# Taleb's kappa

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## Minimum number of terms (summands) needed for convergence

See Taleb: The Statistical Consequences Of Fat Tails, Ch. 8

## Problem statement

Let  $\{X_{g,i}\}$  be Gaussian distributed with mean  $\mu$  and scale  $\sigma$ .

Let 
$$\{X_{\nu,i}\}$$
 be t-distributed, scaled such that  $\mathbb{M}^{\nu}(1) = \mathbb{M}^{g}(1) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\sigma$ .

Given  $n_g$ , we want to determine and  $n_{\nu}^*$  such that

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\sum_{i}^{n_{g}}X_{g,i}\right] = \operatorname{Var}\left[\sum_{i}^{n_{\nu}^{*}}X_{\nu,i}\right]$$

## Calculating $\kappa$

For iid. r.v  $\{X_i\}$ :

$$S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$
$$\mathbb{M}(n) = \mathbb{E}(|S_n - \mathbb{E}(S_n)|)$$

Taleb's convergence metric ( $\kappa$ ):

The "rate" of convergence for n summands vs  $n_0$ , i.e. the improved convergence achieved by  $n - n_0$  additional terms, is given by  $\kappa(n_0, n)$ :

$$\kappa(n_0, n) = 2 - \frac{\log(n) - \log(n_0)}{\log\left(\frac{\mathbb{M}(n)}{\mathbb{M}(n_0)}\right)}$$

## Calculating $n_{\min}$

The minimum number of summands needed to achieve same variance as the sum of  $n_q$  Gaussian summands:

$$n_{\min} := n_{\nu}^*$$

We don't need to calculate  $\mathbb{M}(n)$  and  $\mathbb{M}(n_0)$ . Instead we use the properties

$$\mathbb{M}^{\nu}(1) = \mathbb{M}^{g}(1) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\sigma$$

where  $\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}$  is the ratio between the sd of a Gaussian r.v. and its MAD, and

$$\mathbb{M}(n) = n^{1/\alpha} \mathbb{M}(1)$$

where  $\alpha$  is the degrees of freedom for the Student t. This is true for Stable distributions only.

This seems to not work. Why?

#### Notes

#### Note 1

The relation  $\mathbb{M}^{\nu}(1) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\sigma$  only holds for the standard normal distribution, and only asymptotically. The ratio  $\frac{\text{MAD}(X)}{\text{sd}(X)}$  varies between 0 and 1.

 $https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Average\_absolute\_deviation\#Mean\_absolute\_deviation\_around\_the\_mean$ 

For a Student t with 3 df, the ratio is  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ . (See Taleb ch. 4 for further discussion.)

**Note 1a** The tail exponent  $\alpha$  of a Student t distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom is  $\alpha = \nu + 1$ , which can be seen from the density function, which is proportional to

$$r^{-(\nu+1)}$$

Confusingly, on p. 147 Taleb uses the notation "Student  $T(\alpha)$ , where  $\alpha = 3$ . Does this mean 2 or 3 degrees of freedom??

Taleb et al seem confused by this themselves On p. 150 they write:

"a Student T with 3 degrees of freedom ( $\alpha = 3$ ) requires 120 observations to get the same drop in variance from averaging (hence confidence level) as the Gaussian with 30, that is 4 times as much. The one-tailed Pareto with the same tail exponent  $\alpha = 3$  requires 543 observations to match a Gaussian sample of 30".

-So in one case  $\alpha$  is the degrees of freedom of a Student t, and in the next sentence  $\alpha$  is the tail exponent.

#### Note 2

Notice that if  $\mathbb{M}(n) = n^{1/\alpha} \mathbb{M}(1)$ , then  $\kappa(1,n)$  becomes

$$2 - \frac{\log(n) - \log(n_0)}{\log\left(\frac{\mathbb{M}(n)}{\mathbb{M}(n_0)}\right)} = 2 - \frac{\log(n) - \log(1)}{\log\left(\frac{n^{1/\alpha}\mathbb{M}(1)}{\mathbb{M}(1)}\right)} = 2 - \frac{\log(n)}{\log\left(n^{1/\alpha}\right)}$$

For  $\alpha = 2$ , this is

$$2 - \frac{\log(n)}{\log(\sqrt{n})} = 2 - \log_{\sqrt{n}}(n) = 0$$

as  $\log_{\sqrt{n}}(n) = 2$  for all n.

So if we use  $\tilde{\alpha} = \alpha I\{\alpha < 2\} + 2I\{\alpha \ge 2\}$ ,  $\kappa$  is always 0 for  $\alpha \ge 2$ . Is the F-S Skewed t Stable? According to the table in Taleb, p. 148, the Student t has a  $\kappa$  far from 0, even when  $\alpha > 2$ .

#### Note 3

Also note, that for Stable distributions with  $1 \leq \tilde{\alpha}$ ,

$$\kappa_{(n_0,n)} = 2 - \tilde{\alpha}$$

#### Note 4

The problem calculating the MAD directly is that we need the mean, which is what we are estimating in the first place! How much data do we need to estimate  $\kappa$ ???

A method then is to estimate the tail index  $\alpha$  (which will be Gaussian) using MLE and from there get the theoretical mean. See Taleb Ch. 13.

For the analytical mean of the F-S Skewed t, see Li and Nadarajah: A review of Student's t distribution and its generalizations, p. 10. (Typo: Should be x instead of s. See Fernandez-Steel: On Bayesian Modelling Of Fat Tails And Skewness, eq. 2.5+2.6)

#### Note 5

In this implementation we calculate the MAD of  $S_n$  as

$$\mathbb{M}(n) = \mathbb{E}(|S_n - \mathbb{E}(S_n)|) = \mathbb{E}(|S_n - n\hat{\mu}_{X_i}|)$$

where  $\hat{\mu}_{X_i}$  is the estimated mean of  $X_i$ . We estimate the mean of  $X_i$  by simulation.

#### Note 6

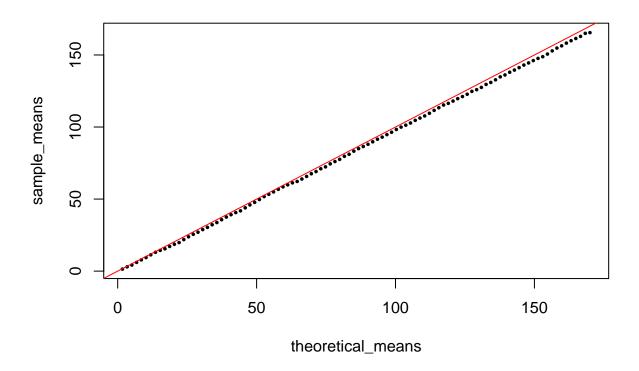
Test if the sample means of a sum of F-S Skewed t r.v.'s are equal to n times the mean of a single r.v. from that distribution.

Even with only 50 samples to estimate the sample mean, the fit is spot on.

```
num_sim <- 50
n <- 100
mu <- 1.7
sigma <- 2
nu <- 3
xi <- 0.25

x_df <- replicate(num_sim, cumsum(rsstd(n, mu, sigma, nu, xi)))
theoretical_means <- (1:n) * mu
sample_means <- lapply(
    1:n,
    function(i) {
        mean(x_df[i ,])
    }
</pre>
```

```
plot(theoretical_means, sample_means, pch = 16, cex = 0.5)
abline(0, 1, col = "red")
```



```
f_mad <- function(x) {</pre>
  sum(abs(x - mean(x))) / length(x)
## MAD of S_n, given the mean of X
f_mad_n <- function(Sn, mean_X) {</pre>
  diff <- numeric(length(Sn))</pre>
  for(i in seq_along(Sn)) {
    diff[i] <- abs(Sn[i] - mean_X)</pre>
  }
  sum(diff) / length(Sn)
}
## mean is the mean of a single Gaussian r.v. (same for t-distribution)
\#\# sd is the sd of a single Gaussian r.v. (same for t-distribution)
f_{xappa} \leftarrow function(n0, n, mean, sd = 1, nu = 3, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e4) {
  Sn_sim <- replicate(</pre>
    num_sim,
    rsstd(n = n, mean = mean, sd = nu/(nu - 2) * sd, nu = nu, xi = xi)
  \#x_n0 < rfun(n0, ...)
```

```
\#x_n \leftarrow rfun(n, \ldots)
  \#mad_1 \leftarrow sqrt(2 / pi) * sd_q
  \#mad_n0 \leftarrow mad_1 * n0^(1 / nu)
  \#mad_n \leftarrow mad_1 * n^(1 / nu)
  mad_n0 <- f_mad_n(</pre>
    unlist(lapply(1:num_sim, function(i) sum(Sn_sim[1:n0, i]))),
    n0 * mean
  mad_n <- f_mad_n(</pre>
    unlist(lapply(1:num_sim, function(i) sum(Sn_sim[1:n, i]))),
  nominator \leftarrow \log(n) - \log(n0)
  denominator <- log(mad_n / mad_n0)</pre>
  2 - (nominator / denominator)
}
## Use approximation if approx = TRUE
f_n_min <- function(n_g, mean, sd_g = 1, nu = 3, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e4, approx = FALSE) {
  ifelse(
    approx,
    exponent <- - 1 / (f_kappa(</pre>
       1, 2, mean, sd = sd_g * (nu / (nu - 2)), nu = nu, xi = xi, num_sim = num_sim
    ) - 1),
    exponent <- - 1 / (f_kappa(</pre>
       1, n_g, mean, sd = sd_g * (nu / (nu - 2)), nu = nu, xi = xi, num_sim = num_sim
    ) - 1)
  )
  n_g^exponent
}
According to table on p. 148, for Student t with 3 df,
   • \kappa_{1.2} = 0.29
nu <- 3
f_{\text{kappa}}(n0 = 1, n = 2, \text{mean} = 0, \text{sd} = 1, \text{nu} = \text{nu}, \text{xi} = 1, \text{num\_sim} = 1e5)
## [1] 0.283786
   • \kappa_{1,30} = 0.191
f_{\text{kappa}}(n0 = 1, n = 30, \text{mean} = 0, \text{sd} = 1, \text{nu} = \text{nu}, \text{xi} = 1, \text{num_sim} = 1e5)
## [1] 0.1933596
   • \kappa_{1.100} = 0.159
f_{nu} = 1, n = 100, mean = 0, nu = 1, nu = 1, nu = 1, num_{sim} = 1e5
## [1] 0.1639393
f_{\text{kappa}}(n0 = 1, n = 100, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = nu, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e5)
## [1] 0.1586125
f_{\text{kappa}}(n0 = 1, n = 100, \text{mean} = 0, \text{sd} = 1, \text{nu} = \text{nu}, \text{xi} = 1, \text{num_sim} = 1e5)
## [1] 0.1582189
```

```
f_kappa(n0 = 1, n = 100, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = nu, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e5)

## [1] 0.1546057

f_kappa(n0 = 1, n = 100, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = nu, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e5)

## [1] 0.1606407

f_kappa(n0 = 1, n = 100, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = nu, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e5)

## [1] 0.1581628

f_kappa(n0 = 1, n = 100, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = nu, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e5)

## [1] 0.162531

f_kappa(n0 = 1, n = 100, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = nu, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e5)

## [1] 0.1652506

f_kappa(n0 = 1, n = 100, mean = 0, sd = 1, nu = nu, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e5)

## [1] 0.1522116
```

"a Student T with 3 degrees of freedom ( $\alpha = 3$ ) requires 120 observations to get the same drop in variance from averaging (hence confidence level) as the Gaussian with 30". This seems only true for the approximation - which seems to be not very good:

Without approximation:

$$n_{g_{\nu}} = n_g^{\frac{1}{\kappa_{1,n_g} - 1}}$$

```
n_g <- 30 ## Number of Gaussian terms
sd_g = 1
df = 3

n_min <- f_n_min(n_g, mean = 0, sd_g = sd_g, nu = df, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e5, approx = FALSE)
n_min</pre>
```

## [1] 65.90981

With approximation:

$$n_{g_{\nu}} = n_g^{\frac{1}{\kappa_{1,2}-1}}$$

```
n_g <- 30 ## Number of Gaussian terms
sd_g = 1
df = 3

n_min <- f_n_min(n_g, mean = 0, sd_g = sd_g, nu = df, xi = 1, num_sim = 1e5, approx = TRUE)
n_min</pre>
```

## [1] 113.7804