## Notes

## Estimating bivariate t-copulas via Kendall's tau

## Liang Peng

Department of Risk Management and Insurance
Robinson College of Business
Georgia State University


This talk is based on the following paper:

- Liang Peng and Ruodu Wang (2014). Estimating bivariate t-copula via Kendall's tau. Variance. To appear.



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## Introduction

Copula: For a random vector $(X, Y)$ with continuous marginal distributions $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$, its copula is defined as

$$
C(x, y)=P\left(F_{1}(X) \leq x, F_{2}(Y) \leq y\right) \quad \text { for } \quad 0 \leq x, y \leq 1
$$

t -copula: The t-copula is an elliptical copula defined as

$$
\begin{align*}
C(u, v ; \rho, \nu) & =\int_{-\infty}^{t_{\nu}^{-}(u)} \int_{-\infty}^{t_{\nu}^{-}(v)} \frac{1}{2 \pi\left(1-\rho^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}}\{1  \tag{1}\\
& \left.+\frac{x^{2}-2 \rho x y+y^{2}}{\nu\left(1-\rho^{2}\right)}\right\}^{-(\nu+2) / 2} d y d x,
\end{align*}
$$

where $\nu>0$ is the number of degrees of freedom, $\rho \in[-1,1]$ is the linear correlation coefficient, $t_{\nu}$ is the distribution function of a t-distribution with $\nu$ degrees of freedom and $t_{\nu}^{-}$denotes the generalized inverse function of $t_{\nu}$. When $\nu=1$, the t -copula is also called a Cauchy copula.


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## Introduction Methodology <br> Simulation Real Data Analysis Prooofs

Known results: Breymann, Dias and Embrechts (2003) and Mashal, Naldi and Zeevi (2003) showed that empirical fit of the t-copula is better than the Gaussian copula. Some recent applications and generalization of t-copula include: Schloegl and O'Kane (2005) provided formulas for the portfolio loss distribution when t-copula is employed; de Melo and Mendes (2009) priced the options related with retirement funds by using the Gaussian and $t$ copulas


Chan and Kroese (2010) used t-copula to model and estimate the probability of a large portfolio loss; Manner and Segers (2011) studied the tails of correlation mixtures of the Gaussian and $t$ copulas; grouped t-copula were given in Chapter 5 of McNeil, Frey and Embrechts (2005); Luo and Shevchenko (2010) and Venter et al. (2007) extended the grouped t-copula; tail dependence for multivariate t -copula and its monotonicity were studied by Chan and Li (2008).


Estimation: In order to fit the t-copula to a random sample $\left(X_{1}, Y_{1}\right), \cdots,\left(X_{n}, Y_{n}\right)$, one has to estimate the unknown parameters $\rho$ and $\nu$ first.
Pseudo MLE: Since the distribution of $\left(F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)^{\prime} s$ is the t -copula, we can use maximum likelihood estimation. However, $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ are unknown. Therefore we estimate them by
$F_{n 1}(x)=\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}$ and $F_{n 2}(y)=\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_{i}$, respectively. Hence, we can apply the MLE to the pseudo data
$\left(F_{n 1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{n 2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)^{\prime} s$, which is called pseudo maximum likelihood estimate by Genest, Ghoudi and Rivest (1995).
Although, generally speaking, the pseudo MLE is efficient, its computation becomes a serious issue when applying to t -copulas especially with a large dimension.

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## Introduction Methodology \begin{tabular}{c} \(\substack{Simmation <br> Real Data Analysis <br> Proors

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\end{tabular}}

Two-step estimation procedure: A more practical method to estimate $\rho$ is through the Kendall's tau, defined as
$\tau=\mathbb{E}\left(\operatorname{sign}\left(\left(X_{1}-X_{2}\right)\left(Y_{1}-Y_{2}\right)\right)\right)=4 \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} C\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right) d C\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)-1$.
It is known that $\tau$ and $\rho$ have a simple relationship

$$
\rho=\sin (\pi \tau / 2)
$$

By noting this relationship, Lindskog, McNeil and Schmock (2003) proposed to first estimate $\rho$ by
$\hat{\rho}=\sin (\pi \hat{\tau} / 2), \quad$ where $\quad \hat{\tau}=\frac{2}{n(n-1)} \sum_{1 \leq i<j \leq n} \operatorname{sign}\left(\left(X_{i}-X_{j}\right)\left(Y_{i}-Y_{j}\right)\right)$,

and then to estimate $\nu$ by maximizing the pseudo likelihood function

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{n} c\left(F_{n 1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{n 2}\left(Y_{i}\right) ; \hat{\rho}, \nu\right)
$$

where $c(u, v ; \rho, \nu)=\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial u \partial v} C(u, v ; \rho, \nu)$ is the density of the t -copula defined in (1). In other words, the estimator $\hat{\nu}$ is defined as a solution to the score equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} I\left(\hat{\rho}, \nu ; F_{n 1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{n 2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)=0 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $I(\rho, \nu ; u, v)=\frac{\partial}{\partial \nu} \log c(u, c ; \rho, \nu) . \hat{\tau}$ is called the Kendall's tau estimator.

Asymptotic limit: A recent attempt to derive the asymptotic distribution for the two-step estimator ( $\hat{\rho}, \hat{\nu}$ ) is given by Fantazzini (2010), who employed the techniques for estimating equations. Unfortunately the derived asymptotic distribution in Fantazzini (2010) is not correct since the Kendall's tau estimator is a U-statistic rather than an average of independent observations. Numeric comparisons for the two estimation procedures are given in Dakovic and Czado (2011).

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## Methodology

Here we first derive the joint asymptotic limit of the two-step estimator ( $\hat{\rho}, \hat{\nu}$ ) as follows.
Theorem 1. As $n \rightarrow \infty$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{n}\{\hat{\rho}-\rho\} \\
& =\cos \left(\frac{\pi \tau}{2}\right) \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 4\left\{C\left(F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)-\mathbb{E} C\left(F_{1}\left(X_{1}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{1}\right)\right)\right\} \\
& -\cos \left(\frac{\pi \tau}{2}\right) \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2\left\{F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right)+F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)-1\right\}+o_{p}(1)
\end{aligned}
$$

and


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$$
\begin{align*}
& \sqrt{n}\{\hat{\nu}-\nu\} \\
& =-K_{\nu}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I\left(\rho, \nu ; F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)+K_{\rho} \sqrt{n}(\hat{\rho}-\rho)\right. \\
& +\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I_{u}(\rho, \nu ; u, v)\left\{I\left(F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right) \leq u\right)-u\right\} c(u, v) d u d v \\
& \left.+\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I_{v}(\rho, \nu ; u, v)\left\{I\left(F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right) \leq v\right)-v\right\} c(u, v) d u d v\right\} \\
& +o_{p}(1), \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

where $I_{u}(\rho, \nu ; u, v)=\frac{\partial}{\partial u} I(\rho, \nu ; u, v), I_{v}(\rho, \nu ; u, v)=\frac{\partial}{\partial v} I(\rho, \nu ; u, v)$, and for $a=\nu, \rho$,
$K_{a}=\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial a} I\left(\rho, \nu ; F_{1}\left(X_{1}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{1}\right)\right)\right)=\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{\partial}{\partial a} I(\rho, \nu ; u, v) d C(u, v)$.


Using the above theorem, we can easily obtain that

$$
\sqrt{n}(\hat{\rho}-\rho, \hat{\nu}-\nu)^{T} \xrightarrow{d} N\left((0,0)^{T},\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\sigma_{1}^{2} & \sigma_{12}  \tag{5}\\
\sigma_{12} & \sigma_{2}^{2}
\end{array}\right)\right),
$$

where $\sigma_{1}^{2}, \sigma_{12}$ and $\sigma_{2}^{2}$ are constants whose values are given in the proof of Theorem 1.
Question: How to construct confidence intervals/regions effectively?
Normal Approximation Method: We seek an alternative way,
Empirical Likelihood Method, since the above asymptotic
covariance matrix is too complicated.

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Parametric likelihood ratio test

Observations: $X_{1}, \cdots, X_{n}$ iid with pdf $f(x ; g(\mu))$, where $g$ is a known function, but $\mu=E\left(X_{1}\right)$ is unknown.
Question: test $H_{0}: \mu=\mu_{0}$ against $H_{a}: \mu \neq \mu_{0}$
PLRT: Let $\hat{\mu}$ denote the maximum likelihood estimate for $\mu$. Then the likelihood ratio is defined as

$$
\lambda=\Pi_{i=1}^{n} f\left(X_{i} ; g\left(\mu_{0}\right)\right) / \Pi_{i=1}^{n} f\left(X_{i} ; g(\hat{\mu})\right) .
$$

The likelihood ratio test is based on the following
Wilks Theorem. Under $H_{0},-2 \log \lambda \xrightarrow{d} \chi^{2}(1)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.


When we do not fit a class of parametric family to $X_{i}$, but still test $H_{0}: \mu=\mu_{0}$ vs $H_{a}: \mu \neq \mu_{0}$, a similar approach to the parametric likelihood ratio test was introduced by Owen $(1988,1990)$, which is a nonparametric likelihood ratio test and called empirical likelihood method.


Define the empirical likelihood ratio function for $\mu$ as

$$
R(\mu)=\sup \left\{\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(n p_{i}\right) \mid p_{i} \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}=1, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} X_{i}=\mu\right\} .
$$

By Lagrange multiplier technique, we have
$p_{i}=n^{-1}\left\{1+\lambda^{T}\left(X_{i}-\mu\right)\right\}^{-1}$ and

$$
-2 \log R(\mu)=2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left\{1+\lambda^{T}\left(X_{i}-\mu\right)\right\},
$$

where $\lambda=\lambda(\mu)$ satisfies

$$
n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{X_{i}-\mu}{1+\lambda^{T}\left(X_{i}-\mu\right)}=0 .
$$

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Wilks Theorem: Under $H_{0}$,

$$
W\left(\mu_{0}\right):=-2 \log R\left(\mu_{0}\right) \xrightarrow{d} \chi^{2}(d) \quad \text { as } n \rightarrow \infty,
$$

where $\mu \in R^{d}$.
Confidence interval/region: The above theorem can be employed to construct a confidence interval or region for $\mu$ as

$$
I_{\alpha}=\left\{\mu: W(\mu) \leq \chi_{d, \alpha}^{2}\right\} .
$$

Advantages: i) No need to estimate any additional quantities such as asymptotic variance; ii) the shape of confidence interval/region is determined by the sample automatically; iii) Bartlett correctable


A popular way to formulate the empirical likelihood function is via estimating equations.
Observations: $X_{1}, \cdots, X_{n}$ iid with common distribution function $F$ and there is a $q$-dimensional parameter $\theta$ associated with $F$.
Conditions: Let $y^{T}$ denote the transpose of the vector $y$ and

$$
G(x ; \theta)=\left(g_{1}(x ; \theta), \cdots, g_{s}(x ; \theta)\right)^{T}
$$

denote $s(\geq q)$ functionally independent functions, which connect
$F$ and $\theta$ through the equations $E G\left(X_{1} ; \theta\right)=0$.


Empirical likelihood function:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad R(\theta)=\sup \left\{\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(n p_{i}\right): p_{i} \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}=1, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} G\left(X_{i} ; \theta\right)=0\right\} . \\
& \text { Wilks Theorem: }-2 \log R\left(\theta_{0}\right) \xrightarrow{d} \chi^{2}(q) \text { as } n \rightarrow \infty .
\end{aligned}
$$

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Profile empirical likelihood method

Suppose we are only interested in a part of $\theta$. Then like the parametric profile likelihood ratio test, we have the profile empirical likelihood method.
Observations: $X_{1}, \cdots, X_{n}$ iid with common distribution function $F$ and there is a $q$-dimensional parameter $\theta$ associated with $F$. Write $\theta=\left(\alpha^{T}, \beta^{T}\right)^{T}$, where $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are $q_{1}$-dimensional and $q_{2}$-dimensional parameters, respectively, and $q_{1}+q_{2}=q$. Now we are interested in $\alpha$.
Conditions: Let $y^{T}$ denote the transpose of the vector $y$ and

$$
G(x ; \theta)=\left(g_{1}(x ; \theta), \cdots, g_{s}(x ; \theta)\right)^{T}
$$

denote $s(\geq q)$ functionally independent functions, which connect
$F$ and $\theta$ through the equations $E G\left(X_{1} ; \theta\right)=0$.


Profile empirical likelihood ratio:

$$
I(\alpha)=2 I_{E}\left(\left(\alpha^{T}, \hat{\beta}^{T}(\alpha)\right)^{T}\right)-2 I_{E}(\tilde{\theta})
$$

where $I_{E}(\theta)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left\{1+\lambda^{T} G\left(X_{i} ; \theta\right)\right\}, \lambda=\lambda(\theta)$ is the solution of the following equation

$$
0=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{G\left(X_{i} ; \theta\right)}{1+\lambda^{T} G\left(X_{i} ; \theta\right)},
$$

$\tilde{\theta}=\left(\tilde{\alpha}^{T}, \tilde{\beta}^{T}\right)^{T}$ minimizes $I_{E}(\theta)$ with respect to $\theta$, and $\hat{\beta}(\alpha)$ minimizes $I_{E}\left(\left(\alpha^{T}, \beta^{T}\right)^{T}\right)$ with respect to $\beta$ for fixed $\alpha$.
Wilks Theorem: $I\left(\alpha_{0}\right) \xrightarrow{d} \chi^{2}\left(q_{1}\right)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, where $\alpha_{0}$ denotes the true value of $\alpha$.


Empirical likelihood method has difficulties in dealing with nonlinear functionals.
Example: Covariance. Suppose $\left(X_{1}, Y_{1}\right), \cdots,\left(X_{n}, Y_{n}\right)$ are iid with covariance $\sigma_{12}=E\left\{\left(X_{1}-E\left(X_{1}\right)\right)\left(Y_{1}-E\left(Y_{1}\right)\right)\right\}$, and we are interested in testing $H_{0}: \sigma_{12}=\sigma_{0}$ against $H_{a}: \sigma_{12} \neq \sigma_{0}$.
Method 1: Define the empirical likelihood function

$$
\begin{aligned}
R\left(\sigma_{12}\right)= & \sup \left\{\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(n p_{i}\right): p_{i} \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}=1,\right. \\
& \left.\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}\left\{X_{i}-\sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{j} X_{j}\right\}\left\{Y_{i}-\sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{j} Y_{j}\right\}=\sigma_{12}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In this way, the above minimization is too complicated due to no formula for $p_{i}^{\prime} s$.

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Method 2: Define the empirical likelihood function
$R\left(\sigma_{12}\right)=\sup \left\{\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(n p_{i}\right): p_{i} \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}=1\right.$,
$\left.\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}\left\{X_{i}-n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{j}\right\}\left\{Y_{i}-n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} Y_{j}\right\}=\sigma_{12}\right\}$
Then $-2 \log R\left(\sigma_{0}\right)$ can not converge in distribution to a chi-squared distribution since the above procedure fails to catch the variances contribution made by $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}$ and $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_{i}$. As a matter of fact, the limit is a weighted sum of two independent chi-squared random variables.


Method 3: Define the empirical likelihood function as

$$
\begin{aligned}
R\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2} \sigma_{12}\right)= & \sup \left\{\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(n p_{i}\right): p_{i} \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}=1,\right. \\
& \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} X_{i}=\mu_{1}, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} Y_{i}=\mu_{2}, \\
& \left.\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}\left(X_{i}-\mu_{1}\right)\left(Y_{i}-\mu_{2}\right)=\sigma_{12}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and the profile empirical likelihood function as

$$
R_{P}\left(\sigma_{12}\right)=\max _{\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}} R\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \sigma_{12}\right) .
$$

Wilks theorem: $-2 \log R_{P}\left(\sigma_{0}\right) \xrightarrow{d} \chi^{2}(1)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
Computional issues: After introducing the link variable $\mu$, the computation is increased.

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$$
\hat{\sigma}_{n, l}=\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i \neq l}\left\{X_{i}-\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j \neq l} X_{j}\right\}\left\{Y_{i}-\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j \neq l} Y_{j}\right\}
$$

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Then define the jacknife sample as

$$
Z_{l}=n \hat{\sigma}_{n}-(n-1) \hat{\sigma}_{n, l}
$$

for $I=1, \cdots, n$, and define the jackknife empirical likelihood function as

$$
R\left(\sigma_{12}\right)=\sup \left\{\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(n p_{i}\right) ; p_{i} \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}=1, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} Z_{i}=\sigma_{12}\right\} .
$$

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Wilks Theorem: $-2 \log R\left(\sigma_{0}\right) \xrightarrow{d} \chi^{2}(1)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
Computation: In R , one can employ the package 'emplik'.


Interval estimation for $\nu$. A direct application of empirical likelihood method fails to catch the contribution made by the first step estimation for $\rho$. Here we consider the jackknife empirical likelihood. In order to construct a jackknife sample as in Jing, Yuan and Zhou (2009), we first define for $i=1, \cdots, n \hat{\rho}_{i}=\sin \left(\pi \hat{\tau}_{i} / 2\right)$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\hat{\tau}_{i}=\frac{2}{(n-1)(n-2)} \sum_{1 \leq j<l \leq n, j \neq i, l \neq i} \operatorname{sign}\left(\left(X_{j}-X_{l}\right)\left(Y_{j}-Y_{l}\right)\right), \\
F_{n 1, i}(x)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq i} I\left(X_{j} \leq x\right), \quad F_{n 2, i}(y)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq i} I\left(Y_{j} \leq y\right),
\end{gathered}
$$

and then define the jackknife sample as
$Z_{i}(\nu)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} I\left(\hat{\rho}, \nu ; F_{n 1}\left(X_{j}\right), F_{n 2}\left(Y_{j}\right)\right)-\sum_{j \neq i} I\left(\hat{\rho}_{i}, \nu ; F_{n 1, i}\left(X_{j}\right), F_{n 2, i}\left(Y_{j}\right)\right)$
for $i=1, \cdots, n$.


Based on this jackknife sample, the jackknife empirical likelihood function for $\nu$ is defined as
$L_{1}(\nu)=\sup \left\{\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(n p_{i}\right): p_{1} \geq 0, \cdots, p_{n} \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}=1, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} Z_{i}(\nu)=0\right\}$.
By the Lagrange multiplier technique, we have

$$
I_{1}(\nu):=-2 \log L_{1}(\nu)=2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left\{1+2 \lambda_{1} Z_{i}(\nu)\right\}
$$

where $\lambda_{1}=\lambda_{1}(\nu)$ satisfies

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Z_{i}(\nu)}{1+\lambda_{1} Z_{i}(\nu)}=0
$$

The following theorem shows that Wilks Theorem holds for the
above jackknife empirical likelihood method.

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Theorem 2. As $n \rightarrow \infty, l_{1}\left(\nu_{0}\right)$ converges in distribution to a chi-square limit with one degree of freedom, where $\nu_{0}$ denotes the true value of $\nu$.
Based on the above theorem, one can construct a confidence interval with level $\alpha$ for $\nu_{0}$ without estimating the asymptotic variance as

$$
I_{1}(\alpha)=\left\{\nu: I_{1}(\nu) \leq \chi_{1, \alpha}^{2}\right\}
$$

where $\chi_{1, \alpha}^{2}$ denotes the $\alpha$-th quantile of a chi-square limit with one degree of freedom.


Interval estimation for $(\rho, \nu)$. Since the Kendall's tau estimator is not a linear functional, one can not apply the empirical likelihood method directly to construct a confidence region for $(\rho, \nu)$. Here we employ the jackknife empirical likelihood method by defining the jackknife empirical likelihood function as
$L_{2}(\rho, \nu)=\sup \left\{\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(n p_{i}\right): p_{1} \geq 0, \cdots, p_{n} \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}=1\right.$, $\left.\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} Z_{i}(\nu)=0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}\left(n \hat{\rho}-(n-1) \hat{\rho}_{i}\right)=\rho\right\}$.


Theorem 3. As $n \rightarrow \infty,-2 \log L_{2}\left(\rho_{0}, \nu_{0}\right)$ converges in distribution to a chi-square limit with two degrees of freedom, where $\left(\rho_{0}, \nu_{0}\right)^{T}$ denotes the true value of $(\rho, \nu)^{T}$.
Based on the above theorem, one can construct a confidence region with level $\alpha$ for $\left(\rho_{0}, \nu_{0}\right)^{T}$ without estimating the asymptotic variance as

$$
I_{2}(\alpha)=\left\{(\rho, \nu):-2 \log L_{2}(\rho, \nu) \leq \chi_{2, \alpha}^{2}\right\},
$$

where $\chi_{2, \alpha}^{2}$ denotes the $\alpha$-th quantile of a chi-square limit with two degrees of freedom.

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## Simulation

We investigate the finite sample behavior of the proposed jackknife empirical likelihood method for constructing confidence intervals for $\nu$ and compare it with the parametric bootstrap method in terms of coverage probability.
We employ the R packge 'copula' to draw 1,000 random samples with size $n=200,500$ from the t-copula with $\rho=0.1,0.5,0.9$ and $\nu=3,8$. For computing the confidence interval based on normal approximation, we use parametric bootstrap method to obtain the critical values by resampling 1,000 samples with size $n$ from the t -copula with parameters $\hat{\rho}$ and $\hat{\nu}$. The R package 'emplik' is employed to compute the coverage probability of the proposed jackknife empirical likelihood method.


## Notes

| $(n, \rho, \nu)$ | JELM <br> Level $90 \%$ | NAM <br> Level $90 \%$ | JELM <br> Level $95 \%$ | NAM <br> Level $95 \%$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $(200,0.1,3)$ | 0.886 | 0.813 | 0.935 | 0.844 |
| $(200,0.5,3)$ | 0.849 | 0.771 | 0.908 | 0.802 |
| $(200,0.9,3)$ | 0.878 | 0.826 | 0.928 | 0.849 |
| $(200,0.1,8)$ | 0.831 | 0.600 | 0.909 | 0.615 |
| $(200,0.5,8)$ | 0.815 | 0.594 | 0.886 | 0.611 |
| $(200,0.9,8)$ | 0.837 | 0.664 | 0.902 | 0.680 |
| $(500,0.1,3)$ | 0.871 | 0.825 | 0.923 | 0.853 |
| $(500,0.5,3)$ | 0.874 | 0.838 | 0.933 | 0.870 |
| $(500,0.9,3)$ | 0.876 | 0.844 | 0.932 | 0.869 |
| $(500,0.1,8)$ | 0.871 | 0.728 | 0.939 | 0.760 |
| $(500,0.5,8)$ | 0.862 | 0.747 | 0.920 | 0.769 |
| $(500.0 .9 .8)$ | 0.892 | 0.774 | 0.942 | 0.797 |
|  |  |  |  |  |



## Notes

## Data Analysis

First we fit the bivariate t-copula to the data set on 3283 daily log-returns of equity for two major Dutch banks, ING and ABN AMRO Bank, over the period 1991-2003, giving $\hat{\rho}=0.682$ and $\hat{\nu}=2.617$. The empirical likelihood ratio function $I_{1}(\nu)$ is plotted against $\nu$ below from 1.501 to 3.5 with step 0.001 , which shows that the proposed jackknife empirical likelihood intervals for $\nu$ are $(2.280,3.042)$ for level 0.9 and $(2.246,3.129)$ for level 0.95 . The normal-approximation-based intervals for $\nu$ are $(2.257,2.910)$ for level 0.9 and $(2.195,2.962)$ for level 0.95 . As we see, the intervals based on the jackknife empirical likelihood method are slightly longer and more skewed to the right than those based on the normal approximation method.

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Figure: Equity. The empirical likelihood ratio $I_{1}(\nu)$ is plotted against $\nu$ from 1.501 to 3.5 with step 0.001 for the daily log-returns of equity for two major Dutch banks (ING and ABN AMRO Bank) over the period 1991-2003.

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Second we fit the $t$ copula to the nonzero losses to building and content in the Danish fire insurance claims. This data set is available at www.ma.hw.ac.uk/~mcneil/, which comprises 2167 fire losses over the period 1980 to 1990 . We find that $\hat{\rho}=0.134$ and $\hat{\nu}=9.474$. The proposed jackknife empirical likelihood intervals for $\nu$ are $(6.830,16.285)$ and $(6.415,17.785)$ for levels 0.9 and 0.95 respectively, and the normal-approximation-based intervals for $\nu$ are $(0.978,12.719)$ and $(-2.242,13.070)$ for levels 0.9 and 0.95 respectively. The above negative value is due to some large values of the bootstrapped estimators of $\nu$. It is clear that the proposed jackknife empirical likelihood intervals are shorter and more skewed to the right than the normal approximation based intervals.



Figure: Danish fire losses. The empirical likelihood ratio $I_{1}(\nu)$ is plotted against $\nu$ from 5.005 to 20 with step 0.005 for the nonzero losses to building and content in the Danish fire insurance claims.

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## Proofs

Proof of Theorem 1. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(x, y)= & \mathbb{E} \operatorname{sign}\left(\left(x-X_{1}\right)\left(y-Y_{1}\right)\right)-\tau \\
= & 4\left\{C\left(F_{1}(x), F_{2}(y)\right)-\mathbb{E} C\left(F_{1}\left(X_{1}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{1}\right)\right)\right\} \\
& -2\left\{F_{1}(x)-\frac{1}{2}\right\}-2\left\{F_{2}(y)-\frac{1}{2}\right\}, \\
\psi\left(x_{1}, y_{1}, x_{2}, y_{2}\right)= & \operatorname{sign}\left(\left(x_{1}-x_{2}\right)\left(y_{1}-y_{2}\right)\right)-g\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)-g\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows from the Hoeffding decomposition and results in
Hoeffding (1948) that
$\sqrt{n}\{\hat{\tau}-\tau\}$
$=\frac{2}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}\right)+\frac{2 \sqrt{n}}{n(n-1)} \sum_{1 \leq i<j \leq n} \psi\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}, X_{j}, Y_{j}\right)$
$=\frac{2}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}\right)+o_{p}(1)$,
which implies (3).


By the Taylor expansion, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
0= & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I\left(\hat{\rho}, \hat{\nu} ; F_{n 1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{n 2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right) \\
= & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I\left(\rho, \nu ; F_{n 1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{n 2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right) \\
& +\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\{\frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} I\left(\rho, \nu ; F_{n 1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{n 2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)\right\}(\hat{\rho}-\rho) \\
& +\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\{\frac{\partial}{\partial \nu} l\left(\rho, \nu ; F_{n 1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{n 2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)\right\}(\hat{\nu}-\nu)+o_{p}(1) \\
= & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I\left(\rho, \nu ; F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right) \\
& +\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{u}\left(\rho, \nu ; F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)\left\{F_{n 1}\left(X_{i}\right)-F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right)\right\} \\
& +\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{\nu}\left(\rho, \nu ; F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)\left\{F_{n 2}\left(Y_{i}\right)-F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right\} \\
& +\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\{\frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} I\left(\rho, \nu ; F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)\right\} \sqrt{n}(\hat{\rho}-\rho) \\
& +\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\{\frac{\partial}{\partial \nu} I\left(\rho, \nu ; F_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), F_{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right)\right\} \sqrt{n}(\hat{\nu}-\nu)+o_{p}(1), \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

which implies (4). More details can be found in Wang, Peng and Yang (2013).

The values of $\sigma_{1}^{2}, \sigma_{12}$ and $\sigma_{2}^{2}$ can be calculated straightforward by using the Law of Large Numbers, which are

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sigma_{1}^{2}=\cos ^{2}\left(\frac{\pi \tau}{2}\right) \pi^{2}\left\{8 \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1}\left\{2 C^{2}(u, v)-2(u+v) C(u, v)+u v\right\}\right. \\
\left.d C(u, v)+\frac{5}{3}-\tau^{2}+2 \tau\right\}, \\
\sigma_{2}^{2}=K_{\nu}^{-2}\left(K^{2}+R_{1}+R_{2}+2 R_{3}+2 R_{4}+2 R_{5}+K_{\rho}^{2} \sigma_{1}^{2}+2 K_{\rho}\left(L_{1}+L_{2}+L_{3}\right)\right), \\
\sigma_{12}^{2}=-K_{\nu}^{-1}\left(K_{\rho} \sigma_{1}^{2}+L_{1}+L_{2}+L_{3}\right),
\end{gathered}
$$

where

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$$
K^{2}=\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I(\rho, \nu ; u, v)^{2} d C(u, v)
$$

$R_{1}=\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I_{u}\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{1}, v_{1}\right) I_{u}\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\left(u_{1} \wedge u_{2}-u_{1} u_{2}\right)$ $d C\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right) d C\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$,
$R_{2}=\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I_{v}\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{1}, v_{1}\right) l_{v}\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\left(v_{1} \wedge v_{2}-v_{1} v_{2}\right)$ $d C\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right) d C\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$,
$R_{3}=\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I_{u}\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{1}, v_{1}\right) I_{v}\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\left(C\left(u_{1}, v_{2}\right)-u_{1} v_{2}\right)$ $d C\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right) d C\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$,

$R_{4}=\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I_{u}\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{1}, v_{1}\right) I\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\left(I\left(u_{2} \leq u_{1}\right)-u_{1}\right)$
$d C\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right) d C\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$,
$R_{5}=\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I_{v}\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{1}, v_{1}\right) I\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\left(I\left(v_{2} \leq v_{1}\right)-v_{1}\right)$
$d C\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right) d C\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$,
$L_{1}=\cos \left(\frac{\pi \tau}{2}\right) \pi \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I(\rho, \nu ; u, v)\{4 C(u, v)-2 u-2 v\} d C(u, v)$,
$L_{2}=\cos \left(\frac{\pi \tau}{2}\right) \pi \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I_{u}\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{1}, v_{1}\right)\left\{4 C\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)-2 u_{2}-2 v_{2}\right\} \times$ $\left\{I\left(u_{2} \leq u_{1}\right)-u_{1}\right\} d C\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right) d C\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$,
and
$L_{3}=\cos \left(\frac{\pi \tau}{2}\right) \pi \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} I_{v}\left(\rho, \nu ; u_{1}, v_{1}\right)\left\{4 C\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)-2 u_{2}-2 v_{2}\right\} \times$ $\left\{I\left(v_{2} \leq v_{1}\right)-v_{1}\right\} d C\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right) d C\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$.


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