Lecture 2: Probability Models/Distributions

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Lecture Overview

Brief review of relevant probability models and random variables

- Random variables
- Common distributions for random variables
 - Discrete Bernoulli and binomial
 - Continuous Normal, exponential, gamma, t, generalized error, and pareto/generalized pareto

Random Variables

Definition (random variable). A random variable is a function X from sample space Ω to the real numbers. We write

$$(X=x) \quad \text{as shorthand for } \{w \in \Omega; \ X(w)=x\}$$

$$(a \leq X \leq b) \quad \text{as shorthand for } \{w \in \Omega; \ a \leq X(w) \leq b\}$$

$$(X \leq b) \quad \text{as shorthand for } \{w \in \Omega; \ X(w) \leq b\}$$

$$(X \geq a) \quad \text{as shorthand for } \{w \in \Omega; \ X(w) \geq a\}$$

Remark. Random variables are (typically) classified as **discrete** or **continuous**

- **Discrete** corresponds to *X* taking values within a discrete set (could be infinite number)
- Continuous corresponds to X taking values over a continuum (e.g., an interval)

Remark. The discrete vs. continuous refers to the model.

- stock/bond price
- individual/company income levels



Cumulative Distributions

Definition. The cumulative distribution function (cdf) of a discrete/continuous rv X is always the function

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

Picture: Example cdf of discrete rv/cdf of continuous rv

Remark. Note that

- cdf F is an increasing function, i.e., F(x) F(x') for x < x'.
- As $x \downarrow -\infty$, $F(x) \rightarrow$
- As $x \uparrow \infty$, $F(x) \rightarrow$

Remark. Suppose that X is the stock price of Google at the end of this coming week. What can we say about F(x) for x < 0.

Answer.

Quantiles

Definition. For rv X with cdf F, the quantile function is sort of a generalized inverse of F, Specifically for 0 < q < 1,

$$F^{-1}(q) = \inf\{x: \ q \le P(X \le x)\}$$

or equivalently,

$$F^{-1}(q) =$$

Pictures

Moments of Distribution/Random Variable

Definition. For rv X with distribution function F, we define **central moments** μ_k as

$$\mu_k = E\left[(X - E(X))^k \right]$$
 $k = 2, 3, 4, ...$

Definition. For sample x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n , define sample mean as

$$\overline{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

and we define the **central sample moments** m_k for this data as

$$m_k = k = 2, 3, 4, \dots$$

Background: Typically assuming that sample x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n corresponds to a sampling from some process/population with an underlying distribution function F.

Summary Statistics

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) =
Skewness	$\frac{\mu_3}{(\mu_2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$	
(Excess) Kurtosis	$\frac{\mu_4}{\mu_2^2} - 3$	

Remarks.

- Skewness is a measure of the
- Kurtosis is a measure of how distribution is

of the distribution

the

Discrete Random Variables

Discrete Random Variables. A discrete random variable X is totally described (with repect to probability) by defining the set of values, $\{x_i\}$, that X can take and the probability that it can take those values, i.e.,

$$p(x_i) = P(X = x_i).$$

The function p is the **probability mass function (pmf)**. The **cumulative distribution function (cdf)** is given by

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) = \sum_{i: x_i \le x} p(x_i).$$

Expected Values/Variance/Standard Deviation

Remark. Expected value of a rv (or equivalently a probability distribution) is a

- measure of the "center" of the pmf of rv Variance/Standard deviation of a rv is a measure of
 - the spread of the pmf about the expected value

Definition. Suppose X is a discrete random variable with a pfm p. The expected value of X is given by

$$E(X) = \sum_{x} xp(x).$$

provided that $\sum_{x} |x| p(x) < \infty$. If sum is infinite, we say the expected value is undefined. The variance of X is

$$\label{eq:Var} \begin{aligned} \mathsf{Var}(X) &= E\left[(X - E(X))^2\right] = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 \\ &E(X^2) = \sum_x x^2 p(x). \\ &\mathrm{SD}(X) = \sqrt{\mathsf{Var}(X)} \end{aligned}$$

Discrete Distribution: Bernoulli

Bernoulli Random Variables. X is a Bernoulli rv with parameter (probability) p if

- X takes only two values, 0 and 1,
- P(X = 1) = p and P(X = 0) = 1 p
- Notation: $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$.

Definition For an event A, let $\mathbf{1}_A$ denote the indicator function, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{1}_A(w) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & w \in A \\ 0 & w \notin A \end{array} \right.$$

Remark. For an event A, $\mathbf{1}_A$ is a Bernoulli random variable with p = P(A).

Expected Value/Variance of $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$

$$E(X) =$$
Var $(X) =$



Discrete Distribution: Binomial

Binomial Random Variables. Suppose have independent and identically distributed (iid) Bernoulli rvs Z_1, \ldots, Z_n with parameter p and $X = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$. Then

- ullet X is **binomial** rv with parameters n and p
- Notation: $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$
- X has pmf

$$p(k) = P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

where (we remind reader)

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}.$$

Remark. If X is # of successes from following experiment

- (1) n independent trials resulting in a success or failure
- (2) probability of success for each trial is p.

Then $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$.



Background on Binomial Distribution

Recall: X has pmf

$$p(k) = P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

The justification for the above formula is:

(i) Based on the independence of the trials, the probability of any specific ordered sequence of successes/failures with exactly k successes and (n-k) failures is

$$p^k(1-p)^{n-k}$$

(ii) total number of ways to distribute the k successes amongst the n trials is the same as the number of samples of size k from a population of size n (without replacement) which is $\binom{n}{k}$.

Expected Value/Variance of Binomial RVs

```
For X \sim \mathrm{Bin}(n,p), E(X) = \\ \mathrm{Var}(X) =
```

Commands in R for Binomial distribution

```
dbinom(x, size, prob) # mass function
pbinom(q, size, prob) # cdf
qbinom(p, size, prob) # quantile
rbinom(n, size, prob) # generates random deviates
```

Continuous Random Variables

- RVs are often modeled as taking values over a continuum
 - RVs are called continuous and
 - the distribution is characterized via a probability density function (pdf), f(x),

$$f(x) \ge 0$$
 for all x , $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) = 1$

$$P(a < X < b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$

The cdf of X is continuous and is given by

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(u) du$$

Expected Value/Variance/St Dev of Continuous RVs

Definition. Suppose X is a continuous random variable with a pdf f. The **expected value of** X is given by

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) \, dx.$$

provided that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x| f(x) \, dx < \infty$. Otherwise we say the expectation is undefined. Provided the expected value exists, the variance of X is then defined as

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = E\left[(X - E(X))^2\right] = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$$

$$E(X^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) \, dx.$$

The standard deviation of X is

$$\mathsf{SD}(X) = \sqrt{\mathsf{Var}(X)}$$

Properties of Continuous RVs

Suppose X is a continous rv with pdf f and cdf F, and a < b and c are real numbers. Then

(i)
$$P(X = c) =$$

(ii)

$$P(a \le X \le b) = P(a < X < b)$$

= $P(a < X \le b) = P(a \le X < b)$

(iii) Can write $P(a \le X \le b)$ in terms of cdf, i.e.,

$$P(a \le X \le b) =$$

Expectation/Variance/Quantiles of Functions of RVs

Results. Suppose X is a rv and Y = a + bX. Then

- (a) If mean E(X) exists, then E(Y) =
- (b) If mean and variance of X exists, then ${\rm Var}(a+bX)=$
- (c) If b > 0, quantiles are related via $y_q =$
- (c') If b < 0, quantiles are related via $y_q =$
- (d) If h is a strictly increasing function and Y = h(X), then quantiles of Y are given by $y_a =$
- (d)' If h is a strictly decreasing function and Y=h(X), then quantiles of Y are given by

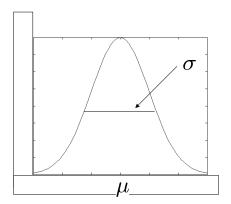
$$y_q =$$

Proof.

Continuous Distribution: Normal Distribution

Definition: Normal Distribution. A pdf f is said to correspond to a normal distribution with a mean of μ and standard deviation of σ if

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} - \infty < x < \infty$$



Remarks/notation for normal distributions

- If X is a normal rv with parameters μ, σ^2 , write $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ is referred to as standard normal distribution and the corresponding pdf and cdf are denoted by ϕ and Φ , i.e.,

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

$$\Phi(x) =$$

• No nice closed form for Φ , but it is easily computed via R.

More on the Normal Distribution

Expected Value/Variance/Skewness/Kurtosis of $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} E(X) & = & \mu \\ \operatorname{Var}(X) & = & \sigma^2 \\ \operatorname{SD}(X) & = & \sigma \\ \operatorname{Skew}(X) & = & 0 \\ \operatorname{Kurt}(X) & = & 0 & \operatorname{excess kurtosis} \end{array}$$

Normal Distribution R-functions

```
dnorm(x, mean=0, sd=1) # density function
pnorm(q, mean=0, sd=1) # cdf
qnorm(p, mean=0, sd=1) # quantile
rnorm(n, mean=0, sd=1) # generates random deviates
```

Can drop the "mean=" and "sd="

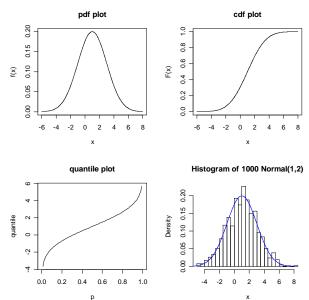


Plots/Histograms for Normal Distn

R-code and Output Plots

```
## Plots for Normal Case ##
m11 <- 1
sigma <- 2
x \leftarrow seq(-6.8, by = .01) # vector of x-values
p \leftarrow seq(0,1, by = .01) # vector of probabilities
n <- 1000
dnormo <- dnorm(x, mu, sigma) # pdf values</pre>
pnormo <- pnorm(x, mu, sigma) # cdf values
qnormo <- qnorm(p, mu, sigma) # quantiles</pre>
rnormo <- rnorm(n, mu, sigma) # random deviates
# Doing 3 plots and histogram
windows()
par(mfrow=c(2,2)) # setting up for a 2 x 2 arrangement of subplots
plot(x,dnormo,xlab='x',ylab='f(x)',type='l',main='pdf plot')
plot(x,pnormo,xlab='x',ylab='F(x)',type='l',main='cdf plot')
plot(p,qnormo,xlab='p',ylab='quantile',type='1',main='quantile plot')
hist(rnormo,xlab='x',breaks=25,main='Histogram of 1000 Normal(1,2)',freq=FALSE)
par(col="blue")
lines(x.dnormo)
                                                   4□ > 4団 > 4 豆 > 4 豆 > 豆 * 9 Q (~)
```

Output Plots from R-code



Example.

Example Suppose $X \sim \mathcal{N}(2,2)$ and $Y = e^X$ – find .99-quantile of Y.

Answer.

Continuous Distribution: Exponential

Definition (exponential distribution). A pdf f is said to correspond to an exponential distribution with parameter λ if it is given by

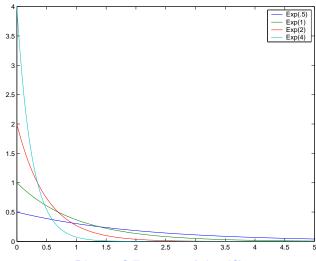
$$f(x) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

The cdf for $x \ge 0$ is given by

$$F(x) = \int_0^x f(u) du$$
$$= \int_0^x \lambda e^{-\lambda u} du =$$

and F(x) = 0 for x < 0. A rv X with the above pdf

• is an exponential rv, and write $X \sim \mathsf{Exp}(\lambda)$



Plots of Exponential pdf's

More on Exponential Distribution

Expected Value/Variance of $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$

```
E(X) = 

Var(X) = 

SD(X) =
```

Exponential Distribution R-functions

• Note that rate = λ

```
dexp(x, rate=a) # density function
pexp(q, rate=a) # cdf
qexp(p, rate=a) # quantile
rexp(n, rate=a) # generates random deviates
```

Continuous Distribution: Double Exponential

Definition (double exponential distribution). A pdf f is said to correspond to a double exponential distribution with mean μ and parameter λ if it is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{\lambda}{2}e^{-\lambda|x-\mu|}$$

The cdf is given by

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}e^{-\lambda|x-\mu|} & x < \mu \\ 1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-\lambda|x-\mu|} & x \ge \mu \end{cases}$$

Remark. For rv X with above pdf, write $X \sim \mathsf{DExp}(\mu, \lambda)$. **Pictures**

Expected Value/Variance of $X \sim \mathsf{DExp}(\mu, \lambda)$

```
E(X) =
Var(X) =
SD(X) =
Skew(X) =
Kurt(X) =
```

Double exponential Distribution R-functions

- These are in startup.R on CTools put startup.R in R work directory
- Need to do command of source('startup.R')

```
ddexp(x,mu,lambda) # density function
pdexp(x,mu,lambda) # cdf
qdexp(p,mu,lambda) # quantile
rdexp(n,mu,lambda) # generates random deviates
```

Generalized Error Distributions

Definition. A rv X has a Generalized Error Distribution with parameter ν if

$$f_{ged,\nu}(x) = \kappa_{\nu} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{x}{\lambda_{\nu}} \right|^{\nu}}$$

- κ_{ν} and λ_{ν} are constants determined by ν and ${\sf Var}(X)=1$ (for more details consult section 5.6 in Ruppert)
- for $\nu=2$ have and $\nu=1$ have
- can generalize to location-scale family, by

$$Y = \mu + \lambda X$$

- Now have 3 parameters of μ, λ, ν
- μ is the mean and λ^2 is the variance
- Notation of $Y \sim \mathsf{GED}(\mu, \lambda^2, \nu)$



More on GED-Distribution

Exp Value/Variance/St Dev/Skewness/Kurtosis of GED-RVs

For $X \sim \mathsf{GED}(\mu, \lambda^2, \nu)$

$$E(X) =$$
 $Var(X) =$
 $SD(X) =$
 $Skew(X) =$
 $Kurt(X) =$

GED-Distribution R-functions

```
dged(x, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = 2) # density function
pged(q, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = 2) # cdf
qged(p, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = 2) # quantile
rged(n, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = 2) # generates random devia
```

Above is from package fGarch



Continuous Distribution: Gamma

Definition (gamma distribution) A pdf f is said to correspond to a gamma distribution with parameters $\alpha, \lambda > 0$ if

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\lambda x} & x \ge 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

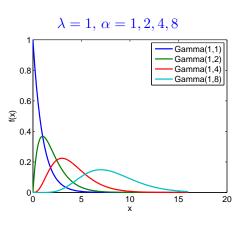
where $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is the gamma function

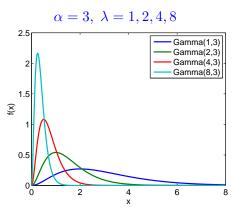
$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty x^{(\alpha - 1)} e^{-x} dx.$$

- $\mathbf{0}$ λ is called the scale parameter
- $\mathbf{2}$ α is called the shape parameter

If X is a random variable with above pdf, write $X \sim \mathsf{Gamma}(\lambda, \alpha)$.

Plots of Gamma pdf's





More on Gamma Distribution

Expected Value/Variance/St Dev of Gamma RVs

For $X \sim \mathsf{Gamma}(\lambda, \alpha)$

$$E(X) =$$
Var $(X) =$

SD(X) =

Gamma Distribution R-functions

```
dgamma(x, shape, rate=a) # density function
pgamma(q, shape, rate=a) # cdf
qgamma(p, shape, rate=a) # quantile
rgamma(n, shape, rate=a) # generates random deviates
```

Can drop the "rate="

Properties/attributes of Gamma distribution

- Flexible distribution overall shape
 - ullet exponential is a special case with lpha=1
 - relies on $\Gamma(1) = 1$ which is easy to verify
- Sum of iid exponential rvs is gamma If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are iid $\mathsf{Exp}(\lambda)$, then the sum

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \sim$$

• Sum of iid gamma rvs is gamma If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are iid Gamma (λ, α) , then

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \sim$$

• Chi-square with ν degrees of freedom is Gamma $\left(\frac{1}{2},\frac{\nu}{2}\right)$ and corresponds to distribution of $\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} Z_i^2$ when Z_1,Z_2,\ldots,Z_{ν} are iid $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$.

Continuous Distribution: t-distribution

Definition. Suppose $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ and $W \sim \chi^2_{\nu}$ are independent. Then $X = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{\frac{W}{\nu}}}$ has a t-distribution with ν degrees of freedom, and has a pdf given by

$$f_{t,\nu}(x) = \left[\frac{\Gamma\left\{\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right\}}{\sqrt{\pi\nu}\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)}\right] \frac{1}{\left\{1 + \left(\frac{x^2}{\nu}\right)\right\}^{\frac{\nu+1}{2}}}$$

- General t distribution with parameter $\nu>0$ denote by t_{ν}
- Scaled *t*-distribution for $Y = \mu + \lambda X$, where $X \sim t_{\nu}$ and $\lambda > 0$. Notation is $Y \sim t_{\nu}(\mu, \lambda^2)$ and this is classical t
- There is a standardized t and need to be careful (see textbook), in particular $t_{\nu}^{std}(\mu,\sigma^2)$ corresponds to re-scaled t-distn so as to have mean 0 and variance of σ^2 for $\nu>2$

More on *t*-Distribution

Exp Value/Variance/St Dev/Skewness/Kurtosis of t-RVs

For $X \sim t_{\nu}(\mu, \lambda^2)$

$$E(X) =$$
 $Var(X) =$
 $SD(X) =$
 $Skew(X) =$
 $Kurt(X) =$

t-Distribution R-functions

```
dt(x, df) # density function
pt(q, df) # cdf
qt(p, df) # quantile
rt(n, df) # generates random deviates
```

Invoke "help(TDist)" in R for more information



Heavy-Tailed Distributions

Remark. Often the rvs X will represent

- Stock price
- Bond price
- Currency exchange rate
- Insurance claims
- Aggregate price of stocks
 - SP500
 - Russell 2000
 - Dow Jones Industrial Average

Remark. From the viewpoint of risk, focus is often on the tail probabilities – for example if X is your loss (negative return), interested in

$$P(X > x) = 1 - F(x).$$

The above is called a tail probability

Pictures

Overview of Value-at-Risk - VaR

Example. Value-at-Risk VaR The basic idea of VaR is that it helps to quantify the amount of capital needed for covering a loss in a portfolio. Consider the following:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} P_t &=& \text{value of portfolio at time } t \\ P_{t+\triangle t} &=& \text{value of portfolio at time } t+\triangle t \\ R_t &=& \frac{P_{t+\triangle t}-P_t}{P_t} &=& \text{net return at time } t+\triangle t \\ \alpha &=& \text{(small) probability of not covering losses} \end{array}$$

The Value-at-Risk at time t, VaR $_t$, is defined by

$$P\left(P_{t+\Delta t} - P_t + \mathsf{VaR}_t < 0\right) = P\left(R_t + \tilde{\mathsf{VaR}}_t < 0\right) = \alpha$$

where

$$\tilde{\text{VaR}_t} = \frac{\text{VaR}_t}{P_t} = \text{relative Value-at-Risk}$$

More on Value-at-Risk - VaR

Remark. By previous slide,

- (i) $-{\sf VaR}_t$ is the lpha-quantile of the distn of raw return $P_{t+\triangle t}-P_t$
- (ii) $-\tilde{\text{VaR}}_t$ is the lpha-quantile of the distn of return R_t

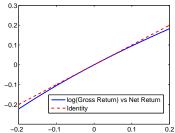
Remark. For this class we typically take logarithm of return, i.e.,

$$\tilde{R}_t \equiv \log \left[\frac{P_{t+\triangle t}}{P_t} \right] \approx R_t$$

where the approximation is justified when R_t is relatively close to

0. Note we could convert quantiles for \tilde{R} to quantiles of R easily.

Log(Gross Return) vs Net Return



Formulas

Example. Suppose portfolio value is currently 100 million dollars and $\alpha = .01$.

- (a) Suppose that distribution of relative return R_t is normal with a mean of .02 and a standard deviation of .03. Derive VaR and VaR.
- (b) Suppose that distribution of relative return R_t is DExp with a mean of .02 and a standard deviation of .03. Derive VaR and VaR.

Answer.

Shortfall Distribution

 Given a level q, the CDF of the shortfall distribution is defined by

$$\Theta_q(x) = P(X \le x | X > VaR_q)$$

Expected shortfall

$$ES_q = E(X|X > VaR_q) = \frac{1}{q} \int_{x > VaR_q} x dF(x)$$

• Estimation of VaR_q and ES_q .

Tail probabilities

• For double-exponential distribution with mean μ and scale parameter λ , tail probability is

$$1 - F(x) = \frac{1}{2}e^{-\lambda|x-\mu|}$$

For normal distribution, tail probability is

$$1 - F(x) = \int_{x}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^{2}}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}}$$

$$\sim \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}x} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}} \text{ as } x \to \infty$$

where the similar (\sim) notation here means that

$$\frac{1 - F(x)}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}x} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}} \to 1 \quad \text{as } x \to \infty.$$

Remark. In both cases, the tail probabilities go to 0 exponentially fast. There are cases where the tail probabilities go to 0 slower than exponential.

Background: Similarity of Tail Probabilities

Remarks.

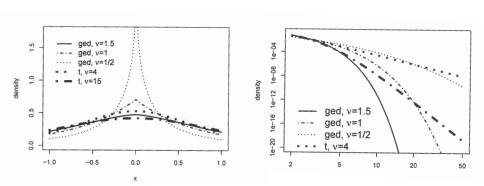
- For double exponential, normal distribution, and GED, the tail probabilities go to 0 exponentially fast.
- A number of models for financial data involve tail probabilities that go to 0 slower than exponential
 - In some widely utilized models, tail probabilities go to 0 inversely related to a polynomial – example would be

$$1 - F(x) \sim \frac{1}{x^p} \quad \text{as } x \to \infty$$

where p > 0

Remark. Want to investigate for two different cdfs F and G whether tail probabilities are similar, i.e., $(1-F(x))\sim (1-G(x))$. To do this we need a definition of functions being similar at ∞ .

Comparison of GED with t-distribution



Implications for fitting tails vs. main body of distributions

Similarity of Tail Probabilities

Definition. Suppose have two positive functions g(x) and h(x) for $x \in \mathbb{R}$. We say that $g \sim h$ at infinity if there is $0 < C < \infty$ so that

$$\frac{g(x)}{h(x)} \to C \qquad \text{as } x \to \infty$$

Remark. Note that $g \sim h$ if and only if

Example 1. Suppose g(x) and h(x) are polynomials, i.e.,

$$g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{p} a_i x^i, \quad h(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{q} b_j x^j$$

where $a_p > 0$, $b_q > 0$. Then g and h have orders p and q, respectively, and $g \sim h$ if and only if

Similarity of Tail Probabilities - 2

Example 2. Suppose F,G are two cdfs, and $[1-F(x)]\sim \frac{1}{x^p}$ with p>0 and $[1-G(x)]\sim Ke^{-a|x-b|^{\alpha}}$ with $K,a,\alpha>0$ – then it is easy to show that

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1 - G(x)}{1 - F(x)} =$$

Note Implication of this Example 2 result is that polynomial tail probabilities are (much) heavier than exponential tail probabilities.

Remark. Pareto distribution (and generalized Pareto distn) are distributions with "polynomial-heavy" tails.

Continuous Distribution: Pareto

Definition: Pareto Distribution. A pdf f is said to correspond to a Pareto distribution with location parameter of μ and shape parameter a>0 if

$$f(x) = \frac{a\mu^a}{x^{a+1}} \qquad x > \mu$$

The cdf is given by

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(u) \, du$$

Notation: If X has Pareto distribution with parameters of μ, a , write $X \sim \mathsf{PD}(\mu, a)$.

Pictures:

Continuous Distribution: Generalized Pareto

- There is a Generalized Pareto distribution
- The parameterization of the generalized Pareto distribution is not a simple "generalization" of Pareto

Definition: Generalized Pareto Distribution. The pdf f for the Generalized Pareto distribution with location parameter of μ , shape parameter $\xi>0$, and scale parameter $\sigma>0$ is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \left(1 + \frac{\xi(x - \mu)}{\sigma} \right)^{\left(-\frac{1}{\xi} - 1 \right)}$$
 $x \ge \mu$

The cdf is given by

$$F(x) =$$

Notation: If X has generalized Pareto distribution with parameters of μ, ξ, σ , write $X \sim \mathsf{GPD}(\mu, \xi, \sigma)$

More on the Generalized Pareto Distn

Remark. The tail probabilities for $X \sim \mathsf{GPD}(\mu, \xi, \sigma)$ are

$$1 - F(x) = \left(1 + \frac{\xi(x - \mu)}{\sigma}\right)^{-1/\xi}$$

Relationship be Pareto/Generalized Pareto It can be shown that the Pareto distribution $PD(\mu,a)$ and the generalized Pareto distribution $PD(\mu,\xi,\sigma)$ are equal when

$$\xi = \frac{1}{a}$$
 and $\sigma = \frac{\mu}{a}$

Generalized Pareto Distribution R-functions

- Must install fExtremes package
- Then do command of library(fExtremes)

```
dgpd(x, xi = 1, mu = 0, beta = 1, log = FALSE) # density function pgpd(q, xi = 1, mu = 0, beta = 1, lower.tail = TRUE) # cdf qgpd(p, xi = 1, mu = 0, beta = 1, lower.tail = TRUE) # quantile rgpd(n, xi = 1, mu = 0, beta = 1) # generates random deviates
```

• Note that "beta" is same as our "sigma"

Limit of Generalized Pareto - $\xi \to 0$

Remark. The tail distribution of $GPD(\mu, \xi, \sigma)$ satisfies

$$(1 - F(x)) \sim \left(\frac{\xi}{\sigma}\right)^{-\frac{1}{\xi}} \cdot \frac{1}{x^{\frac{1}{\xi}}}$$

- As $\xi \to 0$, tails becoming lighter and lighter as polynomial power $\frac{1}{\xi}$ increases
- For $\mu=0$, the limit of the Generalized Pareto distribution as $\xi\downarrow 0$ is the exponential distribution derived from simple limit result in mathematics that

$$\lim_{M \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{\beta}{M} \right)^M = e^{\beta}$$

Remark Assuming that $\mu = 0$, can show that

$$\lim_{\xi \to 0} (1 - F(x)) =$$

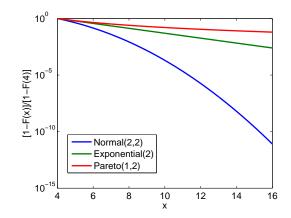
i.e., tail distribution is like an .



Example: Plots of Tail Probabilities

Remark. Below is plot of tail probabilities for normal, exponential, and Pareto

• Normalized to starting point of (1-F(4)), i.e., plotting conditional probability of $P(X \ge x|X \ge 4)$



Pareto Tail Distributions

Remark. Often people are most interested in the tails of a distribution (related to risk).

Definition. A rv X is said to have a Pareto (right) tail distribution if

$$1 - F(x) \sim \frac{1}{x^a}$$

Remark. Often people are most interested if distribution X looks Pareto/Generalized Pareto in the "tail" part of the distribution

 Willing to emphasize less the fit of the distribution in the middle

Example Suppose

$$F(x) = 1 - \frac{e^{\frac{1}{x^2}}}{e \cdot x^2}$$
 $x > 1$

What is the approximate tail distribution?

Answer.



Transformations of Random Variables

Linear Transformations of Normal RV

Theorem. Suppose $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, b is any real number, a > 0, and Y = aX + b. The $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$.

Corollary. Suppose $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

Then Z is standard normal, i.e., $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$.

Linear Transformations - Uniform/Double Exp/Pareto RVs

Remark. There are similar results for uniform, double exponential, GED, t, and Pareto rvs.