## Lecture 4

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The specific examples I'm discussing are not so important; the point of these first lectures is to illustrate a few of the 100 ideas from STAT134.

### Ideas used in Lecture 3.

- Distributions of max(X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>) and min(X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>)
- Properties of Exponential distribution.
- Basics of conditional probability and conditional expectation.
- Global and local interpretations of density function.
- Calculating  $\mathbb{E}(X|A)$  from conditional distributions.
- Conditional expectation as a random variable.

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### Conditional expectation as a random variable.

Given r.v.'s (W, Y) consider  $\mathbb{E}(W|Y = y)$ . This is a number depending on y – in other words it's a **function** of y. Giving this function a name hwe have

(\*)  $\mathbb{E}(W|Y = y) = h(y)$  for all possible values y of Y.

We now make a notational convention, to rewrite the assertion (\*) as

$$(**) \quad \mathbb{E}(W|Y) = h(Y).$$

The right side is a r.v., so we must regard  $\mathbb{E}(W|Y)$  as a r.v.

[PK] page 60 lists properties of (\*\*), but rather hard to understand at first sight. One important property is that the "law of total probability" becomes

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}(W|Y)] = \mathbb{E}W.$$

I will give three examples to illustrate this notation.

# Example.

First consider

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$
 for i.i.d.  $(\xi_i)$  with  $\mathbb{E}\xi_i = \mu_{\xi}$ .

Then take N a  $\{1, 2, 3, ...\}$ -valued r.v. with  $\mathbb{E}N = \mu_N$ , independent of  $(\xi_i)$ .

What is  $\mathbb{E}S_N$ ?

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 $\mathbb{E}S_n = n\mu_{\xi}.$ 

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$$\mathbb{E}(S_N|N=n)=n\mu_{\xi}.$$

$$\mathbb{E}(S_N|N)=N\ \mu_{\xi}.$$

$$\mathbb{E}S_{N} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}(S_{N}|N)] = \mathbb{E}[N \ \mu_{\xi}] = \mu_{N} \ \mu_{\xi}.$$

### A "geometric probability" example.

Saying that a random point in the plane is **uniform** on a set A is saying that the joint density function of its coordinates (X, Y) is

$$f(x,y) = \frac{1}{\operatorname{area}(A)}, \ (x,y) \in A.$$

Let's do some calculations in the case where A is the top half of the unit disc. In particular, we will calculate  $\mathbb{E}Y$  by first considering  $\mathbb{E}(Y|X)$ .



Conditional distribution of Y given X = x is uniform on  $[0, \sqrt{1-x^2}]$ . So

$$\mathbb{E}(Y|X=x) = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{1-x^2}$$
; that is  $\mathbb{E}(Y|X) = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{1-X^2}$ .

We can now calculate

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}Y &= \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}(Y|X)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\sqrt{1-X^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\int_{-1}^{1}\sqrt{1-x^2} f_X(x)dx \\ &= \pi^{-1}\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x^2)dx \\ &= \frac{4}{3\pi}. \end{split}$$

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### Example: Likelihood of your team winning, at halftime.

Most team sports are decided by point difference – points scored by home team, minus points scored by visiting team. Write

 $X_1 =$  point difference in first half

 $X_2 =$  point difference in second half

so

- home team wins if  $X_1 + X_2 > 0$
- visiting team wins if  $X_1 + X_2 < 0$
- tie if  $X_1 + X_2 = 0$ .

A reasonable probability model assumes

(i)  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are i.i.d. random variables.

If the teams are equally talented, then assume

(ii)  $X_1$  has symmetric distribution, that is the same distribution as  $-X_1$ . Finally, let me simplify the math by making an unrealistic assumption

(iii) the distribution of  $X_1$  is continuous.

So ties cannot happen, and by (ii)  $\mathbb{P}(\text{Home team wins}) = 1/2$ . This is the probability before the game starts. At half time we know the value of  $X_1$ , so there is a conditional probability  $\mathbb{P}(\text{Home team wins } | X_1)$ . This is different in different matches, so we can ask

What is the distribution of  $\mathbb{P}(\text{Home team wins } | X_1)$ ?

First I show some data from baseball.

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In this match the initial "price" (perceived probability of home team winning) was close to 50%, and halfway through the game it was about 64%. I have these "halfway through the game" numbers for 30 matches where the initial "price" was close to 50%



**Figure.** Empirical distribution function for the baseball data, compared with the uniform distribution.

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Write F(x) for the distribution function of each  $X_i$ .

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Home team wins} \mid X_1 = x) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 + X_2 > 0 \mid X_1 = x)$$
$$= \mathbb{P}(X_2 > -x)$$
$$= \mathbb{P}(-X_2 < x)$$
$$= F(x) \text{ by symmetry assumption}$$

and this says

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Home team wins} \mid X_1) = F(X_1).$$

But we know (STAT134) that for  $X_1$  with continuous distribution,  $F(X_1)$  always has Uniform(0, 1) distribution.

The baseball data fits this theory prediction quite well. In a low-scoring sport like soccer the "continuous distribution of  $X_i$ " assumption is not realistic but we could modify the analysis.

#### **Stochastic Processes**

For our purposes a **stochastic process** is just a sequence  $(X_0, X_1, X_2, ...)$  of random variables. The range space of the X's might be the integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  or the reals  $\mathbb{R}$  or some more general space S. We envisage observing some physical process changing with time in some random way:  $X_t$  is the observed value of the process at time t = 0, 1, 2, ... So  $X_0$  is the "initial" value.

Perhaps the simplest example is simple symmetric random walk

$$X_t = \sum_{i=1}^t \xi_i$$

where  $(\xi_i)$  are i.i.d. with  $\mathbb{P}(\xi_i = 1) = \mathbb{P}(\xi_i = -1) = \frac{1}{2}$ . Here  $X_0 = 0$ .

There are many ways to study this process, but I want to illustrate the technique "conditioning on the first step" which will be a fundamental technique for studying Markov chains.

Interpret this process as "gambling at fair odds" – bet 1 unit on an event with probability 1/2, either win or lose the 1 unit. So  $X_t$  is your "fortune" after t bets. Suppose

- start with fortune x
- continue until your fortune reach some target amount K or 0.

There is some probability p(x) that you succeed in reaching K; this probability depends on x and on K, but let us take K as fixed. So we know

$$p(K) = 1; \quad p(0) = 0.$$

What can we say about p(x) for  $1 \le x \le K - 1$ ?

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From the "law of total probability"

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(B)\mathbb{P}(A|B) + \mathbb{P}(B^c)\mathbb{P}(A|B^c)$$

we have

$$\begin{split} \rho(x) &= & \mathbb{P}(\text{ win first bet}) \times \mathbb{P}(\text{ reach } K| \text{ win first bet}) \\ &+ & \mathbb{P}(\text{ lose first bet}) \times \mathbb{P}(\text{ reach } K| \text{ lose first bet}) \end{split}$$

That is,

(\*) 
$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2}p(x+1) + \frac{1}{2}p(x-1), \ 1 \le x \le K-1.$$

This is the simplest case of a **linear difference equation** and the general solution is p(x) = a + bx. Because we know the "boundary conditions" p(0) = 0, p(K) = 1 we can solve to find *a*, *b* and find

$$p(x) = x/K, \ 0 \le x \le K.$$

We can use the same "conditioning on the first step" method to study

$$s(x) = \mathbb{E}($$
number of steps until reach  $K$  or 0 $)$ 

starting from x. Here the equation is

$$s(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{2}s(x+1) + \frac{1}{2}s(x-1), \ 1 \le x \le K - 1$$
$$s(0) = 0, \ s(K) = 0.$$

The general form of solution (see textbook for details) is s(x) = cx(K - x); plugging into the equation gives c = 1, so

$$s(x) = x(K - x), \ 0 \le x \le K.$$

**Conceptual point.** The notion of **independence** is used in two conceptually different ways.

- We often use independence as an **assumption** in a model throwing dice, for instance.
- Given a well-defined math model, events or random variables X, Y either are independent, or are not independent, as a mathematical **conclusion**. For instance, for a uniform random pick of a playing card from a standard deck, the events "card is a King" and "card is a Spade" are independent.

The same point will arise with the Markov property.