Lecture 3: Univariate Descriptive Statistics/EDA

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Statistics 509 - Winter 2016 Ref: Ruppert: Chapter 4.1-4.5

Overview of Lecture.

- Descriptive statistics
 - Summary quantitative statistics
 - Graphical summaries
 - histograms
 - density estimation
 - boxplots
- Assessing probability distribution models
 - QQ Plots
 - Intro to goodness-of-fit tests

Background on R. Need to include:

- > source('startup.R')
 - Some new functions in startup.R

Some Summary Statistics - Review from Lecture 2

Background. Suppose that $X \sim F$ and have sample x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n , and central moments of μ_k, m_k for k = 2, 3, 4.

Parameters/Statistics	Distn Parameter	Sample Statistic
Standard deviation	$\sigma = \sqrt{\mu_2}$	$SD(x) = \sqrt{m_2}$
Skewness	$\frac{\mu_3}{(\mu_2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$	$\frac{m_3}{(m_2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$
(Excess) Kurtosis	$\frac{\mu_4}{\mu_2^2} - 3$	$\frac{m_4}{m_2^2} - 3$

Remarks.

- Skewness is a measure of the asymmetry of the distribution/sample values
- Kurtosis is a measure of how heavy-tailed the distribution/sample values

More on Skewness/Kurtosis

Normal Distribution

- For $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, the skewness and kurtosis are
- For a random sample of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n from $\sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$
 - the sample skewness and sample kurtosis should be relatively close to
 - Expected "closeness" of hte sample values depends on sample size – more as sample size increases
- There are statistical hypothesis tests for normality based on skewness and/or kurtosis

Double Exponential Distribution

- For $X \sim \mathsf{DExp}(\mu, \lambda)$, skewness is and kurtosis is
- For a random sample of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n from $\mathsf{DExp}(\mu, \lambda)$
 - the sample skewness and sample kurtosis should be relatively close to and , respectively
 - Expected "closeness" of these sample values depends on sample size – more as sample size increases

Examples - Skewness and Kurtosis.

Data	Skewness	Kurtosis
500 random deviates from $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$	0.0980	0.2011
500 random deviates from $DExp(0,1)$	0.3796	2.9360
500 random deviates from $Exp(1)$	1.6169	3.3536
2480 values - SP500 log(weekly returns) 1960-2007	-0.3662	3.3870

R-Session (Commands and Output)

```
library(fExtremes) # Needed for skewness and kurtosis xnorm <- rnorm(500,0,1)
```

- > skewness(xnorm)
- [1] 0.09803232
- > kurtosis(xnorm)
- [1] 0.2011059
- > xdexp <- rdexp(500,0,1)
- > skewness(xdexp)
- [1] 0.3796158
- > kurtosis(xdexp)
- [1] 2.936092



```
> xexp <- rexp(500,1)
> skewness(xexp)
[1] 1.616941
> kurtosis(xexp)
[1] 3.353643

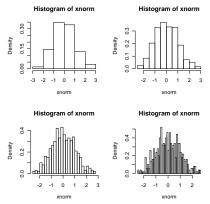
> X = read.csv("Data\\SP500_wkly_Jan1_60_Jul23_07.csv",header=TRUE)
> SP500wk <- rev(X\$Close)
> SP500wk_lreturn <- diff(log(SP500wk)) # log returns (weekly)
> skewness(SP500wk_lreturn)
[1] -0.3662413
> kurtosis(SP500wk_lreturn)
[1] 3.387008
```

Histograms

Background. Have sample x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n and want the histogram to be a good representation of the "distribution."

Histograms – area of rectangles correspond to frequency
 xamples: Below are histograms with # rectangles being 6.

Examples: Below are histograms with # rectangles being 6, 11, 21, and 41 (R-variable "breaks" = 5,10,20,40)



R-code

```
xnorm <- rnorm(500,0,1)
par(mfrow=c(2,2)) # setting up for a 2 x 2 arrangement of subplots
hist(xnorm,breaks = 5,freq=FALSE)
hist(xnorm,breaks = 10,freq=FALSE)
hist(xnorm,breaks = 20,freq=FALSE)
hist(xnorm,breaks = 40,freq=FALSE)</pre>
```

Density Estimation

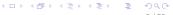
Remark. Histogram is a "coarse" (piecewise constant) density estimate – can do better.

Definition. For sample data x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n , a kernel-based density estimate is defined as

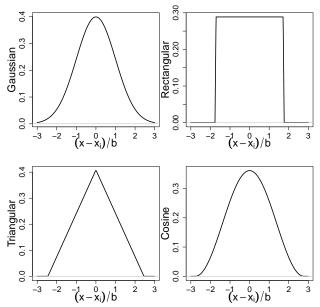
$$\hat{f}_b(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n K_b(x - x_i)$$

where

- $K_b(x-x_i) = \frac{1}{b}K\left(\frac{x-x_i}{b}\right)$
- K is called the kernel function this function integrates to 1 and has a standard deviation of 1
 - Possible shapes for K are "gaussian", "rectangular", "triangular", "epanechnikov", "biweight", "cosine" or "optcosine"
- In ${\bf R}$, b is bandwidth parameter (positive number) and essentially is the standard deviation of K_b



Examples of $K((x-x_i)/b)$



More on Density Estimation

Remark. There are differing defintions of bandwidth parameter – larger BW corresponds to more "smoothing" (i.e., bias in estimation) and less "noise" (i.e., variance in estimation).

Remark. Effect of bandwidth is

- ullet When bw parameter b gets small,
- When bw parameter b gets large,

Question. What is the expected value of $\hat{f}_b(x)$ if have an iid sample from distribution with pdf f?

Answer.

Remark. Implications of result on previous slide is:

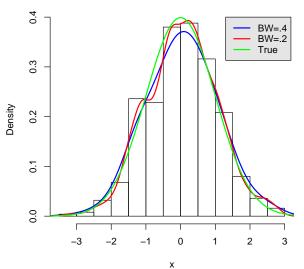
R-command for plotting density estimate :

```
plot(density(x,bw=.4,kernel=c("gaussian"))
```

- x is the sample vector
- ullet bandwidth bw is "effective" standard deviation of kernel K_b

Density Estimation - Simulated Data



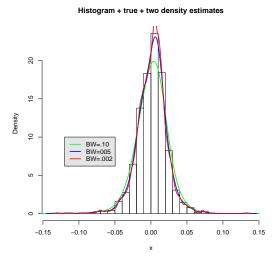


R-code

• Density estimates with Gaussian kernel (this is default)

Density Estimation - SP500 Data

Density estimation on the log(weekly return) for SP500



R-code

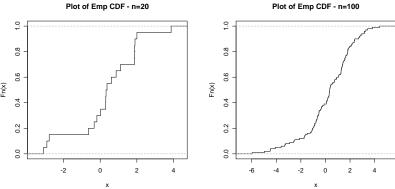
```
windows()
hist(SP500wk_lreturn,xlab='x',breaks = 20,freq=FALSE,main=
    'Histogram + true + two density estimates')
lines(density(SP500wk_lreturn,bw=.010,kernel=c("gaussian")),
    lty=1,lwd=2,col='green')
lines(density(SP500wk_lreturn,bw=.005,kernel=c("gaussian")),
    lty=1,lwd=2,col='blue')
lines(density(SP500wk_lreturn,bw=.002,kernel=c("gaussian")),
    lty=1,lwd=2,col='red')
legend(-.12,10, c("BW=.10","BW=005","BW=.002"), lty=1,lwd=2,
    col=c("green","blue","red"), bg="gray90")
```

Empirical Distribution Function

Definition. With data x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n , the empirical distribution function is defined as

$$\hat{F}_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \# \{i : x_i \le x\}$$

Example. Simulated data from $\mathcal{N}(0,2^2)$ with two different sample sizes.



R-Code

```
x <- rnorm(20,0,2)
plot(ecdf(x), verticals=TRUE, do.p=FALSE, main='Plot of Emp CDF - n=20')
windows()
x <- rnorm(100,0,2)
plot(ecdf(x), verticals=TRUE, do.p=FALSE, main='Plot of Emp CDF - n=100')</pre>
```

Quantiles/Sample Quantiles

Recall. For distribution F, let π_q denote the q-quantile.

Definition. For sample of x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n , the sample q-quantile is (simply) the q-quantile of the empirical CDF, i.e., the value $\hat{\pi}_q$ such that

$$\hat{\pi}_q = \hat{F}_n^{-1}(q) =$$

The **sample median** is $\hat{\pi}_{.50}$ – interpretation

Remark. For random sample, $\hat{\pi}_q$ is an estimate of π_q .

Remark. If x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n is sample, the order statistics are the rearrangement of the values from smallest to largest, i.e.,

$$x_{(1)} \le x_{(2)} \le \dots \le x_{(n-1)} \le x_{(n)}$$



Example.

Sample					
$x_1 = 30, \ x_2 = 60, \ x_3 = 10, \ x_4 = 100, \ x_5 = 30$					
Order Statistics					
$x_{(1)} =$	$, x_{(2)} =$	$, x_{(3)} =$	$, x_{(4)} =$	$, x_{(5)} =$	

Question. What is the relationship between sample quantiles and the order statistics?

Answer.

Boxplots

Definition The inter-quartile range (IQR) is the difference between the first and third quartiles, $\hat{\pi}_{.25}$, $\hat{\pi}_{.75}$ i.e.,

$$\mathsf{IQR} = \hat{\pi}_{.75} - \hat{\pi}_{.25}$$

Note that the IQR is the range of the middle 50% of the data.

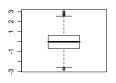
• An sample value is labeled an **outlier** if it lies (at least) $1.5 \cdot \mathsf{IQR}$ below $\hat{\pi}_{.25}$ or above $\hat{\pi}_{.75}$.

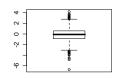
Details for Boxplots

- (1) Box with sides going from $\hat{\pi}_{.25}$ to $\hat{\pi}_{.75}$.
- (2) Line in box at the median.
- (3) Draw lines out furthest observations within $1.5 \cdot IQR$ of edges of box.
- (4) Put "o" at the **outlier** values that are more than $1.5 \cdot IQR$ from the edges of the box.

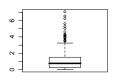
Example Box Plots

- Box plot of 500 random deviates from $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$
- Box plot of 500 random deviates from DExp(0,1)
- Box plot of 500 random deviates from Exp(1)
- Box plot of SP500 log(weekly returns)
 500 Random Normal
 500 Double Exponential

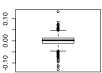




500 Exponential



SP500 log(weekly return)



R-code for Boxplots

```
# Boxplot Examples
xnorm <- rnorm(500,0,1)</pre>
xdexp < - rdexp(500,0,1)
xexp < - rexp(500,1)
par(mfrow=c(2,2)) # setting up for a 2 x 2 arrangement of subplots
boxplot(xnorm)
title('500 Normal')
boxplot(xdexp)
title('500 Double Exponential')
boxplot(xexp)
title('500 Exponential')
boxplot(SP500wk_lreturn)
title('SP500 log(weekly return)')
```

Background: QQ-Plots and Tailplots

Typical Problem. Suppose x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n is a sample from some process – interested in what is the appropriate parametric distribution/pdf. Use for estimating

- Parameters (e.g., mean and variance)
- Quantiles

Remark. Often the main focus is on the tail distribution – what is the probability of a loss exceeding some value? Relates to **Value-at-Risk, VaR** .

Q-Q Plots

Background:

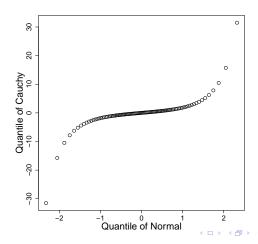
- Comparing two distributions: plotting quantiles of one distribution against the corresponding quantiles of another distribution
- Common application is plots of (empirical) quantiles $\hat{F}_n^{-1}(q)$ vs. the quantiles of the "estimated" cdf $F^{-1}(q)$ at n equally spaced quantile values of

$$q = \frac{1}{n+1}, \ \frac{2}{n+1}, \ \dots, \ \frac{n}{n+1}$$

- Requires an estimation step, i.e., estimating parameters
 - Utilize well-accepted estimation methodology typically maximum-likelihood or some modification

Remark. Q-Q plots are equivalent to plotting the order statistics $x_{(k)}$ vs. $F^{-1}\left(\frac{k}{n+1}\right)$.

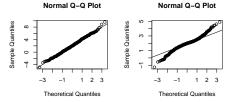
Normal vs Cauchy

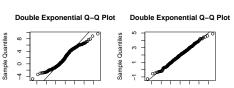


QQ Plots - Simulated Data

Example. Simulated 1000 random deviates from $\mathcal{N}(2,2^2)$ and a 1000 random deviates from $\mathsf{DExp}(2,2)$. Generated

- normal Q-Q plots for both
- double exponential Q-Q plots for both
- QQ plots in left column are for the normal data
- QQ plots in right column are for the double exponential data





Theoretical Quantiles - unit rate

Theoretical Quantiles - unit rate

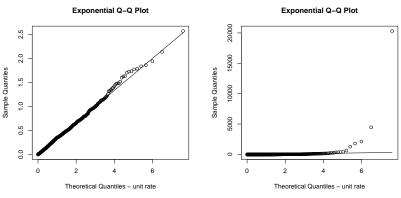
R-code for QQ Plots

```
xnorm <- rnorm(1000,2,2)
xdexp <- rdexp(1000,2,2)
windows()
par(mfrow=c(2,2)) # setting up 2 x 2 arrangement of subplots
qqnorm(xnorm)
qqline(xnorm)
qqnorm(xdexp)
qqline(xdexp)
qqdexp(xnorm)
qqdexp(xnorm)
qqdexp(xdexp)</pre>
```

QQ Plots - Simulated Data II

Example. Simulated 1000 random deviates from Exp(3) and 1000 random deviates from GPD(1,0,3).

- Generated Q-Q plots for exponential distibution applied to both data sets
 - On the left is plot for exponential "data"
 - On the right is plot for generalized pareto "data"

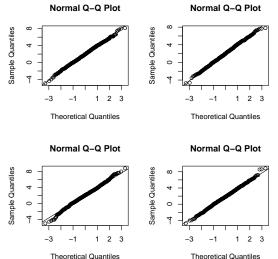


R-code for Exp/Pareto QQ-Plots

```
xexp <- rexp(1000,3)
xgpd <- rgpd(1000,1,0,3)
windows()
qqexp(xexp)
windows()
qqexp(xgpd)</pre>
```

QQ Plots - Simulated Data III

Example. Simulated 1000 random deviates from $\mathcal{N}(2,2)$ – did this 4 different times. Note the randomness in the plots.



R-Code for Normal QQ-plots

```
windows()
par(mfrow=c(2,2)) # setting up 2 x 2 arrangement of subplots
for(i in 1:4) {
    x<- rnorm(1000,2,2)
    qqnorm(x)
    qqline(x)
}</pre>
```

PCS Data

Background. Product Claim Services (PCS) is a division of ISO

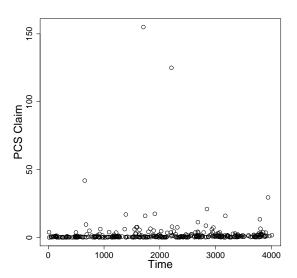
- ISO basically is a global company developing tools/data for analyzing/quantifying risk in a wide variety of applications
- PCS gathers data for total insurance claims on catastrophes
 - Currently defined to be claims of \$25 million or more
 - Data has claims down to \$7 million
- Options and futures contracts on the PCS Index offer a possibility to securitize insurance catastrophe risk.

http://www.iso.com/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=743

PCS Data - Loading in R

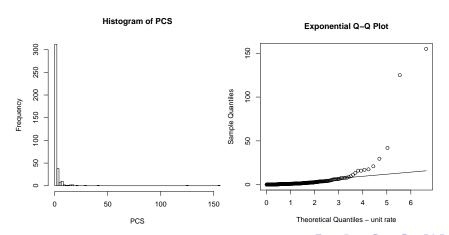
```
## Load the data
> load("PCS.rda")
## Check out the data
> PCS
   Col1
         Co12
     13 4.00
     16 0.07
3
   46 0.35
4
          0.25
     60
> plot(PCS[,1], PCS[,2], xlab="Time", ylab="PCS Claim")
```

- First column is time stamp corresponding to day
- Second column is the claim (in 100 million dollars)



Distributional Analysis of PCS Claims Data

Histogram and QQ Plot relative to Exponential Interpretation



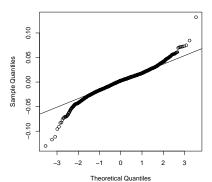
QQ Plots - SP500

Remark. Generated QQ plots of log(SP500 wkly returns)

Normal QQ plot (using function myqqnorm)

Motivation/Interpretation

Normal Q-Q Plot



Tests of Normality

- Shapiro-Wilk (Focused on QQ-Plot Analysis)
- Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Anderson-Darling, and Cramer-von Mises (comparison between theoretical cdf and empirical cdf)
- Jarque-Bera (Weighted sum of Skewness and Kurtosis)

$$JB = \frac{n}{6} \left(S^2 + \frac{(K-3)^2}{4} \right)$$

where

- S is empirical skewness parameter (of est residuals)
- ullet K is empirical kurtosis parameter (of est residuals)
- Under the null distribution (residuals are normally distributed), the approximate distribution of $J\!B$ is approximately chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom

Reject Normality (of errors) if JB is large

R-Functions for Tests of Normality

rjb.test {lawstat} R Documentation

- Shapiro-Wilk test shapiro.test(x)
- Jarque-Bera

```
Test of Normailty - Robust Jarque Bera Test

Description: This function performs robust & classical Jarque-Bera test

Usage: rjb.test(x, option = c("RJB", "JB"),
```

crit.values = c("chisq.approximation", "empirical"), N = 0)

Arguments:

Tests of Normality on SP500 Weekly Log Returns

```
> X = read.csv("Data\\SP500_wkly_Jan1_60_Jul23_07.csv",header=TRUE)
> SP500wk <- rev(X$Close)
> SP500wk_lreturn <- diff(log(SP500wk)) # generating log returns (weekl
> shapiro.test(SP500wk_lreturn)
        Shapiro-Wilk normality test
data: SP500wk_lreturn
W = 0.9678, p-value < 2.2e-16
> library(lawstat)
> rjb.test(SP500wk_lreturn)
        Robust Jarque Bera Test
data: SP500wk_lreturn
X-squared = 1327.092, df = 2, p-value < 2.2e-16
```

Tail Analysis of Extreme Distributions

Remarks.

- QQ Plots shown so far are showing the fit relative to the whole distribution
- Have shown example (SP500 log returns) where we analyzed the postive and negative returns separately
- Interest in a more detailed analysis of the tail distribution trying to answer questions of

Question 1: What is the appropriate model for the tail distribution

• To define "tail" utilize a threshold τ , i.e., the tail 1-F(x) for $x \geq \tau$

Question 2: Is the tail distribution (model) consistent for a range of threshold values τ ?

Tail Analysis of Extreme Distributions

Remark. To help answer the questions, there are a number of techniques that are useful – two we cover are

- Estimation of distribution parameters based on data values larger than specified threshold
 - Tailplot comparison with empirical data
- Plot of the estimated shape parameter as a function of threshold
 - Would like it to be consistent
 - Provides some guidance on appropriate thresholds to use in estimation

Remark. There are a number of other "extreme" distributions

- We only cover generalized pareto
- Techniques presented here can be applied to these other distributions

Pareto Distribution

Density

$$f_{a,\mu}(x) = \frac{a\mu^a}{x^{1+a}}, \quad x > \mu$$

where a is called the shape parameter, or shape index of the tail. The density of the distribution decays polynomially. (Due to Swiss economist Vilfredo Pareto)

CDF

$$F_{a,\mu}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < \mu \\ 1 - \left(\frac{\mu}{x}\right)^a & \text{if } x \ge \mu \end{cases}$$

- Mean $E(X) = \frac{a\mu}{a-1}$, a > 1.
- Variance $\operatorname{Var}(X) = \frac{a\mu^2}{(a-1)^2(a-2)}$, a>2.

Generalized Pareto Distribution (GPD)

Density

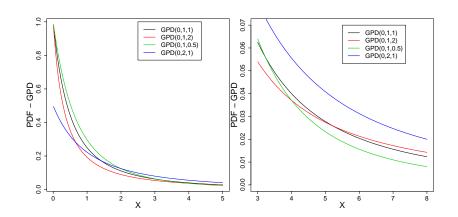
$$f_{\mu,\sigma,\xi}(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{1}{(1 + \xi(x - \mu)/\sigma)^{1+1/\xi}}, \quad x > \mu$$

CDF

$$F_{\mu,\sigma,\xi} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < \mu \\ 1 - \frac{1}{(1 + \xi(x - \mu)/\sigma)^{1/\xi}} & \text{if } x \ge \mu \end{cases}$$

- Pareto and GPD are equal when $\xi = 1/a$ and $\sigma = \mu/a$.
- Exponential distribution: $\xi = 0$ and $\mu = 0$.

```
> x < - seq(0.01, 5, length=1000)
> plot(x, dgpd(x, m=0, lambda=1, xi=1),
   xlab="X", ylab="PDF - GPD", type="l",
   col=1, ltv=1)
> lines(x, dgpd(x, m=0, lambda=1, xi=2),
   col=2, ltv=1)
> lines(x, dgpd(x, m=0, lambda=1, xi=0.5),
   col=3, ltv=1)
> lines(x, dgpd(x, m=0, lambda=2, xi=1),
   col=4, ltv=1)
> legend(2.5, 1, legend=c("GPD(0,1,1)", "GPD(0,1,2)",
   "GPD(0,1,0.5)", "GPD(0,2,1)"), lty=1, col=c(1,2,3,4))
```



Estimating the Shape Index

- Histograms and kernel density estimators can be good estimators in the center of a distribution where most of the data is to be found, but they are rather poor estimators of the tails.
- Peak over threshold (POT) methods
 - Pareto: Linear regression
 - GPD: Maximum likelihood estimation
- Issue of selecting the threshold.

Likelihood Function

• Probability models usually depend on unknown parameters θ (here θ can be a vector) – then the joint PDF of iid sample x_1, \ldots, x_n can be written as

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; \theta)$$

• We can view $L(\theta) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta)$ as a function of θ with x_1, \dots, x_n fixed at the observed data, and we call it the likelihood function. It tells us the likelihood of the sample that was actually observed.

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Definition: The maximum-likelihood estimates (MLE) are the parameter values that maximize the likelihood function, or equivalently the values that maximize the log-likelihood function.
- The log-likelihood function is the (natural) logarithm of the above, i.e.,

$$\ell(\theta) = \log [L(\theta)]$$

Steps for Finding MLE

$$\max_{\theta} L(\theta) \quad \text{or} \quad \max_{\theta} \ell(\theta)$$

- 1 Derive the likelihood or log-likelihood function.
- 2 Take the derivative with respect to each of the parameters and set the derivatives equal to 0.
- 3 Solve for unknown parameters these are the MLEs.

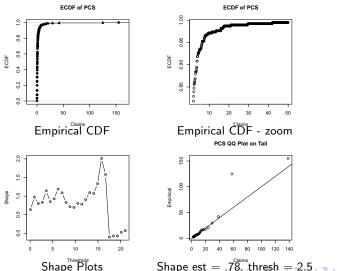
Peak over Threshold - Tail Fitting

Steps

- Compute empirical cdf and look at the range of quantiles for the tail (.30 to .05 or less) – these are candidate thresholds
- Compute MLE of shape parameter (in the tail) using GPD model over range of threshold values and look at stability
 - Only estimating scale and shape, as the threshold is the location
- Pick threshold based on quantile considerations (not too far out in the tail), but also in the stable region relative to estimation, and compute MLEs of Generalized Pareto parameters
- Look at Goodness of Fit of the tail distribution relative to the estimated model – QQ plots of tails

PCS Index: POT Analysis

 Use R POT package for shape-plots/tail plots in POT tail distribution modeling - again using GPD model for tails



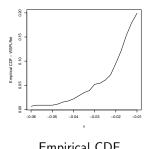
R-commands for previous slide

Gradient Evaluations: 13

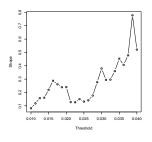
```
> library(POT)
> eecdf = ecdf(PCS[,2])
> plot(eecdf,main='ECDF of PCS',xlab='Claims',ylab='ECDF')
> uv = seq(from = 2, to = 50, by = .1)
> plot(uv,eecdf(uv),main='ECDF of PCS',xlab='Claims',ylab='ECDF')
> tcplot(PCS[,2],nt=25,conf=0)
> gpd_fit = fitgpd(PCS[,2],2.5)
> qq(gpd_fit, main='PCS QQ Plot on Tail', xlab='Claims', ylab='Empirical', ci =
> gpd_fit
Estimator: MLE
 Threshold Call: 2.5
   Number Above: 54
Proportion Above: 0.1421
Estimates
 scale shape
2.7759 0.7851
Standard Errors
 scale shape
0.6717 0.2269
Optimization Information
 Convergence: successful
 Function Evaluations: 26
```

SP500 Weekly Log Returns - POT

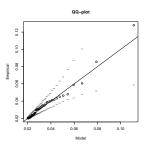
Results for 1960-2007 data



Empirical CDF



Shape Plot



Tail Plot for u = -.020

R-Command - Using POT

```
> WSPLRet = SP500wk lreturn
> library(POT)
> eecdf = ecdf(WSPLRet)
> uv = seq(from = -.06, to = -.01, by = .0025)
> plot(uv,eecdf(uv),type='1',xlab='x',ylab='Empirical CDF - WSPLRet')
> tcplot(-WSPLRet,c(.01,.04),nt=25,conf=0)
> gpd_fit = fitgpd(-WSPLRet,.02)
> qq(gpd_fit)
> scale = gpd_fit$fitted.values[1]
> xi = gpd_fit$fitted.values[2]
> xi
    shape
0.1225712
```

Computing VaR: Two Approaches

Problem: Have historical log-returns X_1, \ldots, X_n (assuming stationary) with cdf F which is unknown and want to estimate VaR for a specified α (e.g., .01, .005) – this corresponds to estimating the α -quantile of the F, and taking the negative.

Two approaches: Nonparametric and Semiparametric

- Nonparametric approach simply use sample quantile $\hat{\pi}_{\alpha}=\hat{F}_{n}^{-1}(\alpha)$ from the data: $\tilde{\text{VaR}}=-\hat{F}_{n}^{-1}(\alpha)$
 - \bullet OK if α is not too small relative to sample size n
- ullet Semiparametric approach with threshold u: note that

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) = P(X \le x | X \le u) P(X \le u)$$

- Utilize POT estimate the parametric tail probability model of F_{θ} for $F(X \leq x | X \leq u)$ (e.g., GPD), i.e.,
- Utilize nonparametric estimate of $P(X \le u)$ -
- Estimate quantile from above via

$$\tilde{\mathsf{VaR}} = -\hat{F}_{spar}^{-1}(\alpha) =$$



Computing VaR for SP500 Weekly Returns

Example. Based on results in previous slides on fitting GPD to the tails, want to derive VaR for $\alpha=.005$ and current investment value of a million dollars.

Answer.

R-code for Answer

```
> eecdf = ecdf(WSPLRet)
> alphat = 1-.005/eecdf(-.02)
> scale = gpd_fit$fitted.values[1]
> xi = gpd_fit$fitted.values[2]
> xi
0.1225712
> m = .02
> VaRt = qgpd(alphat,m,scale,xi)
> VaRt
0.06759757
> VaR = 1000000*VaRt
> VaR
67,597.57
```

Assumptions/Issues

Question. What are assumptions/issues for the utilizing tail analysis as proposed?