pctl-kurt

May 13, 2021

1 A Quick-and-Dirty Attempt to Maximize "Percentile Kurtosis"

1.1 Motivation

Suppose someone tells you the event X = x is a " $+4\sigma$ event" i.e. that its z-score z(X = x) = +4. That sounds statistically extreme! In other words, $\Pr[X > x]$ is probably very low. Indeed, if X is Normal, X > x would be essentially impossible.

I want to try to construct a "pathological" example: A distribution with finite mean μ and standard deviation σ where an event more extreme than $X = x := \mu + 4\sigma$ (i.e. more than a $+4\sigma$ event) is actually *very* likely. This is hard, but I'll settle for making it *pretty* likely.

In other words, I want to construct a distribution that is highly "percentile-kurtotic": A distribution where $\Pr[X > \mu + 4\sigma]$ is maximal.

1.2 Definitions

1.2.1 *z*-score

We define z-score

$$z(X = x) := \frac{x - \mu(X)}{\sigma(X)},$$

with

$$\sigma^{2}(X) := \int_{x=-\infty}^{x=\infty} (x - \mu(X))^{2} \Pr[X = x] dx,$$

where X is a random variable and we abuse notation a bit to let Pr[X = x] represent its probability density function. (We're going to continue to be a bit hand-wavey with this, assuming some mild conditions e.g. PDF is continuous.)

1.2.2 percentile

We define percentile (AKA cumulative distribution function) the usual way, as

$$Pr[X \le x] := \int_{t=-\infty}^{t=x} Pr[X=t]dt.$$

1.2.3 "percentile kurtosis"

Finally, as I alluded above, I'm going to define the "percentile kurtosis" (a made-up term) k of a random variable as

$$k(X) := 1 - \Pr[X \le \mu(X) + 4\sigma(X)],$$

the complement-percentile of a $+4\sigma$ event. Maximizing k is equivalent to minimizing the percentile.

Notice that k is location- and scale-invariant:

$$k(a+bX) = k(X)$$
 $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

1.3 Background

Using the definitions above, let's answer a couple quick questions.

1.3.1 Can k be literally 0, i.e. $Pr[X \le \mu + 4\sigma] = 1$?

Yes. Consider the Standard Uniform from 0 to 1.

$$\mu + 4\sigma = 0.5 + 4\sqrt{1/12} \approx 1.65 > 1$$
,

so that a 4σ event is not just "essentially" impossible, but "literally" impossible: It's literally outside the support of the distribution.

This is not a very helpful example for our question, because we want to maximize k. But it's just background.

1.3.2 Can k be essentially but not literally 0?

Yes, we already mentioned the example of the Standard Normal.

1.3.3 Can k be some small but nontrivial positive value?

Yes, the Standard χ^2 distribution has $\mu = 1$ and $\sigma = \sqrt{2}$. In this case, $k = 1 - \Pr[X \le \mu + 4\sigma]$ turns out to be about 0.01.

1.3.4 Can *k* be literally 1, i.e. $Pr[X \le \mu + 4\sigma] = 0$?

No. This sounds silly but it's still worth convincing ourselves that it's truly impossible.

Assume for simplicity that $\mu = 0$ (this is WLOG, because if $\mu \neq 0$, we can just shift the entire distribution by $-\mu$).

Suppose to the contrary that it is possible, i.e. there is some random variable X s.t. $\Pr[X \le +4\sigma] = 0$. Then,

$$\Pr[X = x] = 0 \quad \forall x \in (-\infty, +4\sigma].$$

Hence, we can collapse the expression for variance to

$$\sigma^{2}(X) = \int_{x=+4\sigma}^{x=+\infty} x^{2} \Pr[X=x] dx.$$

So we can think of the variance as a weighted average of squared values between $+4\sigma$ and $+\infty$.

Standard deviation is of course nonnegative, so also $+4\sigma \ge 0$. So the smallest squared value in the weighted average is $(+4\sigma)^2 = 16\sigma^2$. Necessarily, then, the final weighted average must be at least $16\sigma^2$. (Actually, it must be just a smidge more than $16\sigma^2$, because we put zero density at

exactly $X = +4\sigma$, hence the smallest-possible squared value is $(+4\sigma + \varepsilon)^2$, and if we accounted for this smidge, we'd run into a contradiction immediately. However, I find it more illuminating at this step to draw the weaker conclusion, which is still true, but lets us run further before hitting a contradiction.)

Hence we get

$$\sigma^2 > 16\sigma^2 \implies \sigma = 0.$$

So supposing that k can be 1 for some distribution, that distribution must have zero variance.

Well, according to a convention, the Dirac delta is the unique probability density function with zero variance (take this for granted, or if you insist on arguing, email me). It characterizes the density of a point mass.

So let's try it out. Supposing X is a Dirac-delta-distributed random variable (AKA a constant), we have

$$\Pr[X \leq +4\sigma] = \Pr[X \leq 0] = 1.$$

Sadly, this failed. We had assumed the exact opposite: that $\Pr[X \leq 0] = 0$. Hence by contradition, we have Q.E.D.

1.3.5 What about the evil Cauchy (AKA Standard t) distribution?

Obviously, one of the immediate problems with the Cauchy (that indeed disqualifies it from consideration) is that its variance (or even its mean) is not finite.

But it can be instructive to think about it. If we "define" $\sigma(X) := \infty$ (acceptable) and $\mu(X) := 0$ (please don't haunt my dreams Prof Blitzstein) for a Cauchy random variable, then $\mu(X) + 4\sigma(X) = +\infty$, which is the upper bound of support for the Cauchy, hence k(X) = 0, just like for the Standard Uniform.

The problem here is that the fat tails of the Cauchy are so fat, that they make its standard deviation infinite. At that point, it becomes impossible to push any probability mass at all beyond $\mu + 4\sigma$, because there's no more number line remaining after that.

1.4 Exploring the solution

Obviously, the best would be to solve for the maximal k analytically in closed form. Letting WLOG $\mu = 0$, we want to solve

$$\max_{f \in F} \int_{x=\ell}^{x=+\infty} f(x) dx,$$

where F is the set of well-formed PDF's and

$$\ell := 4\sqrt{\int_{t=-\infty}^{t=+\infty} t^2 f(t) dt}.$$

This doesn't look impossible but it certainly looks very boring and I haven't got any good ideas about how to begin.

The worst would be Monte Carlo, which I've genuinely gotten as a suggestion here. Monte Carlo can be good for pinning down "averages" but is not necessarily always as good for pinning down "extremes".

I will compromise by selecting some high "resolution" N and simply systematically generating and analyzing all the possible discrete PMF's available at this resolution. This program is in essence combinatorial (factorial) so N will be limited by how long I'm willing to let my notebook run.

1.4.1 Upper bound

Note that Chebyshev's Inequality gives us a weak upper bound $k \le \frac{1}{4^2} = \frac{1}{16} = 0.0625$. Further, the Chebyshev-Cantelli Inequality gives us a weak upper bound $k \le \frac{1}{1+4^2} = \frac{1}{17} \approx 0.0588$.

Caveats are of course - This is not necessarily a strict i.e. attainable upper bound, and - Even if the bound is attainable, this tells us nothing about the distribution that attains it.

Sadly, something simple like attempting to attain the Chebyshev-Cantelli bound with a zero-mean "Bernoulli" (see below) fails. It achieves what I call the ">" bound, that is,

$$1 - \Pr[X < \mu + 4\sigma] = \Pr[X > = \mu + 4\sigma] \approx 0.0588,$$

but it does not achieve the ">" bound, the one we're interested in, that is, sadly, for this distribution,

$$1 - \Pr[X \le \mu + 4\sigma] = \Pr[X > \mu + 4\sigma] = 0.$$

```
[34]: from typing import Tuple, Iterable, Generator, Optional
      import scipy.stats as stats
      import pandas as pd
      from functools import reduce
      import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
      import seaborn as sns; sns.set()
      PMF: type = pd.Series # int index, float data
      ZSCORE: float = +4.00 # for pctl-kurt
      N: int = 15 # resolution (higher is better) of our PMF's.. 15 takes a day tou
       \rightarrow run smh
      def gen_perms(len_: int=N, sum_: int=N) -> Generator[Tuple[int], None, None]:
          Generate permutations of Naturals \{0, 1, 2, ...\} with length `len ` and_
       \hookrightarrow sum `sum_`.
          Each permutation is a tuple of the form (n_0, n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_{\ell-1}).
          This is the "stars and bars" problem: How many ways can we sort
          `sum ` indistinguishable balls into `len ` labelled urns?
```

```
This is pretty general code, but we're going to keep it simple by fixing.
\hookrightarrow some large N,
   and then analyzing `gen_perms(len_=N, sum_=N)`. In this usage, `N_{\perp}
\hookrightarrow represents our
   "resolution": Ultimately, we'll normalize (elementwise) each permutation by \Box
\hookrightarrow `N` itself and
   thereby yield a well-formed PMF. It's convenient to let `sum_ := len_ `_
\hookrightarrow because
   then we can perfectly encode a Uniform PMF as an $N$-tuple of 1's.
   You might notice that as `N` increases, so does the support of our PMF:
   That's OK. The key is that larger `N` gives us more flexibility to create
   finer and finer "shapes" for the PMF. It doesn't matter that in the process
   of creating these shapes, we stretch out the support, because you can always
   just imagine analyzing instead the PMF of the random variable X/N i.e. our
   random variable $X$ divided by our fixed resolution $N$, thereby shrinking.
\hookrightarrow the support
   back down to the interval $[0, 1]$. Results will be equivalent for our,
\hookrightarrow purposes.
   Recursive generator inspired by https://stackoverflow.com/a/7748851.
   We could have saved a bit of time by implementing a dynamic-programming
   solution, but that would require a ton of space to store all the
   permutations in memory. In this case, the space is the limiting resource,
   because there are many many permutations we want to iterate over,
   but generating any single permutation is actually reasonably fast
   relative to the analysis we subsequently run on it.
   11 11 11
   if len_ < 1:</pre>
       raise ValueError(len )
   if sum < 0:
       raise ValueError(sum_)
   # base case
   if len == 1:
       # only choice is singleton tuple with `sum_` as its only element
       yield (sum ,)
   # recursive case
   else:
       # iterate over choices for head (first) element i.e. $n_0$
       # `reversed` because i want mass to start at LHS and flow rightward,
       # e.g. first-choice PMF puts 100% weight on `O` not `len_-1`
       for head in range(sum_, -1, -1):
           Now having fixed the head, recursively generate choices for
           the tail (remaining) elements i.e. n_1, \ldots, n_{\ell-1}.
```

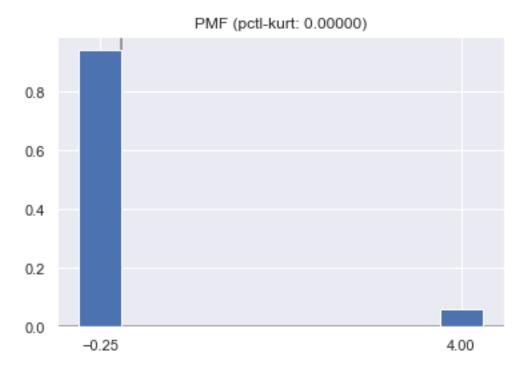
```
Tail must be `len - 1` elements long, and sum to `sum - head`.
            for tail in gen_perms(len_=len_-1, sum_=sum_-head):
                # concatenate tuples
                yield (head,) + tail
def get_pmf_from_perm(perm: Tuple[int]) -> PMF:
   Normalize a tuple of ints by its sum, creating a PMF.
    input
   perm: Tuple[int], a permutation of Naturals
        e.q. `(3, 1, 0, 1)`.
   output
   PMF, a well-formed PMF
        e.g. `pd.Series({0: 0.6, 1: 0.2, 2: 0.0, 3: 0.2})`.
   return pd.Series(perm) / sum(perm)
def calc_mean(pmf: PMF) -> float:
   # pmf-weighted average
   return sum(pmf.index * pmf)
def calc_std(pmf: PMF) -> float:
    squared_centered_values = (pmf.index - calc_mean(pmf=pmf))**2
    # again, just a pmf-weighted average
   return sum(squared_centered_values * pmf)**0.5
def calc_pctl(pmf: PMF, x: float=0) -> float:
   return pmf.loc[:x].sum()
def calc_pctl_kurt(pmf: PMF, zscore: float=ZSCORE) -> float:
   mu = calc mean(pmf=pmf)
   sigma = calc_std(pmf=pmf)
   pctl = calc_pctl(pmf=pmf, x=mu + zscore*sigma)
   return 1 - pctl
def get_pmf_and_pctl_kurt_from_perm(perm: Tuple[int]) -> Tuple[PMF, float]:
```

```
# turn permutation into a probability mass function
   pmf = get_pmf_from_perm(perm=perm)
    # calculate its percentile kurtosis
   pctl_kurt = calc_pctl_kurt(pmf=pmf)
   assert not pd.isnull(pctl_kurt), \
        (pmf, pctl_kurt)
   return pmf, pctl_kurt
def plot_pmf(
        pmf: PMF, width: float=1.00,
       xlim_left: Optional[float]=None, xlim_right: Optional[float]=None
    ) -> None:
   plt.bar(x=pmf.index, height=pmf.values, width=width)
   plt.axhline(y=0, zorder=0, color="gray")
   plt.axvline(x=0, zorder=0, color="gray")
   plt.xticks(ticks=pmf.index)
   plt.xlim(left=pmf.index.min()-0.5 if xlim_left is None else xlim_left,
             right=pmf.index.max()+0.5 if xlim_right is None else xlim_right),
   plt.ylim(bottom=0)
   plt.title(f"PMF (pctl-kurt: {calc_pctl_kurt(pmf=pmf):.5f})")
   plt.show()
def main() -> Tuple[float, PMF]:
    # "do-while" structure
   perms = gen_perms()
    # PMF and value associated w/ maximal pctl-kurt seen so far ("do" part)
   argmax_pctl_kurt, max_pctl_kurt =

→get_pmf_and_pctl_kurt_from_perm(perm=next(perms))
    # iterate through the remaining permutations ("while" part)
   for perm in gen perms():
       pmf, pctl_kurt = get_pmf_and_pctl_kurt_from_perm(perm=perm)
        if pctl kurt > max pctl kurt:
            max_pctl_kurt = pctl_kurt
            argmax_pctl_kurt = pmf
   plot_pmf(pmf=argmax_pctl_kurt)
   return argmax_pctl_kurt, max_pctl_kurt
if __name__ == "__main__":
   # TODO(sparshsah): takes forever.. prolly need to rent CPU time for this
    # argmax_pctl_kurt, max_pctl_kurt = main()
```

[2]: # attempting to achieve Chebyshev-Cantelli bound w/ zero-mean "Bernoulli" fails # it achieves the ">" bound, but not the ">" bound

```
# recall: $k$ is scale-invariant, so stretching the PMF's width won't help
plot_pmf(pmf=pd.Series({
    -1/ZSCORE: ZSCORE**2 / (1 + ZSCORE**2),
    ZSCORE: 1 / (1 + ZSCORE**2)
}), width=0.50)
```



1.5 Appendix: Another way that will not work

One of my dumber friends suggested that I simply take a zero-mean base PMF like pd.Series($\{-9: 0.10, +1: 0.90\}$) which gives a hefty 90% chance of being positive, and scaling its width by some constant c, the argument being that its maximum would increase with c whereas its σ would increase with \sqrt{c} and hence eventually its maximum value would "overtake" its $+4\sigma$ threshold. At that point, there would necessarily be a 90% chance of a $+4\sigma$ event. Obviously this is wrong because scaling a PMF by c also scales its σ by c: σ scales with \sqrt{c} when you add together i.i.d. variables, not just scale up a single one.

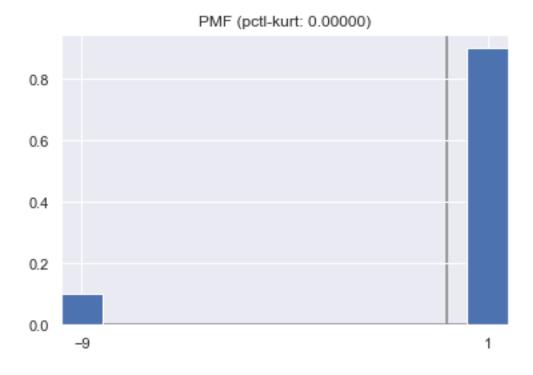
Not satisfied with one silly mistake for the night, before going to bed, he conceded that that wouldn't work, but suggested that I should simply then take instead the PMF of some sum of i.i.d. random variables drawn from his base PMF. Then, the σ would indeed scale with \sqrt{c} . I am also dumb which is why we're friends, so I actually thought he'd solved it. I cracked a bottle of champagne and promised to buy him a beer when Covid ended.

Then I tried it. It does not work. Adding together those i.i.d. random variables (as opposed to simply scaling up any individual one) compresses their standard deviation precisely because probability mass flows inward away from the tails (toward zero, the mean) as the "sampling distribution"

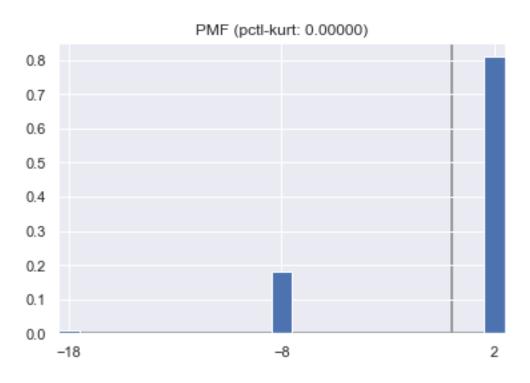
of their sample mean (which fixing c is just a deterministically scaled-down version of their sum) converges to a Normal according to the Central Limit Theorem.

```
[3]: def _get_pmf_of_indep_sum(pmf_a: PMF, pmf_b: PMF) -> PMF:
         """Get the PMF of the sum of two independent random variables."""
         pmf = pd.Series(dtype=float)
         for a, p_a in pmf_a.iteritems():
             for b, p_b in pmf_b.iteritems():
                 pmf.loc[a + b] = pmf.get(key=a+b, default=0) + p_a*p_b
         return pmf
     def get pmf of indep sum(pmfs: Iterable[PMF]) -> PMF:
         """Get the PMF of the sum of `len(pmfs)` independent random variables."""
         return reduce(_get_pmf_of_indep_sum, pmfs)
     base_pmf = pd.Series({-9: 0.10, +1: 0.90})
     pmf = pd.Series({0: 1.00})
     for c in range(1, 8+1):
         print(f"Adding {c} i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:")
         pmf = _get_pmf_of_indep_sum(pmf_a=pmf, pmf_b=base_pmf)
         plot_pmf(pmf=pmf)
     c = 32
     print(f"Adding {c} i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:")
     pmf = get_pmf_of_indep_sum(pmfs=[base_pmf]*c)
     plot_pmf(pmf=pmf, width=2)
     print("Zoom in to see that the PMF still has a long left tail,\n" \
           "but it's begun to converge to Normal as CLT kicks in:")
     plot_pmf(pmf=pmf, width=2, xlim_left=-50, xlim_right=+50)
```

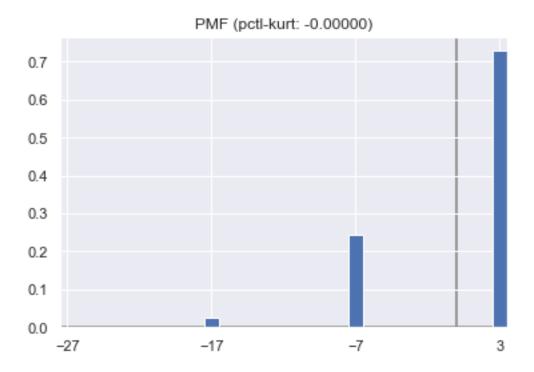
Adding 1 i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:



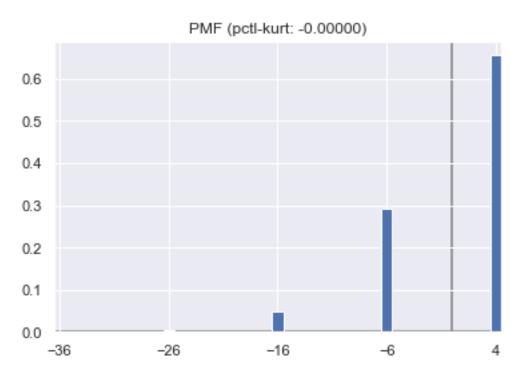
Adding 2 i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:



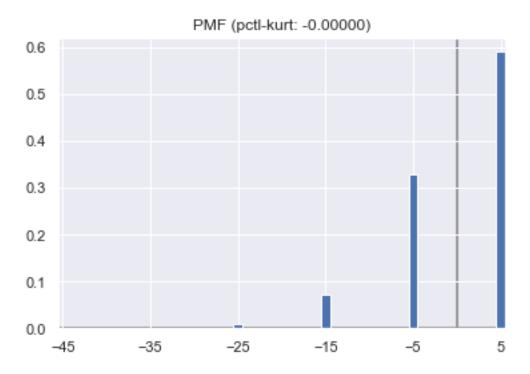
Adding 3 i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:



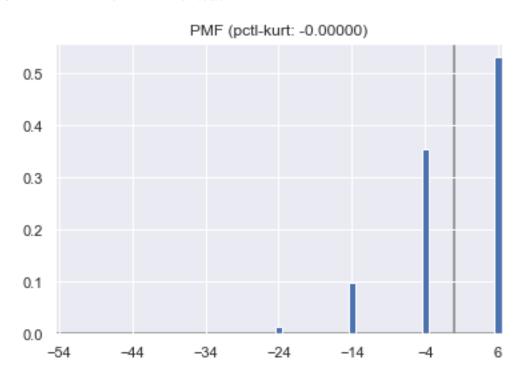
Adding 4 i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:



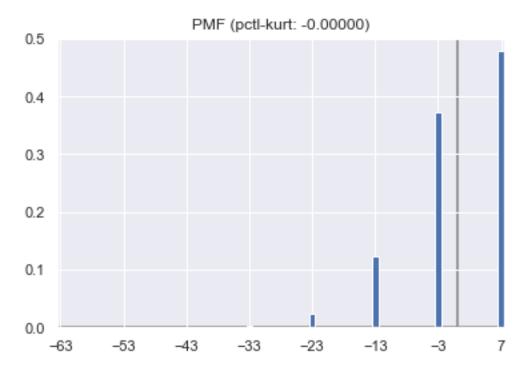
Adding 5 i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:



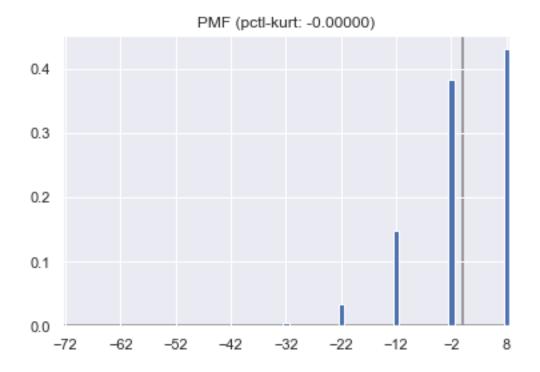
Adding 6 i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:



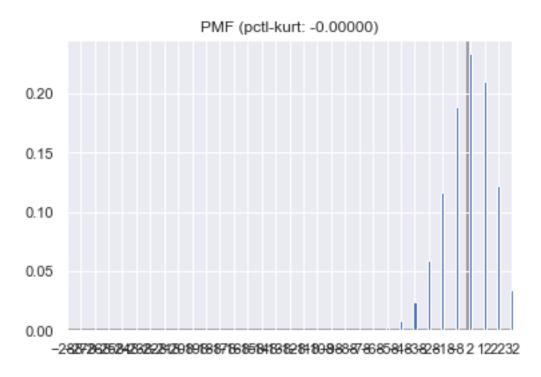
Adding 7 i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:



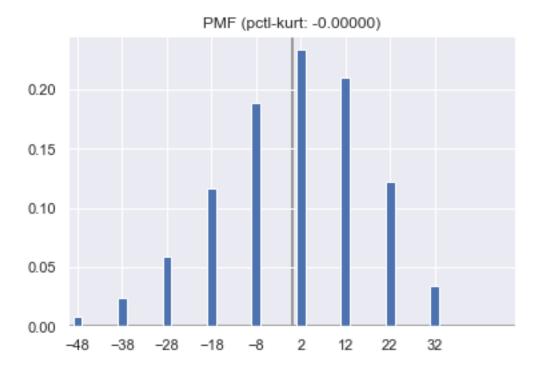
Adding 8 i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:



Adding 32 i.i.d. r.v.'s from the base PMF:



Zoom in to see that the PMF still has a long left tail, but it's begun to converge to Normal as CLT kicks in:



```
[35]: EPSILON = 1e-8
CHEBYSHEV_CANTELLI_BOUND = 1 / (1 + ZSCORE**2)
print(f"Chebyshev-Cantelli upper bound: {CHEBYSHEV_CANTELLI_BOUND:.5f}")

plot_pmf(pmf=pd.Series({
    -1/ZSCORE: 1 - CHEBYSHEV_CANTELLI_BOUND,
    ZSCORE: CHEBYSHEV_CANTELLI_BOUND - CHEBYSHEV_CANTELLI_BOUND - EPSILON,
    ZSCORE + CHEBYSHEV_CANTELLI_BOUND - EPSILON: CHEBYSHEV_CANTELLI_BOUND - EPSILON
}), width=0.50)
```

Chebyshev-Cantelli upper bound: 0.05882

