

# Power-Law Size Distributions

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Principles of Complex Systems, Vols. 1 & 2  
CSYS/MATH 300 and 303, 2021-2022 | @pocsvox

Prof. Peter Sheridan Dodds | @peterdodds

Computational Story Lab | Vermont Complex Systems Center  
Vermont Advanced Computing Core | University of Vermont



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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition  
Definition  
Examples  
Wild vs. Mild  
CCDFs  
Zipf's law  
Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF  
References

$$P(x) \sim x^{-\delta}$$

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

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Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

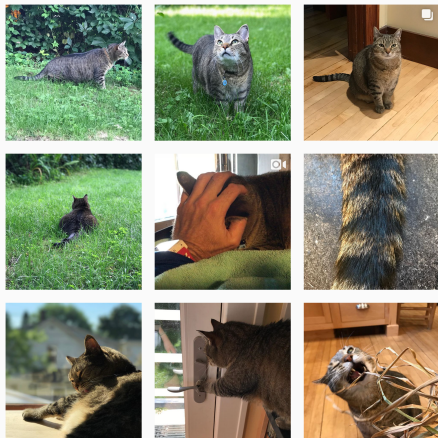
$$P(x) \sim x^{-\delta}$$



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Distributions

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Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild



CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

$$P(x) \sim x^{-\delta}$$

 On Instagram at [pratchett\\_the\\_cat](https://www.instagram.com/pratchett_the_cat) 



# Outline

PoCS  
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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Our Intuition

Definition

Definition

Examples

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

References

$$P(x) \sim x^{-\delta}$$



## Two of the many things we struggle with cognitively:

### 1. Probability.

- Ex. The Monty Hall Problem. [↗](#)
- Ex. Daughter/Son born on Tuesday. [↗](#)  
(see next two slides; Wikipedia entry here [↗](#).)

### 2. Logarithmic scales.

## On counting and logarithms:



Listen to Radiolab's 2009 piece:  
"Numbers." [↗](#)



Later: Benford's Law [↗](#)

Also to be enjoyed: the magnificence of the Dunning-Kruger effect [↗](#)

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF


References

$$P(x) \sim x^{-\delta}$$




# Homo probabilisticus?


The set up:


 A parent has two children.

Simple probability question:


 What is the probability that both children are girls?

The next set up:

 A parent has two children.

 We know one of them is a girl.

The next probabilistic poser:

 What is the probability that both children are girls?

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

$$P(x) \sim x^{-\delta}$$



Try this one:

- 🧱 A parent has two children.
- 🧱 We know one of them is a girl born on a Tuesday.

Simple question #3:

- 🧱 What is the probability that both children are girls?

Last:

- 🧱 A parent has two children.
- 🧱 We know one of them is a girl born on December 31.

And ...

- 🧱 What is the probability that both children are girls?

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

$$P(x) \sim x^{-\delta}$$



# Let's test our collective intuition:



Money  
≡  
Belief

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

## Two questions about wealth distribution in the United States:

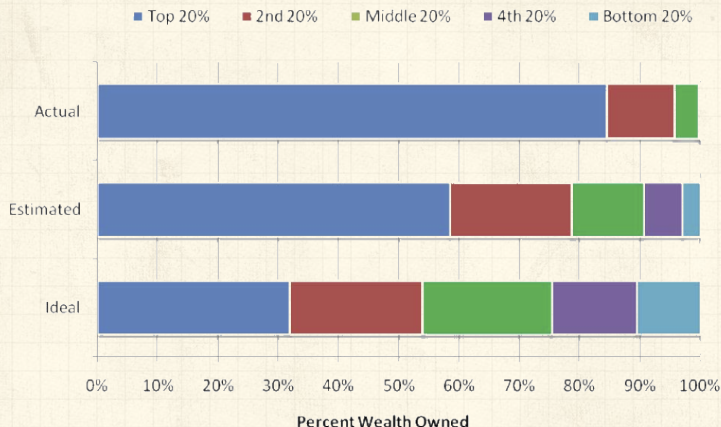
1. Please estimate the percentage of all wealth owned by individuals when grouped into quintiles.
2. Please estimate what you believe each quintile should own, ideally.
3. Extremes: 100, 0, 0, 0, 0 and 20, 20, 20, 20, 20.

$$P(x) \sim x^{-\delta}$$





## Wealth distribution in the United States: <sup>[12]</sup>



**Fig. 2.** The actual United States wealth distribution plotted against the estimated and ideal distributions across all respondents. Because of their small percentage share of total wealth, both the “4th 20%” value (0.2%) and the “Bottom 20%” value (0.1%) are not visible in the “Actual” distribution.

“Building a better America—One wealth quintile at a time”  
Norton and Ariely, 2011. <sup>[12]</sup>

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

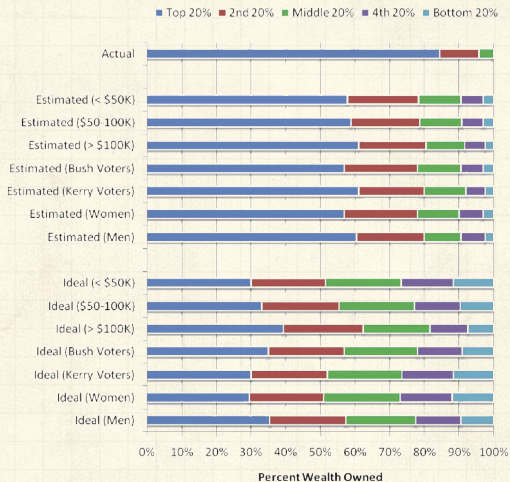
References

$$P(x) \sim x^{-\delta}$$





# Wealth distribution in the United States: [12]



**Fig. 3.** The actual United States wealth distribution plotted against the estimated and ideal distributions of respondents of different income levels, political affiliations, and genders. Because of their small percentage share of total wealth, both the “4th 20%” value (0.2%) and the “Bottom 20%” value (0.1%) are not visible in the “Actual” distribution.

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



# The Boggoracle Speaks:

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF


References




The sizes of many systems' elements appear to obey an inverse power-law size distribution:


$$P(\text{size} = x) \sim c x^{-\gamma}$$

where  $0 < x_{\min} < x < x_{\max}$  and  $\gamma > 1$ .

  $x_{\min}$  = lower cutoff,  $x_{\max}$  = upper cutoff

 Negative linear relationship in log-log space:

$$\log_{10} P(x) = \log_{10} c - \gamma \log_{10} x$$

 We use base 10 because we are **good people**.

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF


References





# Size distributions:


Usually, only the tail of the distribution obeys a power law:

$$P(x) \sim c x^{-\gamma} \text{ for } x \text{ large.}$$


 Still use term 'power-law size distribution.'

 Other terms:

 **Fat-tailed** distributions.

 **Heavy-tailed** distributions.

Beware:

 Inverse power laws aren't the only ones:  
lognormals[!\[\]\(8572950e410320d7dd023da827ff014d\_img.jpg\)](#), Weibull distributions[!\[\]\(b2b6a2e56e47cc582ad4ec3c8f1864c0\_img.jpg\)](#), ...

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



# Size distributions:

Many systems have discrete sizes  $k$ :

- Word frequency
- Node degree in networks: # friends, # hyperlinks, etc.
- # citations for articles, court decisions, etc.

$$P(k) \sim c k^{-\gamma}$$

where  $k_{\min} \leq k \leq k_{\max}$

- Obvious fail for  $k = 0$ .
- Again, typically a description of distribution's tail.

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References





# Word frequency:

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Distributions

Brown Corpus ↗ (~ 10<sup>6</sup> words):

rank	word	% q
1.	the	6.8872
2.	of	3.5839
3.	and	2.8401
4.	to	2.5744
5.	a	2.2996
6.	in	2.1010
7.	that	1.0428
8.	is	0.9943
9.	was	0.9661
10.	he	0.9392
11.	for	0.9340
12.	it	0.8623
13.	with	0.7176
14.	as	0.7137
15.	his	0.6886

rank	word	% q
1945.	apply	0.0055
1946.	vital	0.0055
1947.	September	0.0055
1948.	review	0.0055
1949.	wage	0.0055
1950.	motor	0.0055
1951.	fifteen	0.0055
1952.	regarded	0.0055
1953.	draw	0.0055
1954.	wheel	0.0055
1955.	organized	0.0055
1956.	vision	0.0055
1957.	wild	0.0055
1958.	Palmer	0.0055
1959.	intensity	0.0055

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf ↔ CCDF

References



# Jonathan Harris's Wordcount:

A word frequency distribution explorer:

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

[Our Intuition](#)

[Definition](#)

[Examples](#)

[Wild vs. Mild](#)

[CCDFs](#)

[Zipf's law](#)

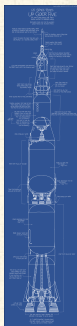
[Zipf  \$\leftrightarrow\$  CCDF](#)

[References](#)





# "Thing Explainer: Complicated Stuff in Simple Words" by Randall Munroe (2015). <sup>[10]</sup>



## BOAT THAT GOES UNDER THE SEA

We've always had boats that go under the sea, but in the last few hundred years, we've learned to make ones that come back up.

At first, we used those boats to shoot at other boats, make holes in them, or stick things to them that blew up.

Later, we found a new use for these boats: keeping our city-burning machines hidden, safe, and ready to use if there's a war.

### WORLD-ENDING BOAT

The boat shown here carries up to two dozen city-burning war machines. People have added on the power used during the Second World War—all the machines that blow up, all the guns that fire, and all the ships that burn it. It's a lot of fire power. Each of these boats carries several times that much.

### SPECIAL SEA WORDS

Most of the time, if you call a really big boat a "boat," people who know a bit about boats will get mad at you. But boats that go under the sea are really called "boats."

### BREATHING STICK

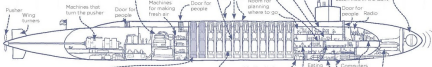
This brings fresh air into the boat, but the boat can also make its own air by breaking water into the parts it's made of. This takes a lot of power, but the boat is powered by heavy metal, so it has enough power to do whatever it wants.

### MIRROR LOOKERS

When the boat is hiding under the sea, it can come near the surface and use these sticks with mirrors in them to let the people inside see out of the water.

### SOUND LOOKERS

Light can't go far under water, so these boats "see" with sound. The boat makes sound, which hits things and comes back. By listening carefully, the people in the boat can tell what's around them without seeing it. Like if you ask your kids what catch fish is in the dark.



### EMPTY ROOMS

A while ago, everyone decided the world didn't need so many city-burning machines. This country agreed to turn off four of the two dozen firing machine carriers in each boat, leaving only twenty.

### MACHINES FOR BURNING CITIES


Each part of these rooms has a firing carrier full of the burning machine. When firing under the sea, the boats can shoot the carriers into space. Any of these boats can do it at multiple airbases in the world in under an hour.

### MACHINES FOR SHOOTING BOATS

This boat can shoot these tiny machines under the water of other boats to make holes in them. They blow up, but don't use heavy metal. Boats used to carry more guns and machines like this, but boats don't really fight each other anymore.

**OTHER BOATS THAT GO UNDER THE SEA**  
These are some other boats, drawn to show how big they are next to the world-ending boat above.



Up goer five 



# The long tail of knowledge:

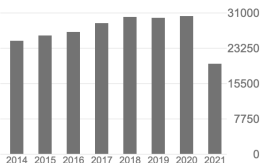
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Distributions

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Take a scrolling voyage  
to the citational abyss,  
starting at the surface with  
the lonely, giant citaceans,  
moving down  
to the legion of strange,  
sometimes misplaced,  
unloved creatures,  
that dwell in

[Kahneman's Google Scholar  
page](#)

[Our Intuition](#)

[Definition](#)

[Examples](#)

[Wild vs. Mild](#)

[CCDFs](#)

[Zipf's law](#)

[Zipf  \$\leftrightarrow\$  CCDF](#)

[References](#)



# The statistics of surprise—words:

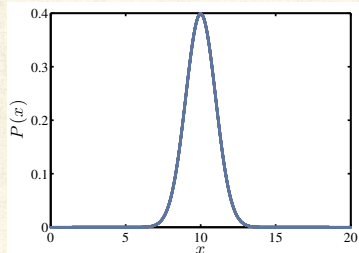
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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

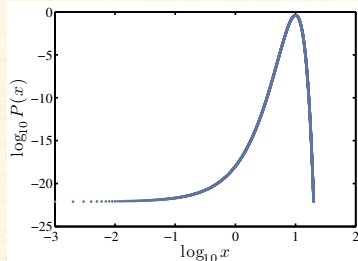
First—a Gaussian example:

$$P(x)dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2} dx$$

linear:



log-log



mean  $\mu = 10$ , variance  $\sigma^2 = 1$ .



Activity: Sketch  $P(x) \sim x^{-1}$  for  $x = 1$  to  $x = 10^7$ .

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

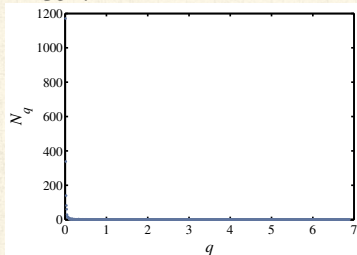
References



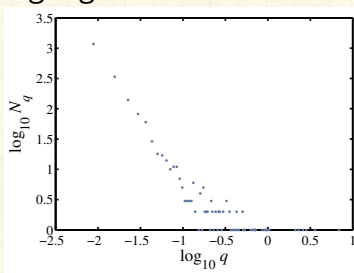
# The statistics of surprise—words:


Raw 'probability' (binned) for Brown Corpus:


linear:




log-log



  $q_w$  = normalized frequency of occurrence of word  $w$  (%).

  $N_q$  = number of distinct words that have a normalized frequency of occurrence  $q$ .

 e.g.  $q_{\text{the}} \approx 6.9\%$ ,  $N_{q_{\text{the}}} = 1$ .

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

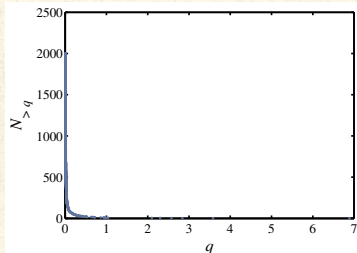
References



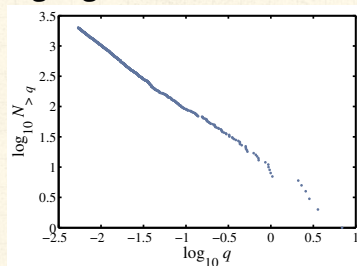
# The statistics of surprise—words:

## Complementary Cumulative Probability Distribution $N_{\geq q}$ :

linear:



log-log



Also known as the 'Exceedance Probability.'

Our Intuition  
Definition  
Examples  
Wild vs. Mild  
CCDFs  
Zipf's law  
Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF  
References



My, what big words you have ...

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Distributions

**Test  
your  
vocab**

*How many words  
do you know?*



Our Intuition

Definition

Examples



Wild vs. Mild




CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

 Test  capitalizes on word frequency following a heavily skewed frequency distribution with a decaying power-law tail.

 This Man Can Pronounce Every Word in the Dictionary  (story here )

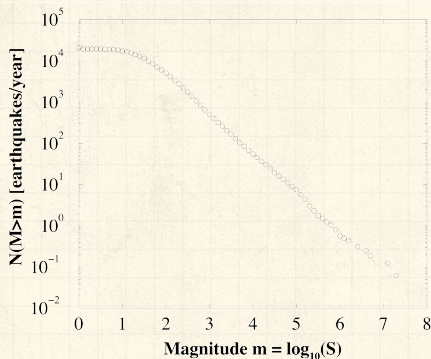
 Best of Dr. Bailly 








# The statistics of surprise:

## Gutenberg-Richter law




 Log-log plot

 Base 10

 Slope = -1

$$N(M > m) \propto m^{-1}$$

 From **both** the very awkwardly similar Christensen et al. and Bak et al.:  
"Unified scaling law for earthquakes" [4, 1]

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



# The statistics of surprise:

From: "[Quake Moves Japan Closer to U.S. and Alters Earth's Spin](#)"  by Kenneth Chang, March 13, 2011, NYT:

'What is perhaps most surprising about the Japan earthquake is how misleading history can be. In the past 300 years, no earthquake nearly that large—nothing larger than magnitude eight—had struck in the Japan subduction zone. That, in turn, led to assumptions about how large a tsunami might strike the coast.'

"It did them a giant disservice," said Dr. Stein of the geological survey. That is not the first time that the earthquake potential of a fault has been underestimated. Most geophysicists did not think the Sumatra fault could generate a magnitude 9.1 earthquake, ...'

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

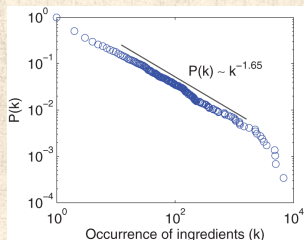
References





## "Geography and similarity of regional cuisines in China" ↗

Zhu et al.,  
PLoS ONE, **8**, e79161, 2013. [18]



Fraction of ingredients  
that appear in at least  $k$   
recipes.



Oops in notation:  $P(k)$  is  
the Complementary  
Cumulative Distribution  
 $P_{\geq}(k)$

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs


Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References






"On a class of skew distribution functions" 


Herbert A. Simon,  
Biometrika, **42**, 425–440, 1955. <sup>[15]</sup>



"Power laws, Pareto distributions and Zipf's law" 

M. E. J. Newman,  
Contemporary Physics, **46**, 323–351,  
2005. <sup>[11]</sup>



"Power-law distributions in empirical data" 

Clauset, Shalizi, and Newman,  
SIAM Review, **51**, 661–703, 2009. <sup>[5]</sup>



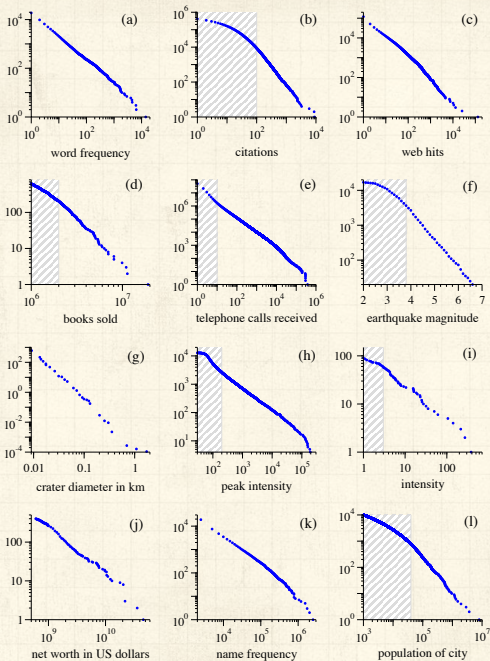


FIG. 4 Cumulative distributions or “rank/frequency plots” of twelve quantities reputed to follow power laws. The distributions were computed as described in Appendix A. Data in the shaded regions were excluded from the calculations of the exponents in Table I. Source references for the data are given in the text. (a) Numbers of occurrences of words in the novel *Moby Dick* by Herman Melville. (b) Numbers of citations to scientific papers published in 1981, from time of publication until June 1997. (c) Numbers of hits on web sites by 60,000 users of the America Online Internet service for the day of 1 December 1997. (d) Numbers of copies of bestselling books sold in the US between 1895 and 1965. (e) Number of calls received by AT&T telephone customers in the US for a single day. (f) Magnitude of earthquakes in California between January 1940 and May 1992. Magnitude is proportional to the logarithm of the maximum amplitude of the earthquake, and hence the distribution obeys a power law even though the horizontal axis is linear. (g) Diameter of craters on the moon. Vertical axis is measured per square kilometre. (h) Peak gamma-ray intensity of solar flares in counts per second, measured from Earth orbit between February 1980 and November 1989. (i) Intensity of wars from 1816 to 1980, measured as battle deaths per 10,000 of the population of the participating countries. (j) Aggregate net worth in dollars of the richest individuals in the US in October 2003. (k) Frequency of occurrence of family names in the US in the year 1990. (l) Populations of US cities in the year 2000.






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Distributions


## Some examples:


 Earthquake magnitude (Gutenberg-Richter law ): <sup>[8, 1]</sup>  $P(M) \propto M^{-2}$

 # war deaths: <sup>[14]</sup>  $P(d) \propto d^{-1.8}$

 Sizes of forest fires <sup>[7]</sup>

 Sizes of cities: <sup>[15]</sup>  $P(n) \propto n^{-2.1}$

 # links to and from websites <sup>[2]</sup>

 Note: Exponents range in error

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



# Size distributions:

## More examples:

- # citations to papers: <sup>[6, 13]</sup>  $P(k) \propto k^{-3}$ .
- Individual wealth (maybe):  $P(W) \propto W^{-2}$ .
- Distributions of tree trunk diameters:  $P(d) \propto d^{-2}$ .
- The gravitational force at a random point in the universe: <sup>[9]</sup>  $P(F) \propto F^{-5/2}$ . (See the Holtmark distribution ↗ and stable distributions ↗.)
- Diameter of moon craters: <sup>[11]</sup>  $P(d) \propto d^{-3}$ .
- Word frequency: <sup>[15]</sup> e.g.,  $P(k) \propto k^{-2.2}$  (variable).
- # religious adherents in cults: <sup>[5]</sup>  $P(k) \propto k^{-1.8 \pm 0.1}$ .
- # sightings of birds per species (North American Breeding Bird Survey for 2003): <sup>[5]</sup>  
 $P(k) \propto k^{-2.1 \pm 0.1}$ .
- # species per genus: <sup>[17, 15, 5]</sup>  $P(k) \propto k^{-2.4 \pm 0.2}$ .

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



# Table 3 from Clauset, Shalizi, and Newman [5]:

Basic parameters of the data sets described in section 6, along with their power-law fits and the corresponding  $p$ -values (statistically significant values are denoted in **bold**).

Quantity	$n$	$\langle x \rangle$	$\sigma$	$x_{\max}$	$\tilde{x}_{\min}$	$\hat{\alpha}$	$n_{\text{tail}}$	$p$
count of word use	18 855	11.14	148.33	14 086	$7 \pm 2$	1.95(2)	$2958 \pm 987$	<b>0.49</b>
protein interaction degree	1846	2.34	3.05	56	$5 \pm 2$	3.1(3)	$204 \pm 263$	<b>0.31</b>
metabolic degree	1641	5.68	17.81	468	$4 \pm 1$	2.8(1)	$748 \pm 136$	0.00
Internet degree	22 688	5.63	37.83	2583	$21 \pm 9$	2.12(9)	$770 \pm 1124$	<b>0.29</b>
telephone calls received	51 360 423	3.88	179.09	375 746	$120 \pm 49$	2.09(1)	$102 592 \pm 210 147$	<b>0.63</b>
intensity of wars	115	15.70	49.97	382	$2.1 \pm 3.5$	1.7(2)	$70 \pm 14$	<b>0.20</b>
terrorist attack severity	9101	4.35	31.58	2749	$12 \pm 4$	2.4(2)	$547 \pm 1663$	<b>0.68</b>
HTTP size (kilobytes)	226 386	7.36	57.94	10 971	$36.25 \pm 22.74$	2.48(5)	$6794 \pm 2232$	0.00
species per genus	509	5.59	6.94	56	$4 \pm 2$	2.4(2)	$233 \pm 138$	<b>0.10</b>
bird species sightings	591	3384.36	10 952.34	138 705	$6679 \pm 2463$	2.1(2)	$66 \pm 41$	<b>0.55</b>
blackouts ( $\times 10^3$ )	211	253.87	610.31	7500	$230 \pm 90$	2.3(3)	$59 \pm 35$	<b>0.62</b>
sales of books ( $\times 10^3$ )	633	1986.67	1396.60	19 077	$2400 \pm 430$	3.7(3)	$139 \pm 115$	<b>0.66</b>
population of cities ( $\times 10^3$ )	19 447	9.00	77.83	8 009	$52.46 \pm 11.88$	2.37(8)	$580 \pm 177$	<b>0.76</b>
email address books size	4581	12.45	21.49	333	$57 \pm 21$	3.5(6)	$196 \pm 449$	<b>0.16</b>
forest fire size (acres)	203 785	0.90	20.99	4121	$6324 \pm 3487$	2.2(3)	$521 \pm 6801$	0.05
solar flare intensity	12 773	689.41	6520.59	231 300	$323 \pm 89$	1.79(2)	$1711 \pm 384$	<b>1.00</b>
quake intensity ( $\times 10^3$ )	19 302	24.54	563.83	63 096	$0.794 \pm 80.198$	1.64(4)	$11 697 \pm 2159$	0.00
religious followers ( $\times 10^6$ )	103	27.36	136.64	1050	$3.85 \pm 1.60$	1.8(1)	$39 \pm 26$	<b>0.42</b>
freq. of surnames ( $\times 10^3$ )	2753	50.59	113.99	2502	$111.92 \pm 40.67$	2.5(2)	$239 \pm 215$	<b>0.20</b>
net worth (mil. USD)	400	2388.69	4167.35	46 000	$900 \pm 364$	2.3(1)	$302 \pm 77$	0.00
citations to papers	415 229	16.17	44.02	8904	$160 \pm 35$	3.16(6)	$3455 \pm 1859$	<b>0.20</b>
papers authored	401 445	7.21	16.52	1416	$133 \pm 13$	4.3(1)	$988 \pm 377$	<b>0.90</b>
hits to web sites	119 724	9.83	392.52	129 641	$2 \pm 13$	1.81(8)	$50 981 \pm 16 898$	0.00
links to web sites	241 428 853	9.15	106 871.65	1 199 466	$3684 \pm 151$	2.336(9)	$28 986 \pm 1560$	0.00



We'll explore various exponent measurement techniques in assignments.



# power-law size distributions

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Gaussians versus power-law size distributions:

🧱 Mediocristan versus Extremistan

🧱 Mild versus Wild (Mandelbrot)

🧱 Example: Height versus wealth.

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

THE  
BLACK SWAN



The Impact of the  
HIGHLY IMPROBABLE

Nassim Nicholas Taleb

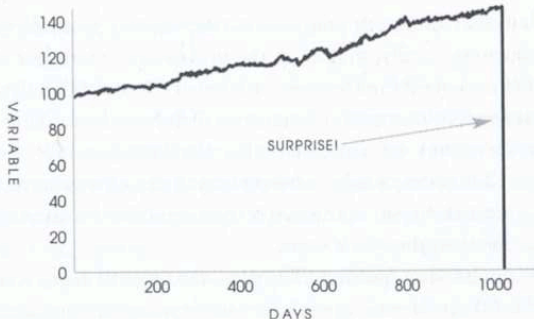
🧱 See "The Black Swan" by Nassim Taleb. <sup>[16]</sup>

🧱 Terrible if successful framing:  
Black swans are not that  
surprising ...



# Turkeys ...

FIGURE 1: ONE THOUSAND AND ONE DAYS OF HISTORY



A turkey before and after Thanksgiving. The history of a process over a thousand days tells you nothing about what is to happen next. This naïve projection of the future from the past can be applied to anything.

- Our Intuition
- Definition
- Examples
- Wild vs. Mild
- CCDFs
- Zipf's law
- Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF
- References



From "The Black Swan" [16]



## Mediocristan/Extremistan

- Most typical member is mediocre/Most typical is either giant or tiny
- Winners get a small segment/Winner take almost all effects
- When you observe for a while, you know what's going on/It takes a very long time to figure out what's going on
- Prediction is easy/Prediction is hard
- History crawls/History makes jumps
- Tyranny of the collective/Tyranny of the rare and accidental

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



# Size distributions:

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions



Power-law size distributions are sometimes called Pareto distributions after Italian scholar Vilfredo Pareto.

- ☰ Pareto noted wealth in Italy was distributed unevenly (80–20 rule; misleading).
- ☰ Term used especially by practitioners of the Dismal Science.

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References




# Devilish power-law size distribution details:


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Power-Law Size  
Distributions


## Exhibit A:


 Given  $P(x) = cx^{-\gamma}$  with  $0 < x_{\min} < x < x_{\max}$ ,  
the mean is ( $\gamma \neq 2$ ):

$$\langle x \rangle = \frac{c}{2 - \gamma} (x_{\max}^{2-\gamma} - x_{\min}^{2-\gamma}).$$

 Mean 'blows up' with upper cutoff if  $\gamma < 2$ .

 Mean depends on lower cutoff if  $\gamma > 2$ .

  $\gamma < 2$ : Typical sample is large.

  $\gamma > 2$ : Typical sample is small.

[Insert question from assignment 2](#) 

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



# And in general ...

## Moments:

- 🧱 All moments depend only on cutoffs.
- 🧱 No **internal scale** that dominates/matters.
- 🧱 Compare to a Gaussian, exponential, etc.

## For many real size distributions: $2 < \gamma < 3$

- 🧱 mean is finite (depends on lower cutoff)
- 🧱  $\sigma^2 =$  variance is 'infinite' (depends on upper cutoff)
- 🧱 Width of distribution is 'infinite'
- 🧱 If  $\gamma > 3$ , distribution is less terrifying and may be easily confused with other kinds of distributions.

Insert question from assignment 3 



Standard deviation is a mathematical convenience:

- 🧱 Variance is nice analytically ...
- 🧱 Another measure of distribution width:

$$\text{Mean average deviation (MAD)} = \langle |x - \langle x \rangle| \rangle$$

- 🧱 For a pure power law with  $2 < \gamma < 3$ :

$\langle |x - \langle x \rangle| \rangle$  is finite.

- 🧱 But MAD is mildly unpleasant analytically ...
- 🧱 We still speak of infinite 'width' if  $\gamma < 3$ .



# How sample sizes grow ...

Given  $P(x) \sim cx^{-\gamma}$ :

- 🧱 We can show that after  $n$  samples, we expect the largest sample to be<sup>1</sup>

$$x_1 \gtrsim c' n^{1/(\gamma-1)}$$

- 🧱 Sampling from a finite-variance distribution gives a much slower growth with  $n$ .
- 🧱 e.g., for  $P(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ , we find

$$x_1 \gtrsim \frac{1}{\lambda} \ln n.$$


[Insert question from assignment 4](#) ↗

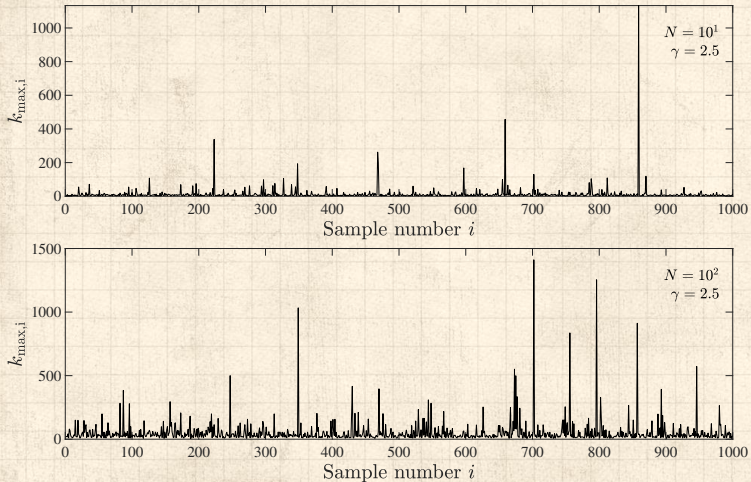
[Insert question from assignment 6](#) ↗

<sup>1</sup>Later, we see that the largest sample grows as  $n^\rho$  where  $\rho$  is the Zipf exponent






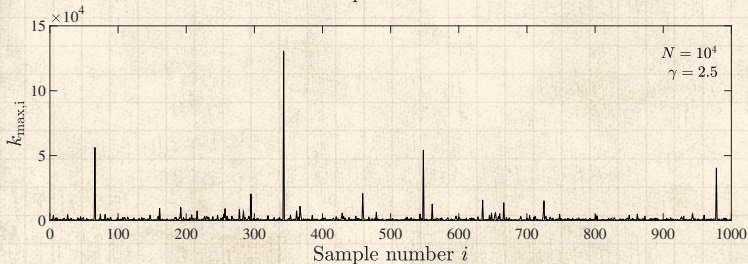
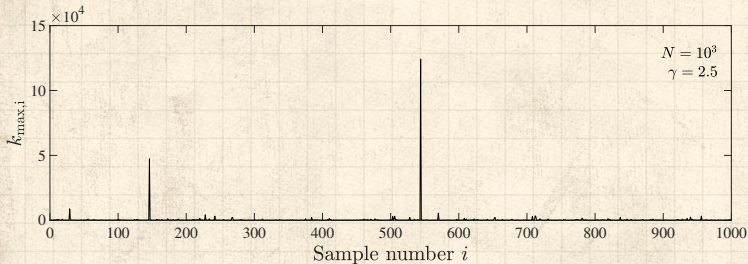
  $\gamma = 5/2$ , maxima of  $N$  samples,  $n = 1000$  sets of samples:



- Our Intuition
- Definition
- Examples
- Wild vs. Mild
- CCDFs
- Zipf's law
- Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF
- References



  $\gamma = 5/2$ , maxima of  $N$  samples,  $n = 1000$  sets of samples:



Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild


CCDFs

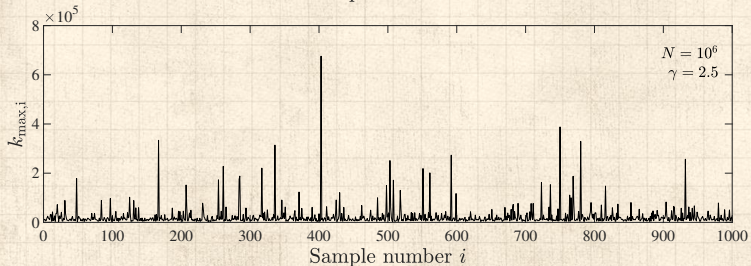
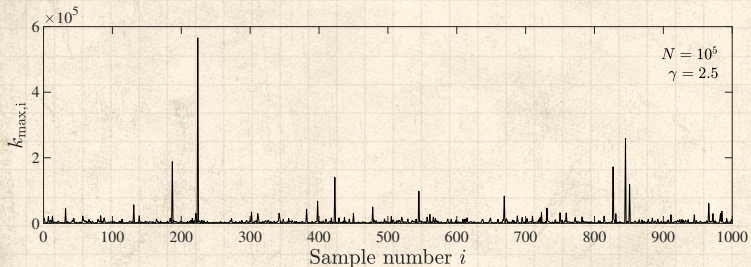
Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



  $\gamma = 5/2$ , maxima of  $N$  samples,  $n = 1000$  sets of samples:



Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild


CCDFs

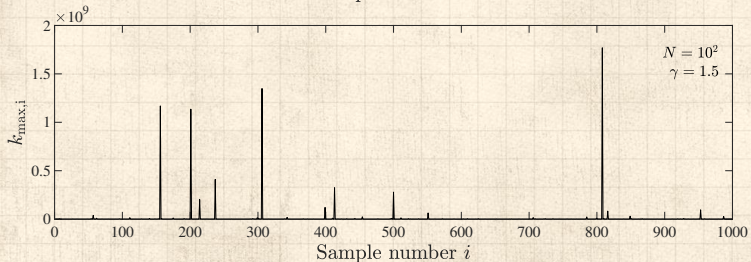
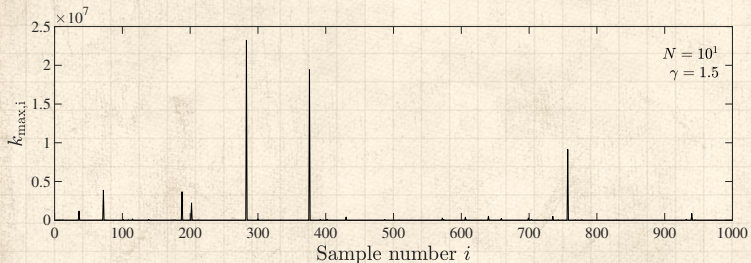
Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



  $\gamma = 3/2$ , maxima of  $N$  samples,  $n = 1000$  sets of samples:



Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild


CCDFs

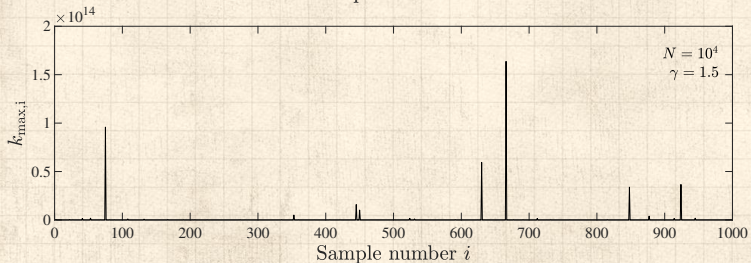
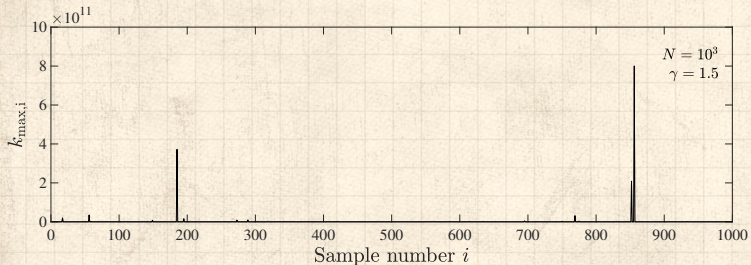
Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



  $\gamma = 3/2$ , maxima of  $N$  samples,  $n = 1000$  sets of samples:



Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild


CCDFs

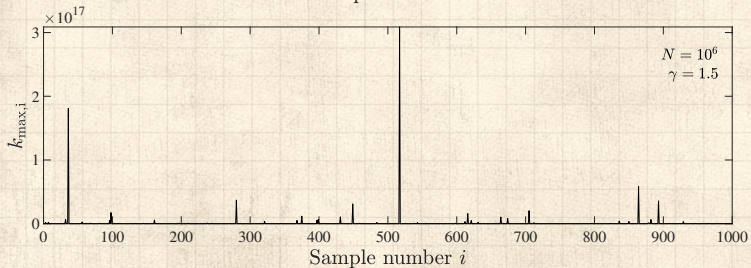
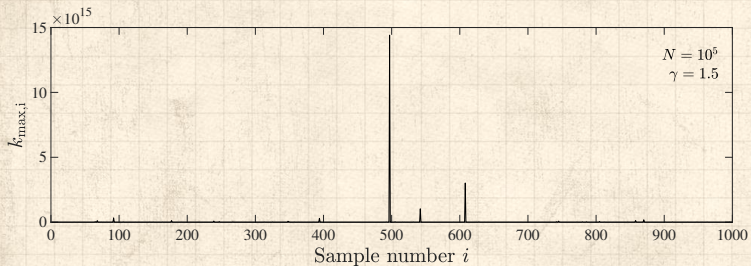
Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



  $\gamma = 3/2$ , maxima of  $N$  samples,  $n = 1000$  sets of samples:



Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

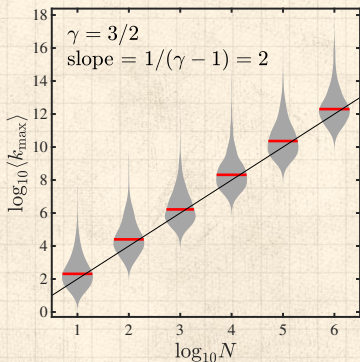
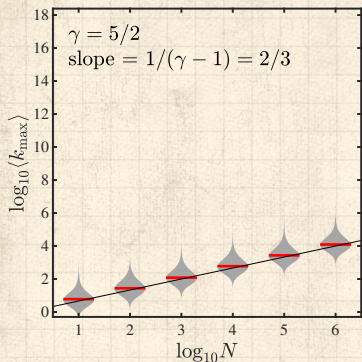
Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References





# Scaling of expected largest value as a function of sample size $N$ :



Fit for  $\gamma = 5/2$ :  $k_{\max} \sim N^{0.660 \pm 0.066}$  (sublinear)



Fit for  $\gamma = 3/2$ :  $k_{\max} \sim N^{2.063 \pm 0.215}$  (superlinear)



## Complementary Cumulative Distribution Function:

### CCDF:



$$P_{\geq}(x) = P(x' \geq x) = 1 - P(x' < x)$$



$$= \int_{x'=x}^{\infty} P(x') dx'$$



$$\propto \int_{x'=x}^{\infty} (x')^{-\gamma} dx'$$



$$= \frac{1}{-\gamma + 1} (x')^{-\gamma+1} \Big|_{x'=x}^{\infty}$$



$$\propto x^{-(\gamma-1)}$$

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References





## Complementary Cumulative Distribution Function:

### CCDF:



$$P_{\geq}(x) \propto x^{-(\gamma-1)}$$



Use when tail of  $P$  follows a power law.



Increases exponent by one.



Useful in cleaning up data.

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

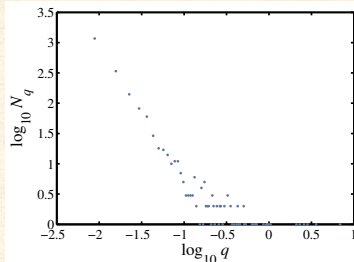
CCDFs

Zipf's law

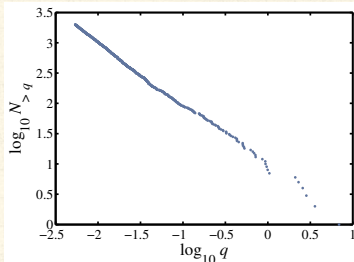
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References

### PDF:




### CCDF:



## Complementary Cumulative Distribution Function:

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions


 Same story for a discrete variable:  $P(k) \sim ck^{-\gamma}$ .



$$P_{\geq}(k) = P(k' \geq k)$$

$$= \sum_{k'=k}^{\infty} P(k')$$

$$\propto k^{-(\gamma-1)}$$

 Use integrals to approximate sums.

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



# The Boggoracle Speaks:

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References




# Zipfian rank-frequency plots

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Power-Law Size  
Distributions

## George Kingsley Zipf:

- Noted various rank distributions have power-law tails, often with exponent  $-1$  (word frequency, city sizes, ...)
- Zipf's 1949 Magnum Opus 

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

- We'll study Zipf's law in depth ...



# Zipfian rank-frequency plots

## Zipf's way:

- Given a collection of entities, rank them by size, largest to smallest.
- $x_r$  = the size of the  $r$ th ranked entity.
- $r = 1$  corresponds to the largest size.
- Example:  $x_1$  could be the frequency of occurrence of the most common word in a text.
- Zipf's observation:

$$x_r \propto r^{-\alpha}$$

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

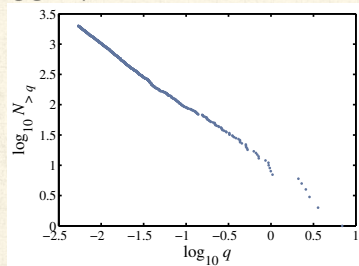




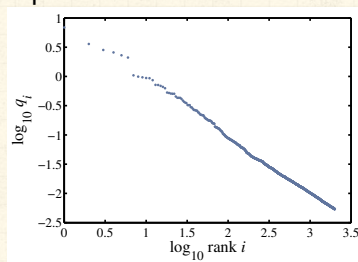
# Size distributions:

Brown Corpus (1,015,945 words):

CCDF:



Zipf:



The, of, and, to, a, ... = 'objects'



'Size' = word frequency



**Beep:** (Important) CCDF and Zipf plots are related

...

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

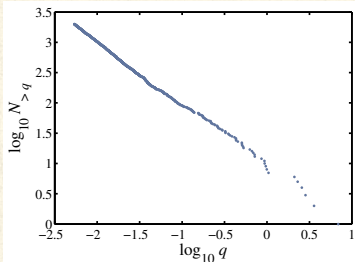
References



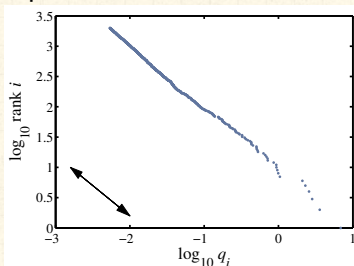
# Size distributions:




Brown Corpus (1,015,945 words):

CCDF:



Zipf:



-  The, of, and, to, a, ... = 'objects'
-  'Size' = word frequency
-  **Beep:** (Important) CCDF and Zipf plots are related


...


Our Intuition  
Definition  
Examples  
Wild vs. Mild  
CCDFs  
Zipf's law  
Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF  
References





## Observe:

  $NP_{\geq}(x)$  = the number of objects with size at least  $x$  where  $N$  = total number of objects.

 If an object has size  $x_r$ , then  $NP_{\geq}(x_r)$  is its rank  $r$ .


 So

$$x_r \propto r^{-\alpha} = (NP_{\geq}(x_r))^{-\alpha}$$

$$\propto x_r^{-(\gamma-1)(-\alpha)} \text{ since } P_{\geq}(x) \sim x^{-(\gamma-1)}.$$

We therefore have  $1 = -(\gamma - 1)(-\alpha)$  or:

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\gamma - 1}$$

 A rank distribution exponent of  $\alpha = 1$  corresponds to a size distribution exponent  $\gamma = 2$ .





## "Zipf's Law in the Popularity Distribution of Chess Openings" ↗

Blasius and Tönjes,  
Phys. Rev. Lett., **103**, 218701, 2009. [3]

Examined all games of varying game depth  $d$  in a set of chess databases.

$n$  = popularity = how many times a specific game path appears in databases.

$S(n; d)$  = number of depth  $d$  games with popularity  $n$ .

Show "the frequencies of opening moves are distributed according to a power law with an exponent that increases linearly with the game depth, whereas the pooled distribution of all opening weights follows Zipf's law with universal exponent."

Propose hierarchical fragmentation model that produces self-similar game trees.



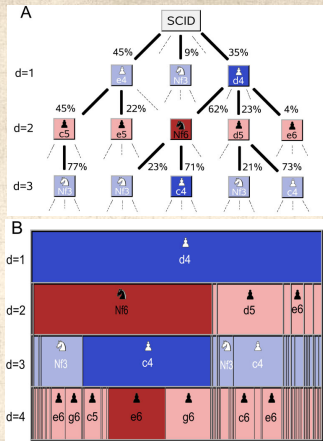


FIG. 1 (color online). (a) Schematic representation of the weighted game tree of chess based on the SCIDBASE [6] for the first three half moves. Each node indicates a state of the game. Possible game continuations are shown as solid lines together with the branching ratios  $r_d$ . Dotted lines symbolize other game continuations, which are not shown. (b) Alternative representation emphasizing the successive segmentation of the set of games, here indicated for games following a 1.d4 opening until the fourth half move  $d = 4$ . Each node  $\sigma$  is represented by a box of a size proportional to its frequency  $n_{\sigma}$ . In the subsequent half move these games split into subsets (indicated vertically below) according to the possible game continuations. Highlighted in (a) and (b) is a popular opening sequence 1.d4 Nf6 2.c4 e6 (Indian defense).

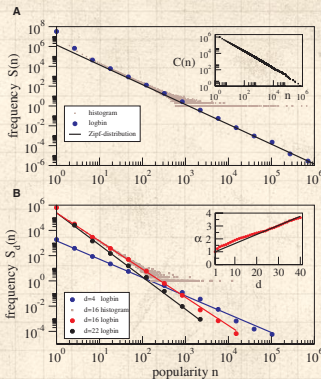
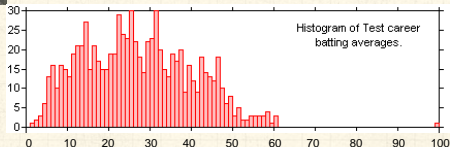


FIG. 2 (color online). (a) Histogram of weight frequencies  $S(n)$  of openings up to  $d = 40$  in the Scid database and with logarithmic binning. A straight line fit (not shown) yields an exponent of  $\alpha = 2.05$  with a goodness of fit  $R^2 > 0.9992$ . For comparison, the Zipf distribution Eq. (8) with  $\mu = 1$  is indicated as a solid line. Inset: number  $C(n) = \sum_{m=n+1}^N S(m)$  of openings with a popularity  $m > n$ .  $C(n)$  follows a power law with exponent  $\alpha = 1.04$  ( $R^2 = 0.994$ ). (b) Number  $S_d(n)$  of openings of depth  $d$  with a given popularity  $n$  for  $d = 16$  and histograms with logarithmic binning for  $d = 4$ ,  $d = 16$ , and  $d = 22$ . Solid lines are regression lines to the logarithmically binned data ( $R^2 > 0.99$  for  $d < 35$ ). Inset: slope  $\alpha_d$  of the regression line as a function of  $d$  and the analytical estimation Eq. (6) using  $N = 1.4 \times 10^6$  and  $\beta = 0$  (solid line).



## Extreme deviations in test cricket:



🧱 Don Bradman's batting average ↗  
= 166% next best.

🧱 That's pretty solid.

🧱 Later in the course: Understanding success—  
is the Mona Lisa like Don Bradman?

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\Leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



A good eye:

PoCS  
@pocsvox  
Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9o6vTXgYdqA?rel=0>



The great Paul Kelly's tribute to the man who was "Something like the tide"



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PoCS  
@pocsvox

Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



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Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law

Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References



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PoCS  
@pocsvox

Power-Law Size  
Distributions

Our Intuition

Definition

Examples

Wild vs. Mild

CCDFs

Zipf's law



Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF

References







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Our Intuition  
Definition  
Examples  
Wild vs. Mild  
CCDFs  
Zipf's law  
Zipf  $\leftrightarrow$  CCDF  
References

