l = (1/l) \sum_{i=1}^l k_{li} = \frac{\hat{\alpha}}{\hat{\alpha} + 1} = \frac{1}{1 + \hat{\gamma}},$$

where

$$k_{li} = M_{li}^{(2)} / M_{li}^{(1)}, \quad M_{li}^{(1)} = \max\{X_j : X_j \in V_i\}$$

and $M_{li}^{(2)}$ is the second largest element in the same group V_i .

Group estimator, Davydov, Paulauskas, Račkauskas, (2000). Theoretical background.

- 1 For distributions with regularly varying tails

$$1 - F(x) = x^{-\alpha} \ell(x),$$

and $l = m = \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$, it is proved

$$Z_l \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + 1} = \frac{1}{1 + \gamma}.$$

- 2 For distributions

$$1 - F(x) = C_1 x^{-\alpha} + C_2 x^{-\beta} + o(x^{-\beta}),$$

with $\beta = 2\alpha$ it holds

$$l(l^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^l k_{l,i} - \alpha(1+\alpha)^{-1}) \left(\sum_{i=1}^l k_{l,i}^2 - l^{-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^l k_{l,i} \right)^2 \right)^{-1/2} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1) \quad (3)$$

Confidence interval of group estimate

Exercise 7:

Using (3) obtain the confidence interval of α .

Recursiveness of the estimate z_l . On-line estimation.

Having the next group of observations V_{l+1} it follows

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_{l+1} &= \left(\frac{1}{l+1} \sum_{i=1}^{l+1} k_{l+1,i} \right)^{-1} - 1 \\ &= \left(\frac{l}{l+1} \cdot \frac{1}{1+\gamma_l} + \frac{k_{l+1,l+1}}{l+1} \right)^{-1} - 1\end{aligned}$$

After getting i additional groups with m elements each V_{l+1}, \dots, V_{l+i}

$$\gamma_{l+i} = (l+i) \left(\frac{l}{1+\gamma_l} + k_{l+1,l+1} + \dots + k_{l+i,l+i} \right)^{-1} - 1, \quad (4)$$

i.e.

γ_{l+i} is obtained using γ_l by $O(1)$ calculations.

Recursiveness of the estimate z_l . On-line estimation.

Since

$$z_{l+i} = 1/(1 + \gamma_{l+i})$$

it holds from (4) that

$$z_{l+i} = \left(lz_l + \sum_{j=1}^i k_{l+j, l+j} \right) / (l+i),$$

The bias of z_{l+i} is the same as for z_l assuming the process is weak-sense stationary ($E k_{ij} = \text{const}$, $\forall i, j$), but the variance is less if $\{k_{ij}\}$ are uncorrelated

$$\text{bias}(z_{l+i}) = \text{bias}(z_l), \quad \text{var}(z_{l+i}) = \text{var}(z_l) l / (l+i), \quad (5)$$

$$\text{var}(z_{l+i}) < \text{var}(z_l) \quad \text{for} \quad \forall i > 0$$

Exercise 8:

Prove (5).

What estimator of the tail index is the best?

It is difficult to compare the estimators of γ .

One can only look at the asymptotic variances and biases of estimates for known distributions.

Example

For Pareto tail the moment estimator is unbiased for any γ , but the variance of this estimate is larger than the variance of the Hill's estimate. Besides, it is known that

$$\sqrt{k} \left(\hat{\gamma}^M(n, k) - \gamma \right) \rightarrow^d$$

$$\begin{cases} N(0, 1 + \gamma^2), & \gamma \geq 0, \\ N\left(0, (1 - \gamma)^2(1 - 2\gamma) \left(4 - 8\frac{1-2\gamma}{1-3\gamma} + \frac{(5-11\gamma)(1-2\gamma)}{(1-3\gamma)(1-4\gamma)} \right) \right), & \gamma < 0. \end{cases}$$

What estimator of the tail index is the best?

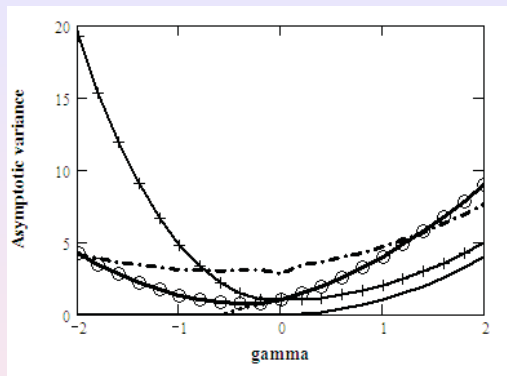


Figure 1.4. Asymptotic

variances of $\sqrt{k}(\hat{\gamma} - \gamma)$ for the Hill's, moment, *UH*, Pickands' and the POT ML estimators: *VarHill* (solid line), *VarM* (solid line marked by +), *VarUH* (solid line marked by o), *VarP* (— · — · —) and *VarMLP* (· · · · ·).

Modul 1: Lesson 4

Methods for the selection of the number of the largest order statistics in Hill estimator.

The visual selection of the number of the largest order statistics in Hill estimator

- **A Hill plot** $\{(k, \hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)), 1 \leq k \leq n - 1\}$:
the estimate of $\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)$ is chosen from an interval in which this function demonstrate stability.
- **Plot of the mean excess function**
 $\{(u, e(u)) : X_{(1)} < u < X_{(n)}\}$, where

$$e(u) = \mathbb{E}(X - u | X > u), \quad 0 \leq u < x_F \leq \infty,$$

$$e_n(u) = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - u) \mathbf{1}\{X_i > u\} / \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}\{X_i > u\}$$

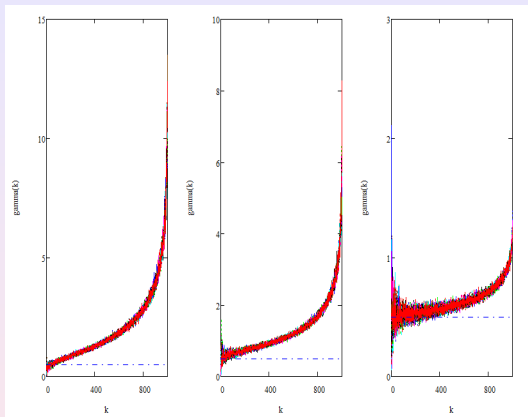
is the **sample mean excess function** over the threshold u . If this plot follows a reasonably straight line above a certain value of u , then this indicates that excesses over u follow $e^P(u) = (1 + \gamma u)/(1 - \gamma)$ of generalized Pareto distribution with positive shape parameter. The number of the nearest order statistics to u is used as the estimate of k .

Mean excess function of Pareto distribution

Exercise 9:

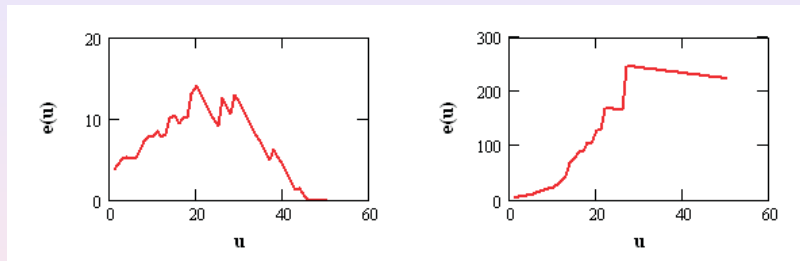
Prove $e^P(u)$.

The sensitivity of the Hill estimate to k .



The Hill's estimate against k for 15 samples of Weibull (left), Pareto (middle) and Frechét (right) distributions, all with shape parameter $\alpha = 1/\gamma = 0.5$. Sample size is $n = 1000$.

Plot of the mean excess function.



Left: Weibull distribution. Right: Pareto distribution. The shape parameter is 0.5, sample size 1000.

Bootstrap method for automatic selection of k .

- Minimizing of the empirical bootstrap estimate of the mean squared error of γ :

$$MSE(\hat{\gamma}_k) = \text{bias}^2 + \text{variance} = \mathbb{E}(\hat{\gamma}_k - \gamma)^2 \rightarrow \min_k.$$

$$\text{bias} = \mathbb{E}\hat{\gamma}_k - \gamma, \quad \text{variance} = \mathbb{E}(\hat{\gamma}_k - \mathbb{E}\hat{\gamma}_k)^2$$

Since γ is unknown we have to substitute MSE by its bootstrap estimate.

We have to select such k that

real MSE and its bootstrap analog will be close

Exercise 10:

Prove $MSE(\hat{\gamma}) = \text{bias}^2 + \text{variance}$.

Bootstrap method for k selection.

- The bootstrap estimate is obtained by drawing B samples with replacement from the original data set X^n .
- Smaller re-samples $\{X_1^*, \dots, X_{n_1}^*\}$ of the size

$$n_1 = n^\beta, \quad 0 < \beta < 1,$$

are used.

- The corresponding smaller k_1 and an optimal k are related by:

$$k = k_1(n/n_1)^\alpha, \quad 0 < \alpha < 1,$$

where $\beta = 1/2$ and $\alpha = 2/3$
for $\bar{F}(x) = C_0 x^{-1/\gamma} + C_1 x^{-2/\gamma} + o(x^{-2/\gamma})$ and the Hill's estimator, **P.Hall, (1990)**.

Such k provides the minimum of $MSE(\hat{\gamma})$.

Empirical bootstrap estimate of the $MSE(\hat{\gamma})$ is

$$MSE^*(n_1, k_1) = \left(\hat{b}^*(n_1, k_1) \right)^2 + \widehat{var}^*(n_1, k_1) \rightarrow \min_{k_1},$$

where

$$\hat{b}^*(n_1, k_1) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B \hat{\gamma}_b^*(n_1, k_1) - \hat{\gamma}(n, k),$$

$$\widehat{var}^*(n_1, k_1) = \frac{1}{B-1} \sum_{b_1=1}^B \left(\hat{\gamma}_{b_1}^*(n_1, k_1) - \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b_2=1}^B \hat{\gamma}_{b_2}^*(n_1, k_1) \right)^2$$

are the **empirical bootstrap estimates of the bias and the variance**,

$\hat{\gamma}_b^*$ is the Hill's estimate constructed by some re-sample of the size n_1 with the parameter k_1 .

Double bootstrap method for k selection

Danielsson, de Haan, Peng and de Vries, (1997)

requires less parameters than bootstrap method, Hall, (1990):
 n_1 and B are required, α is not required.

Auxiliary statistic:

$$z_{n,k} = M_{n,k} - 2(\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k))^2,$$

where

$$M_{n,k} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^k (\log X_{(n-j+1)} - \log X_{(n-k)})^2$$

Double bootstrap method for k selection

$M_{n,k}/2\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)$ and $\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)$ are consistent estimates for γ ,

$\implies z_{n,k} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, since

$$\frac{z_{n,k}}{2\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)} = \frac{M_{n,k}}{2\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)} - \hat{\gamma}^H(n, k) \rightarrow \gamma - \gamma = 0$$

$\implies AMSE(z_{n,k}) = \mathbb{E}(z_{n,k})^2 \rightarrow \min_k$,

The value \hat{k}_n^{opt} of k , which minimizes $AMSE(z_{n,k})^1$, has the same order in n as k_n^{opt} that minimizes $AMSE(\hat{\gamma}_{n,k}^H)$.

¹AMSE is an asymptotic mean squared error

Double bootstrap procedure is

- **Draw** B bootstrap sub-samples of the size $n_1 \in (\sqrt{n}, n)$ (e.g., $n_1 \sim n^{3/4}$) from the original sample and determine the value $\hat{k}_{n_1}^*$ that minimizes MSE of $z_{n_1,k}$.
- **Repeat** this for B sub-samples of the size $n_2 = [n_1^2/n]$ ($[x]$ is the integer part of the number) and determine the value $\hat{k}_{n_2}^*$ that minimizes MSE of $z_{n_2,k}$.
- **Calculate** \hat{k}_n^{opt} from the formula

$$\hat{k}_n^{opt} = \left[\frac{(\hat{k}_{n_1}^*)^2}{\hat{k}_{n_2}^*} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\hat{\rho}_1} \right)^{\frac{2}{2\hat{\rho}_1-1}} \right], \quad \hat{\rho}_1 = \frac{\log \hat{k}_{n_1}^*}{2 \log(\hat{k}_{n_1}^*/n_1)},$$

and estimate γ by the Hill's estimate with \hat{k}_n^{opt} .

The method is **robust** with respect to the choice of n_1 , Gomes, Oliveira, (2000).

Sequential procedure for k selection

is based on the theoretical result:

$$\sqrt{i}(\hat{\gamma}^H(n, i) - \gamma) \sim (\log \log n)^{1/2}, \quad 2 \leq i \leq k$$

in probability, **Drees & Kaufmann, (1998)**.^a

$$^a f(n) \sim g(n) \text{ denotes } \mathbb{P}\{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 1\} = 1$$

Sequential procedure for k selection. Algorithm.

- An initial estimate $\hat{\gamma}_0 = \hat{\gamma}^H(n, 2\sqrt{n})$ for the parameter γ is obtained by the Hill's estimate.
- For $r_n = 2.5\hat{\gamma}_0 n^{0.25}$ we compute

$$\hat{k}(r_n) = \min\{k \in 2, \dots, n-1 \mid \max_{2 \leq i \leq k} \sqrt{i}(\hat{\gamma}^H(n, i) - \hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)) > r_n\}.$$

If r_n is too large and $\max_{2 \leq i \leq k} \sqrt{i}(\hat{\gamma}^H(n, i) - \hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)) > r_n$ is not satisfied it is recommended repeatedly replace r_n by $0.9r_n$ until $\hat{k}(r_n)$ is well defined.

- Similarly, $\hat{k}(r_n^\varepsilon)$ for $\varepsilon = 0.7$ is computed.
- Optimal k

$$\hat{k}^{opt} = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{\hat{k}(r_n^\varepsilon)}{(\hat{k}(r_n))^\varepsilon} \right)^{1/(1-\varepsilon)} (2\hat{\gamma}_0)^{1/3}$$

is calculated and γ is estimated by $\hat{\gamma}^H(n, \hat{k}^{opt})$.

The method is sensitive to the choice of r_n .

By Eye-Ball method the first stability interval is found using a moving window. The number of the largest order statistics is

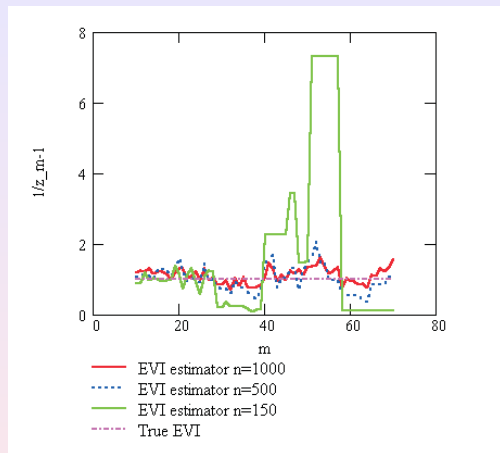
$$k_{\text{eye}}^* = \min\{k \in 2, \dots, n^+ - \omega \mid h < \frac{1}{\omega} \sum_{i=1}^{\omega} \mathbf{1}\{\hat{\alpha}_{n,k+i} < \hat{\alpha}_{n,k} \pm \varepsilon\}\}.$$

ω is the size of moving window, e.g. 1% of the full sample. n^+ is the number of positive observations in the data. Not less than $h\%$ of the estimates should be within the bounds $\hat{\alpha}_{n,k} \pm \varepsilon$ ($\hat{\alpha}_{n,k} = 1/\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)$). One can take $h = 90\%$ and $\varepsilon = 0.3$.

The Eye-Ball principle can be applied to other estimators of the tail index not only the Hill's one.²

²Danielsson, J., Ergun, L.M., de Haan, L., De Vries, C. Tail Index Estimation: Quantile Driven Threshold Selection. SSRN Electronic Journal (2016)

Plot method for m selection in the group estimator.



The plot $\{(m, 1/z_m - 1)\}$ for Pareto distribution with $\gamma = 1$, the true γ is shown by dotted line. Sample sizes are $n = \{150, 500, 1000\}$.

Plot method for m selection in the group estimator.

Plot: $\{(m, z_m), m_0 < m < M_0\}, m_0 > 2, M_0 < n/2$
 $m = n/l, z_m = (m/n) \sum_{i=1}^{[n/m]} k_{(n/m)i}$

From consistency result $z_l \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \frac{1}{1+\gamma}$ it follows that

there must be an interval $[m_-, m_+]$

such that $z_m \approx \alpha/(1 + \alpha) = (1 + \gamma)^{-1}$ for all $m \in [m_-, m_+]$.

We suggest choosing the average value

$$\bar{z} = \text{mean}\{1/z_m - 1 : m \in [m_-, m_+]\}$$

and $m^* \in [m_-, m_+]$ as a point such that $z_{m^*} = \bar{z}$.

Bootstrap method for m automatical selection.

- Minimizing of the empirical bootstrap estimate of the mean squared error of $(1 + \gamma_l)^{-1}$, $l = n/m$:

$$MSE(\gamma_l) = \mathbb{E} \left(\frac{1}{l} \sum_{i=1}^l k_{l_i} - \frac{1}{1 + \gamma} \right)^2 \rightarrow \min_m.$$

- The bootstrap estimate is obtained by drawing B samples with replacement from the original data set X^n .
- Smaller re-samples $\{X_1^*, \dots, X_{n_1}^*\}$ of the size $n_1 = n^d$, $0 < d < 1$, are used.
- The re-sample is divided into l_1 subgroups.
- The size of subgroups m_1 and m are related by:
 $m = m_1(n/n_1)^c$, $0 < c < 1$,
where m_1 is the size of subgroups in re-samples.

Empirical bootstrap estimate of the MSE

$$MSE^*(l_1, m_1) = \left(\hat{b}^*(l_1, m_1) \right)^2 + \widehat{var}^*(l_1, m_1) \rightarrow \min_{m_1},$$

where

$$\hat{b}^*(l_1, m_1) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B z_{l_1}^b - z_{l_1},$$

$$\widehat{var}^*(l_1, m_1) = \frac{1}{B-1} \sum_{b_1=1}^B \left(z_{l_1}^{b_1} - \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b_2=1}^B z_{l_1}^{b_2} \right)^2$$

are the **empirical bootstrap estimates of the bias and the variance**,

$z_{l_1}^b = \frac{1}{l_1} \sum_{i=1}^{l_1} k_{l_{1i}}$ is the group estimator constructed by some re-sample.

How to select c and d ?

Simulation study: the selection of c and d .

- Asymptotic theory (P.Hall, (1990)) recommends

$$d = 1/2 \quad \text{and} \quad c = 2/3$$

for the bootstrap estimation of the parameter k of the Hill's estimate of γ .

- We check $c = \{0.05, 0.1(0.1); 0.5\}$ for a fixed $d = 0.5$. Samples of the Pareto, Fréchet and Weibull distributions with known γ were generated.

Relative bias and the square root of the mean squared error:

$$Bias\gamma = \frac{1}{\gamma} \left(\frac{1}{N_R} \sum_{i=1}^{N_R} \hat{\gamma}_i - \gamma \right),$$

$$RMSE\gamma = \frac{1}{\gamma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_R} \sum_{i=1}^{N_R} (\hat{\gamma}_i - \gamma)^2}$$

Conclusions:

- the best values of c for the fixed $d = 0.5$ are $c = \{0.3 \div 0.5\}$;
- the bias of the group estimator is larger for Weibull distribution.

Further research:

- proof of theoretically best values of c and d for the group estimator using the bootstrap.

Modul 1: Lesson 5

Derivation and theoretical properties of the Hill's estimator

Derivation of the Hill's estimator, Hill (1975)

Assume:

$$\bar{F}(x) = \mathbb{P}\{X > x\} = x^{-\alpha}, \quad x \geq 1$$

Then the r.v. $Y = \ln X$ has the tail function

$$\mathbb{P}\{Y > y\} = \mathbb{P}\{\ln X > y\} = \mathbb{P}\{X > e^y\} = e^{-\alpha y}, \quad y \geq 0,$$

i.e. Y is exponentially distributed with DF $G(y) = 1 - e^{-\alpha y}$ and PDF $g(y) = \alpha e^{-\alpha y}$

Maximum likelihood estimator:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln \mathcal{L}(\alpha | X_1, \dots, X_n) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \ln g(Y_i | \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\ln \alpha - \alpha Y_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (\ln \alpha - \alpha \ln X_i) \end{aligned}$$

Derivation of the Hill's estimator. Continuation.

Maximum likelihood estimator:

$$\ln' \mathcal{L}(\alpha | X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1/\alpha - \ln X_i) = 0$$

$$\frac{n}{\alpha} = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln X_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \hat{\alpha} = \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ln X_{(i)} \right)^{-1}$$

$$X_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq X_{(n)}$$

A trivial generalization concerns

$$\bar{F}(x) = Cx^{-\alpha}, \quad x \geq u > 0,$$

with u known. If $C = u^\alpha$ then $\bar{G}(y) = u^\alpha e^{-\alpha y}$, $g(y) = \alpha u^\alpha e^{-\alpha y}$

Derivation of the Hill estimator. Continuation.

Maximum likelihood estimator:

$$\ln \mathcal{L}(\alpha | X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\ln \alpha + \alpha \ln u - \alpha \ln X_i)$$

$$\ln' \mathcal{L}(\alpha | X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1/\alpha + \ln u - \ln X_i) = 0$$

$$1/\alpha = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^n \ln X_{(i)} - \ln u$$

Taking $u = X_{(n-k)}$ and since $x \geq u$ we obtain the Hill's estimator

$$\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \ln X_{(n-i+1)} - \ln X_{(n-k)}$$

Theoretical properties of the Hill's estimator

Mason (1982): Hill's estimator is weakly consistent if

$k \rightarrow \infty, k/n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Häusler & Teugels (1985): Hill's estimator is asymptotically normal with mean γ and variance γ^2/k ,

$$\sqrt{k} \left(\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k) - \gamma \right) \rightarrow^d N(0, \gamma^2)$$

Modul 1: Lesson 6

More details about bootstrap

Bootstrap estimation for the tail index

Estimation of the number of largest order statistics

Let $X_*^{n_1} = \{X_1^*, \dots, X_{n_1}^*\}$ be bootstrap re-sample.

Bootstrap estimator of the bias $\mathbb{E}\hat{\gamma}^H - \gamma$:

$$b^*(n_1, k_1) = \mathbb{E}\{\hat{\gamma}^{*H}(n_1, k_1) | X^n\} - \hat{\gamma}^H(n, k)$$

Bootstrap estimator of the variance

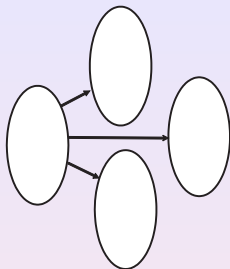
$var = \mathbb{E}(\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k) - \mathbb{E}\hat{\gamma}^H(n, k))^2$:

$$var^*(n_1, k_1) = \mathbb{E}\left\{\left(\hat{\gamma}^{*H}(n_1, k_1) - \mathbb{E}\{\hat{\gamma}^{*H}(n_1, k_1) | X^n\}\right)^2 | X^n\right\}$$

X^n is fixed and the expectation is calculated among all theoretically possible re-samples $X_*^{n_1}$.

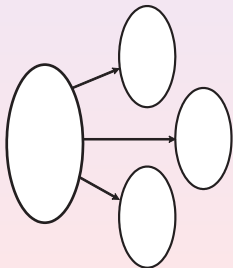
Bootstrap mean is not expectation in the usual sense since bootstrap "expectation" is random variable.

Types of Bootstrap



Classical bootstrap:

re-samples are of the same size as an original sample
It leads to underestimating of the bias



Non-classical bootstrap:

re-samples are of the smaller size than an original sample $n_1 < n$
It helps to avoid the bootstrap bias $= 0$ regardless the true bias $\neq 0$.
This is typical for linear estimates: linear regressions, kernel estimates of the density.

Linear Estimates and Bootstrap

Examples of linear estimates

Kernel density estimator $1/(nh) \sum_{i=1}^n K((x - X_i)/h)$, linear regression

Let $\hat{\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi(X_i)$ be linear function built by sample X_1, \dots, X_n .
Let $\theta^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi(X_i^*)$ be the same function built by re-sample X_1^*, \dots, X_n^* .
Then

$$\mathbb{E}(\theta^* | X^n) = n \mathbb{E}\{\varphi(X_i^*) | X^n\} = n \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \varphi(X_i) = \hat{\theta},$$

since X_i^* may be selected by n ways from X^n .

\Rightarrow bootstrap bias $\mathbb{E}(\theta^* | X^n) - \hat{\theta} = 0$, but the true bias $\mathbb{E}\hat{\theta} - \theta \neq 0$

Next problem of classical bootstrap

Bickel and Sakov (2002): that the statistic

$$a_n(F_n) (\max(X_1^*, \dots, X_n^*) - b_n(F_n))$$

(a_n, b_n are the same normalized constants as in Gnedenko (1943) theorem) does not converge to $H_\gamma(x)$ for bootstrap with re-samples of the size n .

If the re-samples of smaller size $n_1 < n$ are used, $n_1 \rightarrow \infty$, $n_1/n \rightarrow 0$ and von Mises's condition

$$x \frac{f(x)}{1 - F(x)} \rightarrow_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\gamma}$$

is satisfied ($f(x)$ is probability density function), then

$$a_{n_1}(F_n) (\max(X_1^*, \dots, X_{n_1}^*) - b_{n_1}(F_n)) \rightarrow H_\gamma(x).$$

Confidence intervals of bootstrap estimates

Assumptions

the bootstrap estimates $\gamma_1^*, \dots, \gamma_B^*$ are normal distributed with the mean $Mean\gamma$ and standard deviation $StDev\gamma$, constructed by B bootstrap estimates,
 B is the number of bootstrap re-samples.

Smirnov and Dunin-Barkovsky (1965): Tolerant bounds of confidence intervals

$$(u_1, u_2) = (Mean\gamma - \rho \cdot StDev\gamma; Mean\gamma + \rho \cdot StDev\gamma)$$

The interval is constructed in such a way that the $(1 - p)$ th part of the distribution falls into this interval with the probability P :

$$\rho = \rho_\infty \left(1 + \frac{t_p}{\sqrt{2B}} + \frac{5t_p^2 + 10}{12B} \right).$$

Confidence intervals of bootstrap estimates. Cont.

ρ_∞ is defined by the equation

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\rho_\infty}^{\rho_\infty} e^{-t^2/2} dt = 2\Phi_0(\rho_\infty) = 1 - p,$$

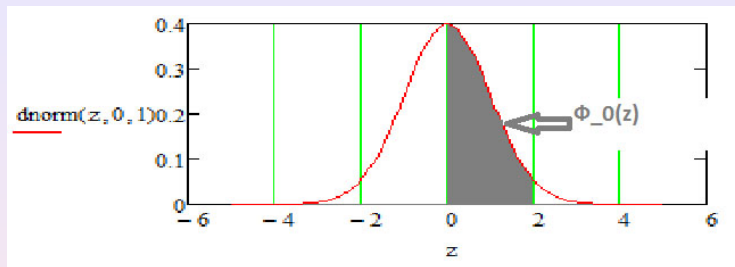
where $\Phi_0(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^z e^{-t^2/2} dt$ is Laplace's function.

Normal distribution function $N(z; 0, 1) = 0.5 + \Phi_0(z)$ for $z > 0$,
 $\Phi_0(-z) = -\Phi_0(z)$, $\Phi_0(0) = 0$, $\Phi_0(-\infty) = -0.5$, $\Phi_0(\infty) = 0.5$

t_p is calculated by the equation

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{t_p}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/2} dt = 0.5 - \Phi_0(t_p) = 1 - P.$$

Confidence intervals of bootstrap estimates. Cont.



Example

For $P = 0.99$ we have $\Phi_0(t_p) = P - 0.5 = 0.49$
 $t_p = 2.33$ is found from the table of Laplace's function.
 $\rho_\infty \in \{2.245, 1.97, 1.645\}$ for $p \in \{0.025, 0.05, 0.1\}$,
respectively.