Price fluctuations

Zempléni, András

Department of Probability Theory Faculty of Sciences ELTE

• The 1 - p-quantile, based on the generalized Pareto model:

$$z_{p} = \begin{cases} u + \frac{\tilde{\sigma}}{\xi} \left[\left(\frac{p}{\eta} \right)^{-\xi} - 1 \right], & \xi \neq 0 \\ u - \tilde{\sigma} \log \left(\frac{p}{\eta} \right), & \xi = 0 \end{cases}$$

where $\eta = P(X > u)$, $\hat{\eta} = \frac{n_u}{n}$. n_u is the number of such observations in the sample that exceed u

- This is the value that is exceeded on average once in every 1/p observations
- If we observe annually on average n_y maxima over the threshold, then the $\frac{1}{T*n_y}$ quantile is returning once in every *T* years on average.
- If ξ < 0, the estimated upper endpoint of the distribution is u − σ̃/ξ.

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- The mean excess plot: We plot the average of X u for different thresholds u (for those observations, which fulfill X > u) as a function of u.
- If the Pareto model is true, this curve is near to linear. The explanation of its properties may be difficult due to its wild fluctuations near the maximum of the observations.
- An alternative: let us consider the estimated values of the parameters for different thresholds.

Example: S&P 500, daily losses



Figure 1: Mean excesses as the function of the threshold

- Daily losses in %
- 1960-1987
- Threshold: 1.5%
- MLE: ξ = 0.177, σ = 0.415
- 40 years return level: 6.57, conf. int: (4.9;10)
- Data for the period 2002-2005
- Threshold: 1%
- MLE: ξ = -0.31, σ = 0.62
- 10 years return level: 2.8
- The largest observed loss was on 13.10.2008: 9.05%

- It would be good to use more data and real observations
- Classic model: the observations should exceed the threshold in all coordinates
 - Margins: GPD
 - Certain parametric MGEV models may be transferred
 - R package EVD can be used
- But: the used number of observations is low

Alternative definition (BGPD II)

- It considers every observation that exceeds the threshold in at least one coordinate
- Formally: $\underline{Y} = (Y_1, ..., Y_d)$ is a random vector, $\underline{u} = (u_1, ..., u_d)$ a suitably high threshold $\underline{X} = \underline{Y} \underline{u} = (Y_1 u_1, ..., Y_d u_d)$ the exceedances
- H is a *d*-dimensional GPD (MGPD) if:

$$H(x_1,\ldots,x_d)=\frac{-1}{\log G(0,\ldots,0)}\log\frac{G(x_1,\ldots,x_d)}{G(x_1\wedge 0,\ldots,x_d\wedge 0)},$$

where G has MGEV distribution

• We get standard Fréchet marginals by the transform

$$t_i = t_i(x_i) = \frac{-1}{\log G_{\xi_i,\mu_i,\sigma_i}(x_i)} = (1 + \xi_i(x_i - \mu_i)/\sigma_i)^{1/\xi_i},$$

where $1 + \xi_i (x_i - \mu_i) / \sigma_i > 0$ and $\sigma_i > 0, i = 1, ..., d$.

Alternative definition (BGPD II)

• The MGPD density (if exists)

$$h(\underline{x}) = \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_1 \dots \partial x_d}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1 \dots \partial x_d} \left(1 - \frac{\log G(\underline{x})}{\log G(\underline{0})} \right)$$
$$= \frac{\prod_{i=1}^d t'_i(x_i)}{V(t_1(0), \dots, t_d(0))} \times \frac{\partial V}{\partial t_1 \dots \partial t_d} (t_1(x_1), \dots, t_d(x_d)).$$

- The margins will not be GPDs, but $Z_i | Z_i > 0$ is GPD for the 1-dimensional margins
- There are just a few models which can be identified
- Estimation: with the R package mgpd, but it is not easy in more than two dimensions
- Comparison: bootstrap simulations show that those estimators, which are based on more data are indeed more reliable

Comparison of the models



Figure 2: Coverage sets for simulated data

Comparing two 2D models



Figure 3: Comparing symmetric and asymmetric models

Psi-logistic model: $A(\Psi(t)) = A(t + f(t))$, where $f_{\psi_1,\psi_2}(t) = \psi_1(t(1-t))^{\psi_2}$, if $t \in [0, 1]$, $\psi_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\psi_2 \ge 1$ are asymmetry parameters

- Here we assume exponential margins
- Let Y_i = Z max(X₁, ..., X_d) + X_i, where Z has unit exponential distribution, and <u>X</u> is independent from Z.Then Y has an MGPD II distribution, with unit exponential margins conditionally for Y_i > 0.
- Moreover, every such MGPD vector can be expressed in this way
- For certain generators with independent components, the density can be calculated
- ML method can be used for estimation

Assumption: the observations come from F, which is in the MDA of a GEV distribution G.

- Hill estimator
- Pickands estimator
- Method of moments
- ML estimator for the exponential regression

- For a heavy tailed distribution: $P(X > z) = z^{-\alpha}L(z)$.
- The distribution of $\log(X)$: $P(\log X > u) = e^{-\alpha u}L(e^{u})$.
- Quantile function: $Q(1 p) = p^{-\gamma} L^*(1/p)$, thus

$$\log Q(1-p) = -\gamma \log p + \log L^*(1/p).$$

- The ordered sample of X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n is denoted by $X_1^* \leq X_2^* \leq \cdots \leq X_n^*$.
- The elements of the ordered sample are consistent estimators for the respective quantiles.
- Plot: $\log X_{n-j+1}^*$ vs $\log \frac{j}{n+1}$.
- It is asymptotically linear with steepness γ .

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Hill estimator/2

• Estimation of the steepnes:

$$\frac{\frac{1}{k}\sum_{j=1}^{k} \left(\log(X_{n-j+1}^{*}) - \log(X_{n-k+1}^{*}) \right)}{-\frac{1}{k}\sum_{j=1}^{k} \left(\log(\frac{j}{n+1}) - \log(\frac{k}{n+1}) \right)}$$

- The denominator is near to 1, if k is large
- Thus the Hill estimator:

$$H_{k,n} = rac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \left(\log(X_{n-j+1}^*) - \log(X_{n-k+1}^*) \right).$$

- See Embrechts et al., p. 331 for another motivation
- Properties:
 - depends on k
 - k small: large variance
 - k large: substantial bias
 - A compromise must be found. Not too robust!

- $\hat{\xi}$ is a consistent estimator for the tail index only if $k \to \infty$ and $k/n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.
- The double bootstrap method proposes *k* by minimizing the asymptotic mean squared error, based on bootstrap resampling.
- Another method minimizes the distance between the tail of the empirical distribution function and the fitted Pareto distribution with the estimated tail index parameter. For the minimization the Kolmogorov-Smirnov distance of the quantiles can be used.

Example: GBP vs DM daily return



Figure 4: The Hill estimator and its confidence bounds as a function of the threshold

- A useful tool, it is easy to generalise the models with its help
- The sample is a sequence of random points, their number is *n*
- N(B): the number of observations falling into the Borel set *B*.
- The extremes are interesting for us: we usually deal with points falling into (u,∞)
- Poisson point process: generalisation of the one dimensional Poisson process. Its properties:
 - N(A) and N(B) are independent for any disjoint sets A and B
 - If $\Lambda \ge 0$ is a given measure over the Borel sets (intensity), N(B) has Poisson distribution with parameter $\Lambda(B)$
 - The process is called homogeneous if Λ is constant times the Lebesgue measure (taken over the bounded Borel sets *B*)

Statistical inference for point processes

The intensity λ is supposed to come from a parametric family

$$L(\vartheta; x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \exp\{-\Lambda(A; \vartheta)\} \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda(x_i; \vartheta)$$

gives the likelihood if we have observations from a region A.

 Relation to the GPD model: the intensity measure for exceedances beyond u_n is

$$\Lambda(\boldsymbol{A}) = (t_2 - t_1) \left[1 + \xi \frac{z}{\sigma} \right]^{-1/\xi}$$

for a region $(t_1; t_2) \times (z, \infty)$ where $z > u_n$

• This approach allows for more complex models, e.g. time dependence of the parameters.

- Let *T* ⊂ ℝ^d be an index set (in case of the basic definition these were precipitation measuring stations), then {*Y_t* : *t* ∈ *T*} is a max-stable process if and only if its coordinates are max-stable.
- Example: let (r_i, s_i) be a Poisson point process over the set $(0, \infty) \times S$ with intensity measure

$$\frac{dr}{r^2}dH(\omega)$$

where S is an arbitrary measurable set, and H a measure over S.

The construction of Smith (1990)

• Let *f* be such that
$$\int_{S} f(s, t) dH(s) = 1$$
 for all *t* and

$$Y_t := \max_i \{r_i f(s_i, t)\}, t \in T$$

• *r_i* is the strength of the *i*th storm and *s_i* is its location.

$$P(Y_t < y_t, \ \forall t \in T) = \exp\left\{-\int_{\mathcal{S}} \max_t \left\{\frac{f(s,t)}{y_t}\right\} dH(s)
ight\}.$$

• This implies:

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- the margin of Y is unit Frechet
- Y is max-stable

- |T| = 1: one dimensional max-stable distribution
- $T = \{1,2\}, S = [0,1], H$ is the Lebesgue measure, for $0 < \alpha < 1$ $f(s,t) = \begin{cases} (1-\alpha)s^{-\alpha}, & \text{if } t = 1\\ (1-\alpha)(1-s)^{-\alpha}, & \text{if } t = 2 \end{cases}$

is just the 2 dimensional logistic model

 Gaussian extreme-value process: f(s, t) is the density function of the normal distribution with mean s and covariance-matrix Σ as a function of s - t

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Example: simulated Smith-type extremal processes



Price fluctuations (extreme value models)

- The estimation of the 1 dimensional margins
- Estimation of the 2 dimensional dependence (extremal index) $\vartheta(z_1 z_2)$, where

$$P(Y(z_1) < y, Y(z_2) < y) = P(Y(z_1) < y)^{\vartheta(z_1 - z_2)}.$$

 For parametric – e.g. Gauss - models approximate (pairwise) maximum likelihood estimation can be calculated; we come back to this question later

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