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# A refined extreme quantile estimator for Weibull tail-distributions 

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#### Abstract

We address the estimation of extreme quantiles of Weibull tail-distributions. Since such quantiles are asymptotically larger than the sample maximum, their estimation requires extrapolation methods. In the case of Weibull tail-distributions, classical extreme-value estimators are numerically outperformed by estimators dedicated to this set of light-tailed distributions. The latter estimators of extreme quantiles are based on two key quantities: an order statistic to estimate an intermediate quantile and an estimator of the Weibull tail-coefficient used to extrapolate. The common practice is to select the same intermediate sequence for both estimators. We show how an adapted choice of two different intermediate sequences leads to a reduction of the asymptotic bias associated with the resulting refined estimator. This analysis is supported by an asymptotic normality result associated with the refined estimator. A data-driven method is introduced for the practical selection of the intermediate sequences and our approach is compared to three estimators of extreme quantiles dedicated to Weibull taildistributions on simulated data. An illustration on a real data set of daily wind measures is also provided.


Key words: extreme quantile, bias reduction, Weibull tail-distribution, extreme-value statistics, asymptotic normality.

Mathematics Subject Classification: 60G70, 62G32, 62G20.

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The code is available from the corresponding author upon request.

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## 1 Introduction

Let $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ be independent and identically distributed random variables with cumulative distribution function $F$ and let $X_{1, n} \leq \ldots \leq X_{n, n}$ denote the associated order statistics. We consider the case where $F$ belongs to the family of Weibull tail-distributions [12]:
(A.1) $F$ is twice differentiable and $F(\cdot)=1-\exp (-H(\cdot))$ with $V(t):=H^{\leftarrow}(t)=t^{\theta} \ell(t)$ for all $t>0$, where $\theta>0$ is called the Weibull tail-coefficient and where $\ell$ is a (positive) slowly-varying function i.e. $\ell(t x) / \ell(x) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ for all $t>0$.
Here, and in the following, $\Phi \leftarrow(\cdot)=\inf \{x \in \mathbb{R}, \Phi(x)>\cdot\}$ denotes the generalized inverse of an increasing function $\Phi$. The inverse cumulative hazard function $V$ is said to be regularly-varying at infinity with index $\theta$ and this property is denoted by $V \in \mathcal{R} \mathcal{V}_{\theta}$, see [11] for a detailed account on this topic. The shape parameter $\theta$ is referred to as the Weibull tail-coefficient. Weibull tail-distributions are part of the Gumbel maximum domain of attraction, i.e. with extreme-value index $\gamma=0$, see [19, Proposition 2(ii)], and as such, are light-tailed distributions. They include for instance exponential $(\theta=1)$, Gamma $(\theta=1)$, logistic $(\theta=1)$, Gaussian $(\theta=1 / 2)$ and Weibull distributions $(\theta$ is the inverse of the shape parameter), see [20, Table 1]. We refer to [9] for an application to the modeling of large claims in non-life insurance and to [27] for an analysis of neural networks distributional properties.

Dedicated methods have been proposed to estimate the Weibull tail-coefficient $\theta$ since the relevant information is localised in the extreme upper part of the sample. Most approaches rely on the $k_{n}$ upper order statistics $X_{n-k_{n}+1, n}, \ldots, X_{n, n}$ where $k_{n} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Note that, since $\theta$ is defined through a tail behavior, the associated estimator should only use the extreme-values of the sample and thus the extra condition $k_{n} / n \rightarrow 0$ is required. More specifically, recent estimators are based on the log-spacings between the $k_{n}$ upper order statistics [10, 17, [19, 20, or on the mean excess function [6, 7, 8. The introduction of kernel based weights has been investigated for both approaches, see [18, 21] for the log-spacings case and [22] for the mean excess function framework. A bias reduction method adapted to the estimation of the Weibull tail-coefficient is proposed in [14] and the adaptation to random censoring is achieved in 29.

We address the problem of estimating extreme quantiles of Weibull tail-distributions. Recall that an extreme quantile $q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)$ of order $\alpha_{n}$ is defined by $q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)=F^{\leftarrow}\left(1-\alpha_{n}\right)$ with $n \alpha_{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The latter condition implies that $q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)$ is almost surely asymptotically larger than $X_{n, n}$, the sample maximum. It is shown in [16] that classical extreme-value estimators of such large quantiles are numerically outperformed by estimators dedicated to Weibull tail-distributions [15], see also Lemma 2 in the Appendix for a theoretical argument. The latter methods estimate $q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)$ by combining two ingredients: an order statistic $X_{n-k_{n}+1, n}$ and an estimator of the Weibull tailcoefficient $\theta$ used to extrapolate from this anchor point.

In this work, we show that the biases associated with the previous extrapolation method and the estimator of $\theta$ may asymptotically cancel out in the extreme quantile estimator thanks to an appropriate tuning of the number of upper order statistics involved in the Weibull tail-coefficient estimator. The construction of the resulting estimator is presented in Section 2 and an asymptotic normality result is provided, emphasizing that the proposed extreme quantile estimator is asymptotically less biased than the original one [16]. Its performances are illustrated on simulated data in Section 3 and compared to three state-of-the-art competitors [8, 15, 16]. An illustration on a real
data set of daily wind measures is provided in Section 4 Finally, a small conclusion is proposed in Section 5 and the proofs are postponed to the Appendix.

## 2 A refined estimator of the extreme quantile

### 2.1 Extreme quantile estimators

Weibull-tail estimators of the extreme quantile $q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)$ rely on an intermediate quantile $q\left(k_{n} / n\right)$ where $\left(k_{n}\right)$ is an intermediate sequence of integers i.e. such that $k_{n} \in\{1, \ldots, n-1\}, k_{n} \rightarrow \infty$ and $k_{n} / n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, see for instance [15, 16]. Indeed, in view of (A.1), one has

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)}{q\left(k_{n} / n\right)}=\frac{V\left(\log \left(1 / \alpha_{n}\right)\right)}{V\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right)} \simeq\left(\frac{\log \left(1 / \alpha_{n}\right)}{\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)}\right)^{\theta}=: \tau_{n}^{\theta} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$, where $\tau_{n}=\log \left(1 / \alpha_{n}\right) / \log \left(n / k_{n}\right)$ is the (logarithmic) extrapolation factor. From an intuitive point of view, an extreme quantile can thus be approximated by multiplying an intermediate quantile by an appropriate extrapolation term, namely:

$$
q\left(\alpha_{n}\right) \simeq q\left(k_{n} / n\right) \tau_{n}^{\theta}
$$

The intermediate quantile $q\left(k_{n} / n\right)$ can then be estimated by its empirical counterpart $X_{n-k_{n}+1, n}$ while the extrapolation term depends on the tail heaviness through $\theta$ which has to be estimated as well. Following the ideas of [4, we propose a refined Weissman [28] type estimator defined by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\prime}\right)=X_{n-k_{n}+1, n}\left(\frac{\log \left(1 / \alpha_{n}\right)}{\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)}\right)^{\hat{\theta}_{n}\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)}=X_{n-k_{n}+1, n} \tau_{n}^{\hat{\theta}_{n}\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\hat{\theta}_{n}\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ an estimator of the Weibull tail-coefficient $\theta$ depending on another intermediate sequence $\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)$. Let us focus on the estimator of $\theta$ introduced in [17]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{\mu\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)} \frac{1}{k_{n}^{\prime}} \sum_{i=1}^{k_{n}^{\prime}}\left(\log X_{n-i+1, n}-\log X_{n-k_{n}^{\prime}+1, n}\right), \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

with, for $t>0$,

$$
\mu(t)=\int_{0}^{+\infty} \log \left(1+\frac{x}{t}\right) e^{-x} d x=e^{t} E_{1}(t)
$$

where $E_{1}$ is the Exponential integral function [2, Page 228]. This estimator is motivated by the remark that, in view of (1), the log-spacings between two quantiles are approximately proportional to $\theta$. This property is also used in the real data application (see the bottom panel of Figure 5) to visually check the Weibull-tail assumption. Clearly, $\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}(\cdot)$ can be interpreted as a rescaled Hill estimator since

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)=\frac{\hat{\gamma}_{n}^{\mathrm{H}}\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)}{\mu\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)}, \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\hat{\gamma}_{n}^{\mathrm{H}}(\cdot)$ is the well-known Hill estimator [26] of the extreme-value index $\gamma$.
Let us note that $k_{n}^{\prime}=k_{n}$ yields back the extreme quantile estimator for Weibull tail-distributions introduced in [16]. In the next paragraph, the asymptotic normality of $\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ is established, and it is shown that choosing $k_{n}^{\prime} \neq k_{n}$ can yield better results from an asymptotic point of view.

A similar phenomenon occurs in the estimation of the endpoint of a distribution in the Weibull maximum domain of attraction, see [1] for details. We also refer to [4] for an application to the estimation of the tail-index in the Fréchet maximum domain of attraction.

### 2.2 Asymptotic analysis

The study of the limit distribution of $\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ requires a second-order condition on the slowlyvarying function $\ell$ introduced in (A.1):
(A.2) There exist $\rho \leq 0$ and $b(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, with ultimately constant sign, such that uniformly locally on $x \geq 1$,

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{b(t)} \log \left(\frac{\ell(t x)}{\ell(t)}\right)=K_{\rho}(x):=\int_{1}^{x} u^{\rho-1} d u
$$

It can be shown that necessarily $|b| \in \mathcal{R} \mathcal{V}_{\rho}$. The second-order Weibull parameter $\rho \leq 0$ tunes the rate of convergence of the ratio $\ell(t x) / \ell(t)$ to 1 . The closer $\rho$ is to 0 , the slower is the convergence. Condition (A.2) is the cornerstone in all proofs of asymptotic normality for extreme-value estimators. Again, we refer to [20, Table 1] for $\rho$ parameters associated with usual Weibull taildistributions.

Our first result is a refinement of [17, Corollary 3.1]. It provides an asymptotic normality result for the extreme quantile estimator $(2)$ based on two intermediate sequences $\left(k_{n}\right)$ and $\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)$.

Theorem 1. Assume (A.1) and (A.2) hold. Let $\left(k_{n}\right)$ and $\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ be two intermediate sequences and introduce $\left(\alpha_{n}\right)$ a probability sequence such that $\alpha_{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Suppose, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,
(i) $\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}} b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$,
(ii) $\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right) / \log \left(n / k_{n}\right) \rightarrow \beta \geq 1$,
(iii) $\tau_{n} \rightarrow \tau>\beta$.

Then, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}}\left(\frac{\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\prime}\right)}{q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)}-1\right) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}\left(\lambda\left(\log (\tau)-\beta^{-\rho} K_{\rho}(\tau)\right),(\theta \log \tau)^{2}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us first remark that condition (i) implies $\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right) \sim \log (n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (see [17, Lemma 5.1]), then condition (ii) yields $\log \left(n / k_{n}\right) \sim \log (n) / \beta$ and therefore condition (iii) can be rewritten as $\log \left(1 / \alpha_{n}\right) \sim(\tau / \beta) \log (n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. As a consequence, the condition $\tau>\beta$ in (iii) implies $n \alpha_{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ which, in turns, implies that $q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)$ is an extreme quantile.

It follows from (5) that the asymptotic bias associated with $\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ is given by

$$
\left(\log \tau-\beta^{-\rho} K_{\rho}(\tau)\right) b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right) \sim\left(\beta^{\rho} \log (\tau)-K_{\rho}(\tau)\right) b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right)=: B(\beta, \tau, \rho) b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right)
$$

since $|b| \in \mathcal{R} \mathcal{V}_{\rho}$. It thus appears that each choice of $k_{n}^{\prime}$ yields an associated constant $\beta$ in (ii) and thus a corresponding bias factor

$$
B(\beta, \tau, \rho)=\beta^{\rho} \log (\tau)-K_{\rho}(\tau)
$$

From the theoretical point of view, two cases can be considered.

- The usual choice $k_{n}^{\prime}=k_{n}$ yields $\beta=1$ and one thus recovers [17, Corollary 3.1] as a particular case of Theorem 1 Moreover, for all $\tau>1$ and $\rho \leq 0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(1, \tau, \rho)=\log (\tau)-K_{\rho}(\tau) \geq 0, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the (positive) bias factor associated with the extreme quantile estimator $\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}\right)$ investigated in [17. Note that $\rho \mapsto B(1, \tau, \rho)$ is a decreasing function such that $B(1, \tau, 0)=0$ which is an unusual situation in extreme-value theory. For instance, the bias factor associated with the Weissman estimator [28] dedicated to heavy-tailed distributions is proportional to $1 /(1-\rho)$ and increases with $\rho$, see [23, Theorem 3.2.5 and Theorem 4.3.8].

- The choice $\beta^{\star}(\tau, \rho):=\left(K_{\rho}(\tau) / \log (\tau)\right)^{1 / \rho}$ yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, \rho), \tau, \rho\right)=0 . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The associated intermediate sequence is given by $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, \rho)=\left\lfloor n\left(k_{n} / n\right)^{\beta^{\star}(\tau, \rho)}\right\rfloor$ and therefore the extreme quantile estimator $\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, \rho)\right)$ is asymptotically unbiased. Note that this estimator cannot be used in practice since the second-order Weibull parameter $\rho$ is unknown.

Up to our knowledge, there is no estimator of the second-order Weibull parameter in the statistical literature. In practice, one can replace the true unknown value of $\rho$ by a misspecified value $y \leq 0$ in the above $\beta^{\star}(\tau, \rho)$ leading to

$$
\begin{align*}
\beta^{\star}(\tau, y) & =\left(K_{y}(\tau) / \log (\tau)\right)^{1 / y},  \tag{8}\\
k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y) & =\left\lfloor n\left(k_{n} / n\right)^{\beta^{\star}(\tau, y)}\right\rfloor  \tag{9}\\
B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, \rho\right) & =\beta^{\star}(\tau, y)^{\rho} \log (\tau)-K_{\rho}(\tau)  \tag{10}\\
& =\left(K_{y}(\tau) / \log (\tau)\right)^{\rho / y} \log (\tau)-K_{\rho}(\tau),
\end{align*}
$$

with $\rho \leq 0$ and $\tau>1$. This misspecification technique has been used both to deal with Paretotype distributions $(\gamma>0)$, see for instance [13], and Weibull tail-distributions $(\gamma=0)$ 15]. Some properties of the intermediate sequence $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)$ are given in the next Lemma.

Lemma 1. Let $\beta^{\star}(\tau, y)$ and $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)$ be defined by (8) and (9) respectively. Then, for all $\tau>1$ :
(i) $\beta^{\star}(\tau, y) \rightarrow 1$ as $y \rightarrow-\infty$ and $\beta^{\star}(\tau, \cdot)$ can be extended by continuity by setting $\beta^{\star}(\tau, 0):=\sqrt{\tau}$.
(ii) $1<\beta^{\star}(\tau, y)<\tau$ for all $y \leq 0$.
(iii) For all $y \leq 0, k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)$ is an increasing function of $k_{n}, k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y) \leq k_{n}$ and $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y) / k_{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
(iv) $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)$ is a decreasing function of $y \in(-\infty, 0)$.

In particular, it appears in (iii) that the number of upper order statistics $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)$ used in the Weibull tail-coefficient estimator should be asymptotically small compared to $k_{n}$ for all finite values of $y$. From (iv), this is all the more true as $y$ is large. When $y \rightarrow-\infty$, meaning that one does not take into account the bias, (i) shows that $k_{n}^{\star}(-\infty, \tau)=k_{n}$ is recovered as a limit case. These properties are illustrated on the left panel of Figure 1, where $k_{n}^{\star}$ is drawn as a function of $k_{n}$ for several values of $y$. The next Corollary shows that these choices indeed lead to a bias reduction in the estimation of the extreme quantile.


Figure 1: Left: Graphs of $k_{n} \in\{2, \ldots, 500\} \mapsto k_{n}^{\star}\left(\tau_{n}, y\right)$ for $y \in\{-\infty,-2,-1,-1 / 2,0\}$ respectively in \{black, blue, red, violet, green $\}$. Right: graphs of $k_{n} \in\{2, \ldots, 500\} \mapsto B\left(1, \tau_{n}, \rho\right)$ (dotted lines) and $k_{n} \in\{2, \ldots, 500\} \mapsto B\left(\beta^{\star}\left(\tau_{n}, \rho^{\#}=-1\right), \tau_{n}, \rho\right)$ (solid lines) given in Equations (6) and 10, with $\rho \in\{-2,-1,-1 / 2\}$ respectively in $\{$ blue, red, violet $\}$. On both panels: $\tau_{n}=$ $\log \left(1 / \alpha_{n}\right) / \log \left(n / k_{n}\right)$ with $\alpha_{n}=1 / n$ and $n=500$.

Corollary 1. Assume (A.1) and (A.2) hold. Let $c>0, \tau>1, y \leq 0, \lambda \neq 0$ such that $\lambda b(\cdot)$ is ultimately positive, and $\beta^{\star}(\tau, y)$ be defined as in (8). Let $\alpha_{n}=c n^{-\tau / \beta^{\star}(\tau, y)}$, $k_{n}=$ $\left\lfloor n\left\{\lambda^{2} /\left(n b^{2}(\log n)\right)\right\}^{1 / \beta^{\star}(\tau, y)}\right\rfloor$ and define $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)$ as in (9).
(i) Then, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$
\sqrt{k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)}\left(\frac{\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)\right)}{q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)}-1\right) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}\left(\lambda\left(\log (\tau)-\left(K_{y}(\tau) / \log (\tau)\right)^{-\rho / y} K_{\rho}(\tau)\right),(\theta \log \tau)^{2}\right)
$$

(ii) Moreover, for all $\tau>1, y \leq 0$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, \rho\right)\right| & <B(1, \tau, \rho) \text { for all } \rho<0 \\
B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, 0\right) & =B(1, \tau, 0)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us first highlight that $\sqrt{k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)} \sim \lambda / b(\log n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (see the proof of Corollary 1 in the Appendix) which is the rate of convergence of usual extreme quantile estimators dedicated to Weibull tail-distributions, see for instance [15, Theorem 1]. Surprisingly, as a consequence of Corollary 1(ii), the extreme quantile estimator $\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)\right)$ computed with $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)$ defined in (8) and (9) has a smaller asymptotic bias than the usual one $\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}\right)$ whatever the chosen value $y \leq 0$. Let us recall that, from (7), the theoretical best choice would be $y=\rho$. In practice, we use $y=\rho^{\#}=-1$ leading to $\beta^{\star}(\tau,-1)=\tau \log (\tau) /(\tau-1)$. This "canonical" choice is also used in [15], see Section 3.2 hereafter. Corollary 1(ii) is illustrated on the right panel of Figure 1 through the graphical comparison of the bias factors associated with $\beta=\beta^{\star}(\tau,-1)$ (refined Weibull-tail
estimator) and $\beta=1$ (usual Weibull-tail estimator [17]). It clearly appears that, from the theoretical point of view, the first choice yields small bias factors in absolute value than the second one. The performance of the refined estimator in practice is assessed on simulated data in the next Section.

## 3 Validation on simulated data

The proposed refined extreme quantile estimator is compared on simulated data to the original estimator [16] and to two other competitors described hereafter.

### 3.1 Experimental design

The focus is on the class of $\mathcal{D}(\zeta, \eta, a)$-distributions which is an adaptation of Hall's class [24, 25, to the Weibull-tail framework. In this family of distributions, the inverse cumulative hazard function is defined for all $x>0$ by

$$
V(x):=x^{1 / \zeta}\left(1+\frac{a}{\eta} x^{-\eta}\right)
$$

with $a, \zeta, \eta>0$ and $\zeta \eta \leq 1$. Under these conditions, the above class of distributions fulfills assumptions (A.1) and (A.2) with Weibull tail-coefficient $\theta=1 / \zeta$, second-order Weibull parameter $\rho=-\eta$, slowly-varying function $\ell(x)=1+(a / \eta) x^{-\eta}$ and $b(x)=-a x^{-\eta}$. Unlike classical distributions such as exponential $(\theta=1, \rho=-\infty)$, Gamma $(\theta=1, \rho=-1)$, Gaussian $(\theta=1 / 2, \rho=-1)$ and Weibull distributions $(\rho=-\infty)$, it is thus possible to obtain $\mathcal{D}$-distributions with arbitrary Weilbull tail-coefficient $\theta>0$ and second-order Weibull parameter $\rho \in[-\theta, 0)$.

In the following, we set $a=10, \theta \in\{1 / 2,3 / 4, \ldots, 5 / 2\}, \rho \in\{-5 / 2,-2, \ldots,-1 / 2\}$ and consider the only 25 situations where $\rho \geq-\theta$ to fulfill the constraint $\zeta \eta \leq 1$, see Table 1 In each case, $N=1,000$ replications of a data set of $n=500$ i.i.d. realisations are simulated from the 25 considered parametric models. Finally, the same two cases as in [15] are investigated for the order of the extreme quantile: $\alpha_{n} \in\left\{1 / n^{2}, 1 / n^{4}\right\}$. Summarizing, this experimental design includes $25 \times 2=50$ configurations.

| $(\rho, \theta)$ | $1 / 2$ | $3 / 4$ | 1 | $5 / 4$ | $3 / 2$ | $7 / 4$ | 2 | $9 / 4$ | $5 / 2$ |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $-5 / 2$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |
| -2 |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| $-3 / 2$ |  |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| -1 |  |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| $-1 / 2$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |

Table 1: Considered $(\rho, \theta)$ configurations in the $\mathcal{D}(\zeta=1 / \theta, \eta=-\rho, a=10)$-distribution.

### 3.2 Competitors

The refined estimator dedicated to the estimation of extreme quantiles for Weibull tail-distributions is compared to three competitors. All three estimators share the same structure and rely on three quantities, i.e. the order statistic $X_{n-k_{n}+1, n}$, an extrapolation term and an estimator of the Weibull tail-coefficient:

1. Let us first consider the classical estimator of the Weibull tail-coefficient given in (3) and introduced in [17]. The extreme quantile estimator proposed in [16] can be interpreted as a particular case of (2) with $k_{n}^{\prime}=k_{n}$ and $\hat{\theta}_{n}(\cdot)=\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}(\cdot)$, see (4):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{q}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}\right)=X_{n-k_{n}+1, n} \tau_{n}^{\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}\left(k_{n}\right)} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. More recently, an estimator of the Weibull tail-coefficient based on the mean excess function $t \mapsto m(t)=\mathbb{E}(X-t \mid X>t)$ has been introduced in [8]. In practice, the authors estimate $m\left(X_{n-j, n}\right)$ for all $j \in\left\{1, \ldots, k_{n}\right\}$ by its empirical counterpart:

$$
\hat{m}_{n}\left(X_{n-j, n}\right)=\frac{1}{j} \sum_{i=1}^{j} X_{n-i+1, n}-X_{n-j, n}
$$

which leads to the following estimator of $\theta$ based on log-spacings between the mean excesses:

$$
\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{MEF}}\left(k_{n}\right)=\left(1-\frac{1}{\hat{\gamma}_{n}^{\mathrm{H}}\left(k_{n}\right)} \frac{1}{k_{n}} \sum_{j=1}^{k_{n}} \log \hat{m}_{n}\left(X_{n-j, n}\right)-\log \hat{m}_{n}\left(X_{n-k_{n}-1, n}\right)\right)^{-1}
$$

Letting $k_{n}^{\prime}=k_{n}$ and $\hat{\theta}_{n}(\cdot)=\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{MEF}}(\cdot)$ in (3) yields the following estimator of the extreme quantile:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{q}_{n}^{\mathrm{MEF}}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}\right)=X_{n-k_{n}+1, n} \tau_{n}^{\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{MEF}}\left(k_{n}\right)} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

3. Up to our knowledge there exists only one bias-reduced extreme quantile estimator dedicated to Weibull tail-distributions. This estimator [15] is based on a least-squares approach and involves a bias-reduced estimator of the Weibull tail-coefficient proposed by the same authors [14]:

$$
\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{LSE}}\left(k_{n}\right)=\bar{Y}_{k_{n}}-\hat{b}\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right) \bar{x}_{k_{n}}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \bar{Y}_{k_{n}}=\frac{1}{k_{n}} \sum_{j=1}^{k_{n}} Y_{j} \quad \text { with } \quad Y_{j}=j \log (n / j)\left(\log X_{n-j+1, n}-\log X_{n-j, n}\right) \\
& \bar{x}_{k_{n}}=\frac{1}{k_{n}} \sum_{j=1}^{k_{n}} x_{j} \quad \text { with } \quad x_{j}=\log \left(n / k_{n}\right) / \log (n / j)
\end{aligned}
$$

and where

$$
\hat{b}\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{k_{n}}\left(x_{j}-\bar{x}_{k_{n}}\right) Y_{j} / \sum_{j=1}^{k_{n}}\left(x_{j}-\bar{x}_{k_{n}}\right)^{2} .
$$

The associated extreme quantile estimator is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{q}_{n}^{\mathrm{LSE}}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}\right)=X_{n-k_{n}+1, n} \tau_{n}^{\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{LSE}}}{ }_{\left(k_{n}\right)} \exp \left(\widehat{b}\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right) K_{\widehat{\rho}_{n}}\left(\tau_{n}\right)\right) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

From a practical point of view, the authors suggest to choose $\widehat{\rho}_{n}=\rho^{\#}=-1$. This estimator features two bias corrections: a first one in the estimator of the Weibull tail-coefficient and a second one in the extrapolation term. This estimator is built under the assumption that $x|b(x)| \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ which leads to the constraint $\rho \geq-1$. The latter assumption is fulfilled by the class of $\mathcal{D}(\zeta, \eta, a)$-distributions when $\eta \leq 1$.

Finally, recall that our estimator is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{q}_{n}^{\mathrm{RWT}}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\star}\left(\tau_{n},-1\right)\right)=X_{n-k_{n}+1, n} \tau_{n}^{\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}\left(k_{n}^{\star}\left(\tau_{n},-1\right)\right)} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $k_{n}^{\star}\left(\tau_{n},-1\right)=\left\lfloor n\left(k_{n} / n\right)^{\beta^{\star}\left(\tau_{n},-1\right)}\right\rfloor$ and $\beta^{\star}\left(\tau_{n},-1\right)=\tau_{n} \log \left(\tau_{n}\right) /\left(\tau_{n}-1\right)$. For the sake of simplicity, the above extreme quantile estimators (11) - 14 are respectively referred to as RSH , MEF, LSE and RWT in the sequel.

### 3.3 Selection of the intermediate sequence

All four considered extreme quantile estimators (RWT, RSH, LSE, MEF) depend on the intermediate sequence $k_{n}$. The selection of $k_{n}$ is a crucial point which has been widely discussed in the extreme-value literature. A new algorithm for the selection of $k_{n}$ is proposed in 4], basing on a bisection method inspired from random forests. The objective is to find the region with the smallest variance in a given series $\left\{Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{m}\right\}$. The proposed method starts by randomly splitting the series into two parts, computes the variance in each sub-region and repeats the action in the one with smallest variance until getting a final single point, see [4, Algorithm 2]. The above procedure is embedded in a bootstrap technique, see [4, Algorithm 1], and the final $k_{n}^{\dagger}$ is selected by taking the median across the $T=10,000$ bootstrap samples. In the simulations, $Z_{j}=\hat{q}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{j, n}\right)$, an estimator (RWT, RSH, LSE or MEF) of the extreme quantile at level $\alpha_{n}$ computed with the intermediate sequence $k_{j, n} \in\{15,16, \ldots, 3 n / 4\}$.

### 3.4 Results

The performance of the four extreme quantile estimators is assessed using the Mean absolute relative error:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{MARE}\left(\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}\right)\right)=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left|\frac{\hat{q}_{n}^{(i)}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}^{(i, \dagger)}\right)}{q_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}\right)}-1\right| \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\hat{q}_{n}^{(i)}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}^{(i, \dagger)}\right)$ denotes the estimator computed on the $i$ th replication, $i \in\{1, \ldots, N=1,000\}$ with the intermediate sequence $k_{n}^{(i, \dagger)}$ selected using the above described procedure. The computed MAREs are provided in Table 4 and Table 5 for respectively, $\alpha_{n}=1 / n^{2}$ and $\alpha_{n}=1 / n^{4}$. The results are summarized in Table 2. We start by remarking that, as expected, the smaller the order $\alpha_{n}$ of the extreme quantile is, i.e. the more one extrapolates, the larger the error is. This is true for all four considered estimators. The proposed RWT estimator is the most accurate one in average since it provides the best results in $48 \%$ of cases. Let us remark that, since we fixed $\rho^{\#}=-1$ in the RWT estimator, it performs best overall when $\rho$ is close to -1 . The second most accurate estimator is RSH which provides the best results in $28 \%$ of the considered cases. It is remarkably efficient when $\rho=-1 / 2$ where it obtains all its 14 best results. RSH performs well in this difficult case despite the fact that it does not benefit from a bias reduction. This unexpected performance may be explained by the relatively small bias factor, see the graph of $B(1, \cdot,-1 / 2)$ in the right panel of Figure 1. The four cases where RSH fails to obtain the best results when $\rho=-1 / 2$ correspond to a Weibull tail-coefficient $\theta$ smaller than 1. The LSE estimator shares similar performances with $22 \%$ of best results ( 11 out of 50 situations). As expected, and similarly to the RWT estimator, it performs well when $\rho=-1$. Finally, MEF yields poor estimations, with only $2 \%$ of best results. It
does not seem to adapt well to the presence of second-order terms in the distribution. In particular, it does not give acceptable results (with MARE $\geq 1$ ) in $32 \%$ of the considered situations.

| $(\rho, \theta)$ | $1 / 2$ | $3 / 4$ | 1 | $5 / 4$ | $3 / 2$ | $7 / 4$ | 2 | $9 / 4$ | $5 / 2$ |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $-5 / 2$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | LSE |
| -2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $-3 / 2$ |  |  |  |  | RWT | RWT | RWT |  |  |
| -1 |  |  | RWT | RWT | RWT | RSE \& MEF | LSE | LSE | LSE |
| $-1 / 2$ | RWT | LSE | RSH | RSH | RSH | RSH | RSH | RSH | RSH |

Table 2: Summary of results obtained in Table $4 \&$ Table 5 Best estimator of the extreme quantiles $q\left(\alpha_{n}=1 / n^{2}\right) \& q\left(\alpha_{n}=1 / n^{4}\right)$ computed on simulated data from the $\mathcal{D}(\zeta=1 / \theta, \eta=-\rho, a=10)$ distribution. The situations in bold are illustrated on Figure 3 and Figure 4.

As an illustration, the median and MARE associated with the RWT, RSH and LSE estimators computed on a $\mathcal{D}(\zeta, \eta, a=10)$-distribution for $\alpha_{n}=1 / n^{2}$ are depicted on Figure 3 and Figure 4 as functions of $k_{n}$. In Figure 3 the Weibull tail-coefficient is fixed to $\theta=3 / 2$ and $\rho \in\{-1 / 2,-1,-3 / 2\}$ decreases (from top to bottom), while, in Figure 4, the second-order Weibull parameter is fixed to $\rho=-1$ and $\theta \in\{1,3 / 2,2\}$ increases (from top to bottom). In most of these situations, the RWT estimator has the smallest bias and thus the minimum value of the MARE is reached for larger values of $k_{n}$ than RSH and LSE. To conclude, it appears on these experiments on simulated data that, overall, the RWT estimator performs the best within the four considered estimators. One of its main competitors is LSE, which, similarly to RWT, considers the two sources of bias (associated with the Weibull tail-coefficient estimator and the extrapolation term).

## 4 Illustration on a real data set

We study a data set of daily wind measures (in $m / s$ ) at Reims (France) from 01/01/1981 to $04 / 30 / 2011$. For seasonality reasons, only the months from October to March are considered, resulting in $n=5,371$ measures, see the top panel of Figure 5 for a histogram representation of the considered data. It is shown in [3] that the Weibull tail model represents fairly well the upper tail of these data. The goal is to estimate the extreme quantile $q(1 / n)$ (with $1 / n \simeq 1.86 \cdot 10^{-4}$ ) and to compare it to the maximum of the sample $x_{n, n}=42.26 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$.

To this end, the Weibull tail-coefficient is estimated first by $\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RWT}}\left(k_{n}^{\dagger}\right)=\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}\left(\hat{k}_{n}^{\star}\right)=0.5597$, where $k_{n}^{\dagger}=2,877$ has been selected following the procedure introduced in 44 and sketched in Subsection 3.3. This yields $\hat{k}_{n}^{\star}=\hat{k}_{n}^{\star}\left(\tau_{n},-1\right)=961$. As a visual check, a Weibull quantile-quantile plot of the $\log$-excesses $\left(\log X_{n-i+1, n}-\log X_{n-\hat{k}_{n}^{\star}+1, n}\right)$ versus $\left(\log \log (n / i)-\log \log \left(n / \hat{k}_{n}^{\star}\right)\right)$ for $i \in\left\{1, \ldots, \hat{k}_{n}^{\star}\right\}$ is drawn on the bottom panel of Figure 5. The relationship appearing in this plot is approximately linear, which constitutes an empirical evidence that the Weibull-tail assumption makes sense and that $\hat{k}_{n}^{\star}=961$ is a reasonable choice for the estimation of the Weibull tail-coefficient. A line with the estimated value $\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RWT}}\left(k_{n}^{\dagger}\right)=0.5597$ as slope is added to the quantile-quantile plot highlighting the linear relationship. The function $k_{n} \mapsto \hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}\left(k_{n}\right)$ is plotted on the top panel of Figure 6, it features as a nice stability for all $k_{n} \in\{100, \ldots, 4000\}$. A similar procedure is carried out for the other three estimators to select $k_{n}^{\dagger}$. The two Weibull tail-coefficient estimators

RSH and MEF that do not benefit from a bias reduction provide respectively the smallest and the largest estimation: $\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}\left(k_{n}^{\dagger}\right)=0.5017$ and $\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{MEF}}\left(k_{n}^{\dagger}\right)=0.6693$, while the bias-reduced estimator LSE gives a value $\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{LSE}}\left(k_{n}^{\dagger}\right)=0.6077$ close to the RWT estimate $\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RWT}}\left(k_{n}^{\dagger}\right)=0.5597$. These results are reported in Table 3 with the corresponding estimated extreme quantiles $\hat{q}_{n}(1 / n)$. The estimates of the extreme quantile provided by RSH and MEF seem to respectively underestimate and overestimate $q(1 / n)$ with respectively $\operatorname{RSH}(1 / n)=33.89 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ and $\operatorname{MEF}(1 / n)=49.53 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ while the sample maximum is $x_{n, n}=42.26 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$. It appears that $\operatorname{LSE}(1 / n)=37.08$ is significantly smaller than the sample maximum. Let us stress that the proposed refined estimator gives the closest estimate to the maximum value of the sample: $\operatorname{RWT}(1 / n)=41.00 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$. Finally, both sample paths $k_{n} \mapsto \operatorname{RWT}(1 / n)$ and $k_{n} \mapsto \operatorname{LSE}(1 / n)$ enjoy a stable behaviour in a large neighbourhood of $k_{n}^{\dagger}$, see the bottom panel of Figure 6. As a conclusion, according to $\operatorname{RWT}(1 / n)$ estimate, one can expect a daily wind larger than $41.00 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ to occur in average once every 30 years during the October to March period.

|  | RSH | RWT | LSE | MEF |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\hat{\theta}_{n}\left(k_{n}^{\dagger}\right)$ | 0.5017 | 0.5597 | 0.6077 | 0.6693 |
| $\hat{q}_{n}\left(1 / n, k_{n}^{\dagger}\right)$ | 33.89 | 41.00 | 37.078 | 49.53 |
| $k_{n}^{\dagger}$ | 2,206 | 2,877 | 2,792 | 2,202 |

Table 3: Comparison of the four estimators on the daily wind data set: Estimates of the Weibull tail-coefficient $\theta$ and extreme quantile $q(1 / n)$. The selected intermediate sequence $k_{n}^{\dagger}$ is also given for each estimator.

## 5 Conclusion

As a conclusion, the RWT estimator is an efficient tool for estimating extreme quantiles from Weibull tail-distributions. It relies on the ideas of [4], consisting in selecting carefully two intermediate sequences to reduce the asymptotic bias of a Weissman type estimator. In contrast to this previous work, the proposed approach does not rely on a preliminary estimate of the second-order parameter; Any negative value may be used, and does yield an asymptotic bias reduction, as shown in our theoretical results. Other surprising features of Weibull tail-distributions can be found in [5]. The proposed method provides satisfying results in our numerical experiments and outperforms all its competitors in half of the considered situations. This work could be extended by investigating the adaptation of this bias reduction principle to other estimators of extreme quantiles from Weibull tail-distributions.

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## A Appendix: Proofs

Proofs of main results are collected in Subsection A.1. Some auxiliary results are provided in Subsection A. 2 and proved in Subsection A.3.

## A. 1 Proofs of main results

Proof of Theorem 1. Clearly, the following expansion holds

$$
\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}} \log \left(\frac{\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\prime}\right)}{q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)}\right)=T_{n}^{(1)}+T_{n}^{(2)}+T_{n}^{(3)}
$$

with

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{n}^{(1)} & =\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}}\left(\frac{X_{n-k_{n}+1, n}}{V\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right)}\right) \\
T_{n}^{(2)} & =\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}}\left(\log \tau_{n}\right)\left(\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RSH}}\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)-\theta\right) \\
T_{n}^{(3)} & =\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}}\left(\frac{\ell\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right)}{\ell\left(\log \left(1 / \alpha_{n}\right)\right)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us consider the three terms separately. First, [16, Lemma 1] shows that, under (A.1), $k_{n} \rightarrow \infty$, $k_{n} / n \rightarrow 0$ and condition (iii):

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{n}^{(1)}=\frac{\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime} / k_{n}}}{\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)} \theta \xi_{n}^{\prime}+O_{P}\left(\frac{\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}}}{k_{n} \log ^{2}\left(n / k_{n}\right)}\right) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\xi_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0,1)$. Second, [17, Proposition 2.1] entails that, under assumptions (A.1), (A.2), $k_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow \infty$ and $k_{n}^{\prime} / n \rightarrow 0$, the following expansion holds:

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{n}^{(2)}=\theta \log (\tau) \xi_{n}+\theta \log (\tau) \mu\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right) \xi_{n}^{\prime \prime}+\log (\tau) \sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}} b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)(1+o(1)) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\xi_{n} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ and $\xi_{n}^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0,1)$. Third, using (A.2) and condition (iii), one obtains

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{n}^{(3)}=-K_{\rho}(\tau) \sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}} b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right)(1+o(1)) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Collecting (16), 17) and 18, one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}} \log \left(\frac{\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\prime}\right)}{q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)}\right) & =\theta \log (\tau) \xi_{n}+\theta \log (\tau) \mu\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right) \xi_{n}^{\prime \prime}+\frac{\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime} / k_{n}}}{\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)} \theta \xi_{n}^{\prime} \\
& +\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}}\left\{\log (\tau) b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)(1+o(1))-K_{\rho}(\tau) b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right)(1+o(1))\right\} \\
& +O_{P}\left(\frac{\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}}}{k_{n} \log ^{2}\left(n / k_{n}\right)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Recalling that, from [17, Lemma 5.3], $\mu(t) \sim 1 / t$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, the above expansion can be simplified as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}} \log \left(\frac{\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\prime}\right)}{q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)}\right) & =\theta \log (\tau) \xi_{n}+\frac{\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime} / k_{n}}}{\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)} \theta \xi_{n}^{\prime} \\
& +\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}}\left\{\log (\tau) b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)(1+o(1))-K_{\rho}(\tau) b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right)(1+o(1))\right\} \\
& +O_{P}\left(\frac{\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}}}{k_{n} \log ^{2}\left(n / k_{n}\right)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, remark that assumption (ii) implies $k_{n}^{\prime} \leq k_{n}$ eventually and $b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)\right) \sim \beta^{-\rho} b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ so that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}} \log \left(\frac{\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\prime}\right)}{q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)}\right) & =\theta \log (\tau) \xi_{n}+\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}} b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)\left(\log (\tau)-\beta^{-\rho} K_{\rho}(\tau)+o(1)\right)(1+o(1)) \\
& +o_{P}(1)
\end{aligned}
$$

Assumption (i) then yields

$$
\sqrt{k_{n}^{\prime}} \log \left(\frac{\hat{q}_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}, k_{n}, k_{n}^{\prime}\right)}{q\left(\alpha_{n}\right)}\right) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}\left(\lambda\left(\log \tau-\beta^{-\rho} K_{\rho}(\tau)\right),(\theta \log \tau)^{2}\right)
$$

and a first order Taylor expansion proves the result.

Proof of Lemma 1 (i) Remarking that $K_{y}(\tau) \sim-1 / y$ as $y \rightarrow-\infty$ for all $\tau>1$ yields $\beta^{\star}(y, \tau) \rightarrow 1$ as $y \rightarrow-\infty$. The result $\beta^{\star}(\tau, 0):=\sqrt{\tau}$ follows from a second-order Taylor expansion.
(ii) First, Lemma 4(iii) implies that, for all $\tau>1$ and $y<0, h_{y}(\tau)>1$ and thus $\beta^{\star}(\tau, y)=$ $h_{y}(\tau)^{-1 / y}>1$. Second, Lemma 4(iii) implies that, for all $\tau>1$ and $y<0, h_{y}(\tau)<\tau^{-y / 2}<\tau^{-y}$ when $y<0$. This straightforwardly implies that $K_{y}(\tau) / \log (\tau)>\tau^{y}$ which is equivalent to $\beta^{\star}(\tau, y)<\tau$. In the particular case where $y=0$, from (i), one can take $\beta^{\star}(\tau, 0):=\sqrt{\tau}<\tau$ since $\tau>1$ and the result is proved.
(iii) Let us first consider $\tilde{k}_{n}(\tau, y)=n\left(k_{n} / n\right)^{\beta^{\star}(\tau, y)}$ such that $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)=\left\lfloor\tilde{k}_{n}(\tau, y)\right\rfloor$. Clearly, $\tilde{k}_{n}(\tau, y) / k_{n}=\left(k_{n} / n\right)^{\beta^{\star}(\tau, y)-1}$ and $\beta^{\star}(\tau, y)>1$ in view of (ii). As a consequence, for all $y \leq 0$, $\tilde{k}_{n}(\tau, y)$ is an increasing function of $k_{n}, \tilde{k}_{n}(\tau, y) \leq k_{n}$ and $\tilde{k}_{n}(\tau, y) / k_{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. These properties can be extended to $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)$ without difficulty since the integer part is an increasing function and $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y) \leq \tilde{k}_{n}(\tau, y)$.
(iv) Routine calculations give for all $\tau>1$ and $y<0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \log \left(\beta^{*}(\tau, y)\right) & =\frac{1}{y^{2}\left(\tau^{y}-1\right)}\left(\tau^{y} \log \left(\tau^{y}\right)-\tau^{y}+1-\tau^{y} \log \left(\frac{\tau^{y}-1}{\log \left(\tau^{y}\right)}\right)+\log \left(\frac{\tau^{y}-1}{\log \left(\tau^{y}\right)}\right)\right) \\
& =: \frac{1}{y^{2}\left(\tau^{y}-1\right)} \varphi(\tau, y)
\end{aligned}
$$

Letting $x:=\tau^{y} \in(0,1)$ yields

$$
\tilde{\varphi}(x):=\varphi(\tau, y)=x \log (x)-x+1-x \log \left(\frac{x-1}{\log (x)}\right)+\log \left(\frac{x-1}{\log (x)}\right)
$$

and differentiating, one gets

$$
\tilde{\varphi}^{\prime}(x)=-\log \left(\left(1-\frac{1}{x}\right) \frac{1}{\log (x)}\right)+\left(1-\frac{1}{x}\right) \frac{1}{\log (x)}-1=-\log (u(x))+u(x)-1
$$

where $u(x):=(1-1 / x) / \log (x)>0$. It thus appears that $\tilde{\varphi}^{\prime}(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in(0,1)$ since $-\log (u)+u-1 \geq 0$ for all $u>0$. As a consequence, $\tilde{\varphi}(\cdot)$ is an increasing function on $(0,1)$. Moreover, taking account of $\tilde{\varphi}(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow 1^{-}$shows that $\tilde{\varphi}(x) \leq 0$ for all $x \in(0,1)$. Finally, $\tau^{y}-1<0$ and $\varphi(\tau, y) \leq 0$ for all $\tau>1$ and $y<0$ imply that $\beta^{*}(\tau, y)$ is an increasing function of $y$ which in turns shows that $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)$ is a decreasing function of $y$.

Proof of Corollary 1. (i) To prove the convergence in distribution, it is sufficient to show that conditions (i), (ii) and (iii) of Theorem 1 hold. Let $y \leq 0$ and $\tau>1$. First, one can easily check that $k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y) b^{2}(\log n) \rightarrow \lambda^{2}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and thus $\sqrt{k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)} b(\log n) \rightarrow \lambda$ in view of the sign assumption on $\lambda$. Besides,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)\right)=\log n+2 \log |b(\log n)|-2 \log |\lambda|+o(1) \sim \log n \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $b(\cdot)$ is regularly-varying so that $b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)\right)\right) \sim b(\log n)$ and thus

$$
\sqrt{k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)} b\left(\log \left(n / k_{n}^{\star}(\tau, y)\right)\right) \rightarrow \lambda
$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Theorem 1 (i) is thus proved. Second, observe that

$$
\tau_{n}=\frac{\log \left(1 / \alpha_{n}\right)}{\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)}=\frac{\log (1 / c)}{\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)}+\frac{\tau}{\beta^{\star}(\tau, \rho)} \frac{\log n}{\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log \left(n / k_{n}\right)=\frac{1}{\beta^{\star}(\tau, \rho)}(\log n+2 \log |b(\log n)|-2 \log |\lambda|)+o(1) \sim \frac{1}{\beta^{\star}(\tau, \rho)} \log n \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. It is thus clear that $\tau_{n} \rightarrow \tau$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, which is Theorem 11(ii). Third, Theorem 1(iii) is a straightforward consequence of $\sqrt[19]{ }$ and 20 .
(ii) Proposition 1 concludes the proof.

## A. 2 Auxiliary results

Let us begin with a Lemma that establishes that the strict Weibull distribution belongs to the Gumbel maximum domain of attraction $(\gamma=0)$, and more importantly, with a second-order parameter $\psi=0$. This result illustrates why inference on Weibull-tail distributions may be difficult since the situation $\gamma=\psi=0$ is the most complicated one for classical extreme-value estimators. Let us also recall that, in contrast, the second-order Weilbull parameter is $\rho=-\infty$, see [20, Table 1] and therefore strict Weibull distributions are an easy situation for dedicated Weibull-tail estimators.

Lemma 2. Suppose $F$ is the cumulative distribution function of a strict Weibull distribution with shape parameter $\beta>0, \beta \neq 1$ and scale parameter $\lambda>0$. Then, the associated tail quantile function $U(\cdot):=F^{\leftarrow}(1-1 / \cdot)$ verifies the second-order condition

$$
\frac{1}{A(t)}\left(\frac{U(t x)-U(t)}{a(t)}-K_{\gamma}(x)\right) \rightarrow \int_{1}^{x} s^{\gamma-1} K_{\psi}(s) d s
$$

as $t \rightarrow \infty$, for all $x>0$, see [23, Equation (3.4.5)], with $\gamma=0, \psi=0, a(t)=(\lambda / \beta)(\log t)^{1 / \beta-1}$ and $A(t)=(1-\beta) /(\beta \log t)$.

The following three analytical results are used to prove Proposition 1 below.
Lemma 3. Let us define for all $(u, \beta) \in(0,1] \times[0,1 / 2], g_{\beta}(u):=\log (u)\left(1+u^{\beta}\right)-2(u-1)$. Then, $\forall \beta \in[0,1 / 2]$ one has $g_{\beta}(u)<0$ if $u \in(0,1)$ and $g_{\beta}(1)=0$.

Lemma 4. Let us define, for all $\tau>1$ and $y \leq 0$,

$$
h_{y}(\tau):=\frac{K_{0}(\tau)}{K_{y}(\tau)}=\frac{y \log (\tau)}{\tau^{y}-1} \text { if } y<0 \text { and } h_{0}(\tau):=1 \text { otherwise. }
$$

Then,
(i) $h_{y}(\cdot)$ can be extended by continuity letting $h_{y}(1)=1$ for all $y \leq 0$.
(ii) $h_{y}(\cdot)$ is an increasing function on $[1, \infty)$ for all $y<0$ (and $h_{0}(\cdot)$ is a constant function).
(iii) $1<h_{y}(\tau)<\tau^{-y / 2}$ for all $\tau>1$ and $y<0$ (all three quantities coincide at $y=0$ ).

Lemma 5. Let us define, for all $\tau>1$ and $y \leq 0$,

$$
f_{y}(\tau):=-\frac{\log \left(h_{y}(\tau)\right)}{y \log (\tau)} \text { if } y<0 \text { and } f_{0}(\tau)=1 / 2 \text { otherwise }
$$

Then,
(i) $f_{y}(\cdot)$ can be extended by continuity letting $f_{y}(1)=1 / 2$ for all $y \leq 0$.
(ii) $f_{y}(\cdot)$ is a decreasing function on $[1, \infty)$ for all $y<0\left(f_{0}(\cdot)\right.$ is a constant function $)$.
(iii) $0<f_{y}(\tau)<1 / 2$ for all $\tau \geq 1$ and $y<0$ (the last two quantities coincide at $y=0$ ).

The next Proposition establishes two unexpected results. First, the bias associated with the refined estimator of extreme quantiles is strictly smaller than the bias associated with the original one, even though a misspecification of the second-order Weibull parameter is used. Second, both (asymptotic) biases vanish at $\rho=0$.

Proposition 1. For all $\tau>1, y \leq 0$ and $\rho<0,\left|B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, \rho\right)\right|<B(1, \tau, \rho)$ where both quantities are defined in (6) and 10). Besides, $B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, 0\right)=B(1, \tau, 0)=0$ for all $\tau>1$ and $y \leq 0$.

## A. 3 Proofs of auxiliary results

Proof of Lemma 2. Let $\theta=1 / \beta$ and $x>0$. A second-order Taylor expansion yields, as $t \rightarrow \infty$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
U(t x)-U(t) & =\lambda(\log t)^{\theta}\left(\left(1+\frac{\log x}{\log t}\right)^{\theta}-1\right) \\
& =\lambda \theta(\log x)(\log t)^{\theta-1}\left(1+\frac{\theta-1}{2} \frac{\log x}{\log t}(1+o(1))\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Remarking that $K_{0}(x)=\log x$ and letting $a(t)=\lambda \theta(\log t)^{\theta-1}$, it follows

$$
\frac{U(t x)-U(t)}{a(t)}-\log x=\frac{\theta-1}{2} \frac{(\log x)^{2}}{\log t}(1+o(1))=A(t) \int_{1}^{x} \frac{\log s}{s} d s(1+o(1))
$$

where $A(t):=(\theta-1) / \log t$, the result is thus proved.

Proof of Lemma 3. The result is straightforwardly true for $\beta=0$. Let us then focus on the case where $\beta \in(0,1 / 2]$ and consider $u \in(0,1]$. Differentiating three times, one gets

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g_{\beta}^{\prime}(u)=\frac{1}{u}\left(1-2 u+u^{\beta}(1+\beta \log (u))\right)=: \frac{\tilde{g}_{\beta}(u)}{u}, \\
& \tilde{g}_{\beta}^{\prime}(u)=-2+\beta u^{\beta-1}(2+\beta \log (u)) \\
& \tilde{g}_{\beta}^{\prime \prime}(u)=\beta u^{\beta-2}\left(3 \beta-2+\left(\beta^{2}-\beta\right) \log (u)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $u_{0}(\beta)=\exp \left(\frac{2-3 \beta}{\beta(\beta-1)}\right)$ be the unique point in $u \in(0,1]$ such that $\tilde{g}_{\beta}^{\prime \prime}(u)=0$ when $\beta \in(0,1 / 2]$. It is easily checked that $\tilde{g}_{\beta}^{\prime \prime}(u) \geq 0$ when $u \in\left(0, u_{0}(\beta)\right]$ while $\tilde{g}_{\beta}^{\prime \prime}(u) \leq 0$ when $u \in\left[u_{0}(\beta), 1\right]$. As a consequence, $\tilde{g}_{\beta}^{\prime}(\cdot)$ has a global maxima $m(\beta)$ on $(0,1]$ at $u_{0}(\beta)$ given by

$$
m_{0}(\beta):=\tilde{g}_{\beta}^{\prime}\left(u_{0}(\beta)\right)=-2-\frac{\beta^{2}}{\beta-1} \exp \left(\frac{2-3 \beta}{\beta}\right)
$$

The sign of $m_{0}(\beta)$ depends on $\beta \in(0,1 / 2]$. Observe that $m_{0}(\beta) \rightarrow+\infty$ as $\beta \rightarrow 0, m_{0}(1 / 2)=$ $-2+e / 2<0$ and

$$
m_{0}^{\prime}(\beta)=-\frac{\beta^{2}-4 \beta+2}{(\beta-1)^{2}} \exp \left(\frac{2-3 \beta}{\beta}\right)<0
$$

for all $\beta \in(0,1 / 2]$. As a consequence, there exists a unique $\beta_{0} \in(0,1 / 2]$ such that $m_{0}(\beta)=0$ and $m_{0}(\beta) \geq 0$ for all $\beta \in\left(0, \beta_{0}\right]$ while $m_{0}(\beta) \leq 0$ when $\beta \in\left[\beta_{0}, 1 / 2\right]$. Two cases appear:

- If $\beta \in\left[\beta_{0}, 1 / 2\right]$, then $m_{0}(\beta) \leq 0$ and consequently $\tilde{g}_{\beta}^{\prime}(u) \leq 0$ for all $u \in[0,1]$. The function $\tilde{g}_{\beta}(\cdot)$ is thus decreasing on $(0,1]$, and taking account of $\tilde{g}_{\beta}(1)=0$ yields $\tilde{g}_{\beta}(u)>0$ for all $u \in(0,1)$.
- If $\beta \in\left(0, \beta_{0}\right]$, then $m_{0}(\beta) \geq 0$ and there exist two unique points $u_{1}(\beta) \in\left(0, u_{0}(\beta)\right]$ and $u_{2}(\beta) \in\left[u_{0}(\beta), 1\right]$ such that $\tilde{g}_{\beta}^{\prime}(u)=0$. The function $\tilde{g}_{\beta}(\cdot)$ is thus decreasing on $\left(0, u_{1}(\beta)\right]$, increasing on $\left[u_{1}(\beta), u_{2}(\beta)\right]$ and decreasing on $\left[u_{2}(\beta), 1\right]$ see Figure 2 for an illustration. It has two local minima given by

$$
\tilde{g}_{\beta}\left(u_{1}(\beta)\right)=1-u_{1}^{\beta}(\beta)+2 u_{1}(\beta)\left(\frac{1-\beta}{\beta}\right)>0
$$

and $\tilde{g}_{\beta}(1)=0$. This proves that $\tilde{g}_{\beta}(u)>0$ for all $u \in(0,1)$.
As a conclusion, in both cases, $\tilde{g}_{\beta}(u)>0$ and $g_{\beta}^{\prime}(u)>0$ for all $u \in(0,1)$ which implies that $g_{\beta}(\cdot)$ is an increasing function on $(0,1)$. Since $g_{\beta}(1)=0$ then $g_{\beta}(u)<0$ for all $u \in(0,1)$ and $\beta \in(0,1 / 2]$.

Proof of Lemma 4. (i) A first-order Taylor expansion shows that $h_{y}(\cdot)$ can be extended by continuity letting $h_{y}(1)=1$ for all $y \leq 0$.
(ii) Differentiating twice, one gets for all $y<0$ and $\tau>1$ :
$h_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)=\frac{y}{\left(\tau^{y}-1\right)^{2}}\left(\frac{\tau^{y}-1}{\tau}-y \tau^{y-1} \log (\tau)\right)=\frac{y}{\tau\left(\tau^{y}-1\right)^{2}}\left(\tau^{y}-1-y \tau^{y} \log (\tau)\right)=: \frac{y}{\tau\left(\tau^{y}-1\right)^{2}} \tilde{h}_{y}(\tau)$.
with $\tilde{h}_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)=-y^{2} \tau^{y-1} \log (\tau)<0$, for all $y<0$ and $\tau>1$. As a consequence $\tilde{h}_{y}(\cdot)$ is a decreasing function for all $y<0$. Besides, since $\tilde{h}_{y}(1)=0$, it follows that $\tilde{h}_{y}(\tau)<0$ and $a_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)>0$ for all $y<0$ and $\tau>1$. This proves that $h_{y}(\cdot)$ is an increasing function for all $y<0$.
(iii) $h_{y}(\tau)>1$ for all $\tau>1$ and $y<0$ is a direct consequence of Lemma 4 (i,ii). To prove the second inequality, let $\Delta_{y}(\tau):=h_{y}(\tau) \tau^{y / 2}-1$ for all $\tau>1$ and $y<0$. Differentiating three times yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Delta_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)=\frac{y \tau^{y / 2-1}}{\left(\tau^{y}-1\right)^{2}}\left(\tau^{y}-1-\frac{1}{2} y \log \tau\left(\tau^{y}+1\right)\right)=: \frac{y \tau^{y / 2-1}}{\left(\tau^{y}-1\right)^{2}} \tilde{\Delta}_{y}(\tau) \\
& \tilde{\Delta}_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)=\frac{y}{2 \tau}\left(\tau^{y}(1-y \log \tau)-1\right)=: \frac{y}{2 \tau} \widetilde{\Delta}_{y}(\tau) \\
& \widetilde{\widetilde{\Delta}}_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)=-y^{2}(\log \tau) \tau^{y-1}<0
\end{aligned}
$$



Figure 2: Variations of the function $\tilde{g}_{\beta}(\cdot), \beta \in(0,1 / 2]$ studied in the proof of Lemma 3 .

It thus appears that $\tilde{\widetilde{\Delta}}_{y}(\cdot)$ is a decreasing function on $(1, \infty)$ with $\tilde{\widetilde{\Delta}}_{y}(1)=0$ so that $\tilde{\widetilde{\Delta}}_{y}(\tau)<0$ for all $\tau>1$. As a consequence $\tilde{\Delta}_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)>0$ and $\tilde{\Delta}_{y}(\cdot)$ is an increasing function on $(1, \infty)$ with $\tilde{\Delta}_{y}(1)=0$ so that $\tilde{\Delta}_{y}(\tau)>0$ for all $\tau>1$. Finally, $\Delta_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)<0$ and $\Delta_{y}(\cdot)$ is thus a decreasing function on $(1, \infty)$ with $\Delta_{y}(1)=0$ so that $\Delta_{y}(\tau)<0$ for all $\tau>1$. The result is proved.

Proof of Lemma 5. (i) A second-order Taylor expansion shows that $f_{y}(\cdot)$ can be extended by continuity letting $f_{y}(1)=1 / 2$ for all $y \leq 0$.
(ii) Let $y<0$ and $\tau>1$. Differentiating twice, one has:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)=-\frac{1}{\tau y \log (\tau)^{2}}\left(1-\log h_{y}(\tau)-\tau^{y} h_{y}(\tau)\right)=:-\frac{\tilde{f}_{y}(\tau)}{\tau y \log (\tau)^{2}} \\
& \tilde{f}_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)=\frac{h_{y}^{2}(\tau) \tau^{y}-1}{\tau \log \tau}<0
\end{aligned}
$$

in view of Lemma 4 (iii). This implies that $\tilde{f}_{y}(\cdot)$ is a decreasing function on $(1, \infty)$. Besides $\tilde{f}_{y}(1)=0$ since $h_{y}(1)=1$ from Lemma $4(\mathrm{i})$, and therefore $\tilde{f}_{y}(\tau)<0$ and $f_{y}^{\prime}(\tau)<0$ for all $\tau>1$ which implies that $f_{y}(\cdot)$ is a decreasing function on $(1, \infty)$.
(iii) $f_{y}(\tau)<1 / 2$ for all $y<0$ and $\tau>1$ is a direct consequence of Lemma 5 (i,ii) while $f_{y}(\tau)>0$ follows from Lemma 4 (iii).

Proof of Proposition 1. First, note that for all $\tau>1, \rho \leq 0$ and $y \leq 0$, one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
B(1, \tau, \rho)-B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, \rho\right) & =\log (\tau)-K_{\rho}(\tau)-\log (\tau)\left(\frac{K_{y}(\tau)}{\log (\tau)}\right)^{\rho / y}+K_{\rho}(\tau) \\
& =\log (\tau)\left(1-h_{y}(\tau)^{-\rho / y}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Clearly, $B(1, \tau, 0)-B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, 0\right)=0$ and $B(1, \tau, 0)=0$ in view of (6). Let us thus focus on the case where $\tau>1, \rho<0$ and $y \leq 0$. Combining $\log (\tau)>0, \rho / y>0$ and Lemma 4iii) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(1, \tau, \rho)-B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, \rho\right)>0 \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Second,

$$
\rho\left\{B(1, \tau, \rho)+B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, \rho\right)\right\}=\rho\left(\log (\tau)+\log (\tau)\left(\frac{K_{y}(\tau)}{\log (\tau)}\right)^{\rho / y}-2 K_{\rho}(\tau)\right)
$$

for all $\tau>1, \rho<0$ and $y \leq 0$. The change of variable $\rho \mapsto u=\tau^{\rho}$ yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\rho\left\{B(1, \tau, \rho)+B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, \rho\right)\right\} & =\log (u)+\log (u)\left(\frac{K_{y}(\tau)}{\log (\tau)}\right)^{\log (u) /(y \log (\tau))}-2(u-1) \\
& =\log (u)\left(1+u^{f_{y}(\tau)}\right)-2(u-1) \\
& =g_{f_{y}(\tau)}(u)
\end{aligned}
$$

with

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{\beta}(u) & =\log (u)\left(1+u^{\beta}\right)-2(u-1), & & \text { (see Lemma 3), } \\
h_{y}(\tau) & =\frac{K_{0}(\tau)}{K_{y}(\tau)}, & & \text { (see Lemma 4) } \\
f_{y}(\tau) & =\frac{1}{y \log (\tau)} \log \left(\frac{K_{y}(\tau)}{\log (\tau)}\right)=-\frac{\log (h(\tau))}{y \log (\tau)}, & & \text { (see Lemma 5). }
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 5(iii) shows that $0<f_{y}(\tau) \leq 1 / 2$ for all $y \leq 0, \tau>1$ and thus one can apply Lemma 3 to obtain $g_{f_{y}(\tau)}(u)<0$ and consequently

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(1, \tau, \rho)+B\left(\beta^{\star}(\tau, y), \tau, \rho\right)=\frac{g_{f_{y}(\tau)}\left(\tau^{\rho}\right)}{\rho}>0 \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Collecting (21) and 22) concludes the proof.

## B Appendix: Tables and Figures

|  | RWT | RSH | LSE | MEF |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\theta=1 / 2$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.0133 | 0.0441 | 0.0203 | 0.0969 |
| $\theta=3 / 4$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.0702 | 0.0459 | 0.0412 | 0.2543 |
| $\theta=1$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.1125 | 0.3449 | 0.1814 | - |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.1317 | 0.0640 | 0.0715 | 0.3015 |
| $\theta=5 / 4$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.1430 | 0.3386 | 0.1846 | 0.5964 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.1937 | 0.0857 | 0.1029 | 0.2283 |
| $\theta=3 / 2$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-3 / 2$ | 0.2116 | 0.7095 | 0.3844 | - |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.1874 | 0.3374 | 0.1900 | 0.4198 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.2517 | 0.1090 | 0.1332 | 0.2076 |
| $\theta=7 / 4$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-3 / 2$ | 0.2470 | 0.6989 | 0.3831 | - |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.2442 | 0.3330 | 0.1986 | 0.2705 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.3154 | 0.1349 | 0.1663 | 0.3809 |
| $\theta=2$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-2$ | 0.3236 | 0.8833 | 0.4406 | - |
| $\rho=-3 / 2$ | 0.2869 | 0.6945 | 0.3833 | - |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.2934 | 0.3311 | 0.2136 | 0.3168 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.3744 | 0.1586 | 0.1971 | 0.5915 |
| $\theta=9 / 4$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-2$ | 0.3710 | 0.8783 | 0.4365 | - |
| $\rho=-3 / 2$ | 0.3274 | 0.6915 | 0.3847 | 0.6088 |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.3401 | 0.3303 | 0.2301 | 0.4946 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.4359 | 0.1818 | 0.2262 | 0.7415 |
| $\theta=5 / 2$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-5 / 2$ | 0.8958 | 0.9493 | 0.3713 | - |
| $\rho=-2$ | 0.4301 | 0.8754 | 0.4420 | - |
| $\rho=-3 / 2$ | 0.3824 | 0.6891 | 0.3874 | 0.4998 |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.4050 | 0.3309 | 0.2526 | 0.7070 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.5086 | 0.2101 | 0.2629 | 0.8675 |

Table 4: MAREs associated with the four estimators of the extreme quantile $q\left(\alpha_{n}=1 / n^{2}\right)$ computed on simulated data from the $\mathcal{D}(\zeta=1 / \theta, \eta=-\rho, a=10)$-distribution. The best result is emphasized in bold. MAREs larger than 1 are not reported.

|  | RWT | RSH | LSE | MEF |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\theta=1 / 2$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.0363 | 0.0835 | 0.0498 | 0.0871 |
| $\theta=3 / 4$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.1049 | 0.0823 | 0.0685 | 0.2907 |
| $\theta=1$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.2797 | 0.5471 | 0.3746 | - |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.1928 | 0.0964 | 0.1075 | 0.3572 |
| $\theta=5 / 4$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.2941 | 0.5408 | 0.1471 | 0.4404 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.2768 | 0.1201 | 0.1495 | 0.2738 |
| $\theta=3 / 2$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-3 / 2$ | 0.3973 | 0.8691 | 0.6227 | - |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.3316 | 0.5384 | 0.3743 | 0.3368 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.3548 | 0.1467 | 0.1923 | 0.2555 |
| $\theta=7 / 4$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-3 / 2$ | 0.4242 | 0.8629 | 0.6135 | - |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.3813 | 0.5359 | 0.3744 | 0.3286 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.4454 | 0.1785 | 0.2406 | 0.4611 |
| $\theta=2$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-2$ | 0.4764 | 0.9609 | 0.6591 | - |
| $\rho=-3 / 2$ | 0.4616 | 0.8601 | 0.6109 | - |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.4351 | 0.5340 | 0.3796 | 0.4767 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.5256 | 0.2088 | 0.2883 | 0.6809 |
| 时 $\theta=9 / 4$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-2$ | 0.5542 | 0.9591 | 0.6429 | - |
| $\rho=-3 / 2$ | 0.4977 | 0.8585 | 0.6088 | 0.6181 |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.4869 | 0.5316 | 0.3878 | 0.6607 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.6005 | 0.2355 | 0.3304 | 0.8201 |
| $\theta$ 时 $\theta=5$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\rho=-5 / 2$ | - | 0.9865 | 0.5552 | - |
| $\rho=-2$ | 0.6308 | 0.9578 | 0.6388 | - |
| $\rho=-3 / 2$ | 0.5603 | 0.8568 | 0.6047 | 0.6947 |
| $\rho=-1$ | 0.5557 | 0.5298 | 0.4045 | 0.8317 |
| $\rho=-1 / 2$ | 0.7019 | 0.2698 | 0.3847 | 0.9216 |

Table 5: MAREs associated with the four estimators of the extreme quantile $q\left(\alpha_{n}=1 / n^{4}\right)$ computed on simulated data from the $\mathcal{D}(\zeta=1 / \theta, \eta=-\rho, a=10)$-distribution. The best result is emphasized in bold. MAREs larger than 1 are not reported.


Figure 3: Illustration on simulated data sets of size $n=500$ from a $\mathcal{D}(\zeta=1 / \theta=2 / 3, \eta=$ $-\rho, a=10$ )-distribution with $\rho \in\{-1 / 2,-1,-3 / 2\}$ (from top to bottom) computed on $N=1000$ replications. Medians (left panel) and MAREs (right panel) as functions of $k_{n} \in\{2, \ldots, n-1\}$, associated with estimators RWT (orange), RSH (blue) and LSE (green) of the extreme quantile $q\left(\alpha_{n}=1 / n^{2}\right)$ (black dashed line).


Figure 4: Illustration on simulated data sets of size $n=500$ from a $\mathcal{D}(\zeta=1 / \theta, \eta=-\rho=1, a=10)$ distribution with $\theta \in\{1,3 / 2,2\}$ (from top to bottom) computed on $N=1000$ replications. Medians (left panel) and MAREs (right panel) as functions of $k_{n} \in\{2, \ldots, n-1\}$, associated with estimators RWT (orange), RSH (blue) and LSE (green) of the extreme quantile $q\left(\alpha_{n}=1 / n^{2}\right)$ (black dashed line).


Figure 5: Illustration on the daily wind data set. Top: Histogram of the data set. Bottom: Weibull quantile-quantile plot (horizontally: $\left(\log \log (n / i)-\log \log \left(n / \hat{k}_{n}^{\star}\right)\right)$, vertically: $\left(\log X_{n-i+1, n}-\right.$ $\log X_{n-\hat{k}_{n}^{\star}+1, n}$ ) for $i \in\left\{1, \ldots, \hat{k}_{n}^{\star}=961\right\}$ ). A line with slope $\hat{\theta}_{n}^{\mathrm{RWT}}\left(k_{n}^{\dagger}\right)=0.5597$ is superimposed in red.


Figure 6: Illustration on the daily wind data set. Top: Estimates of the Weibull-tail coefficient RSH (blue), LSE (green) and MEF (red) as functions of $k_{n}$. The range is limited to $k_{n} \in\{100, \ldots, 4000\}$ for the sake ok readability. The pair $\left(k_{n}^{\dagger}, \hat{\theta}_{n}\left(k_{n}^{\dagger}\right)\right)$ associated with the selected value $k_{n}^{\dagger}$ is emphasized by a circle. The RWT estimate is represented by an orange circle on the RSH curve. Bottom: Estimates of the extreme quantile $q\left(\alpha_{n}=1 / n\right)$ by RWT (orange), RSH (blue),LSE (green) and MEF (red) as functions of $k_{n}$ with their associated $k_{n}^{\dagger}$ emphasized by a circle. The sample maximum $x_{n, n}$ is depicted by an horizontal black dashed line.

