

# Lecture Notes week 3

Ömer Şakar

November 29, 2016

## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Lecture 1</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1	Bayes' Rule . . . . .	2
1.1.1	Full Probability Formula . . . . .	2
1.2	A Herding Experiment . . . . .	2
1.3	Genral Cascade Model . . . . .	3
<b>2</b>	<b>Lecture 2 Network Effects</b>	<b>5</b>
2.1	Self-fulfilling expectation . . . . .	6
2.2	A Dynamic View . . . . .	7

# 1 Lecture 1

## 1.1 Bayes' Rule

Given events  $A$  and  $B$ :

**Definition 1.** The Conditional Probability  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$ , with  $P(B) > 0$ .

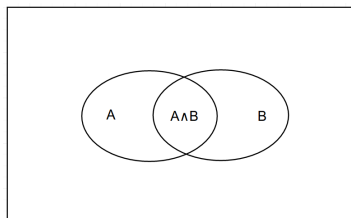


Figure 1: Visual representation of Bayes' Rule

Example: There are 40 Math students of which 15 are girls and there are 50 Computer Science students of which 10 are girls.

Let  $A$  = randomly chosen student is a girl and  $B$  = randomly chosen student is a math student.

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{\frac{15}{90}}{\frac{40}{90}} = \frac{3}{8}$$

And from Bayes' Rule follows  $\Rightarrow P(A \cap B) = P(A|B) \cdot P(B) = P(B|A) \cdot P(A)$ ,  $P(A) > 0$ . Thus we can rewrite it as:

**Definition 2.** The Conditional Probability  $P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B) \cdot P(B)}{P(A)}$ .

### 1.1.1 Full Probability Formula

**Definition 3.**  $P(A) = P(B) \cdot P(A|B) + P(\bar{B}) \cdot P(A|\bar{B})$

Example:  $P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B) \cdot P(B)}{P(A)} = \frac{\frac{40}{90} \cdot \frac{3}{8}}{\frac{25}{90}} = \frac{3}{8}$

## 1.2 A Herding Experiment

Envelope 1 contains 8 red and 4 blue domino pieces (R) and envelope 2 contains 4 red and 8 blue domino pieces (B).

$$P(R) = P(B) = \frac{1}{2}$$

The first person that draws either a red or blue piece.

$$P(R|(saw)blue) = \frac{P(blue|R) \cdot P(R)}{P(blue)}$$

$$P(blue) = P(R) \cdot P(blue|R) + P(B) \cdot P(blue|B) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{4}{12} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{8}{12} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(R|blue) = \frac{\frac{4}{12} \cdot \frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{3} < \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } P(B|blue) = \frac{\frac{8}{12} \cdot \frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{2}{3} > \frac{1}{2}$$

Now lets look at when a second person draws.

**Definition 4.**  $D_i = \{blue\}$  or  $\{red\}$  – what person  $i$  says they saw

**Definition 5.**  $E_i = \{blue\}$  or  $\{red\}$  – what person  $i$  saw

Lets say that the first person says what he sees ( $D_1 = E_1$ )

$$P(B|blue, blue) = \frac{P(B) \cdot P(blue, blue|B)}{P(blue, blue)}$$

$$P(blue, blue) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{5}{18}$$

$$\text{Thus } P(B|blue, blue) = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2}{\frac{5}{18}} = \frac{4}{5} > \frac{1}{2}$$

Conclusion: If  $D_1 = \{blue\}$  and  $E_2 = \{blue\} \implies D_2 = \{blue\}$

$$P(R) = P(B) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(B|blue, red) = \frac{P(B) \cdot P(blue, red|B)}{P(blue, red)} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$D_1 = \{blue\}, E_2 = \{red\} \implies D_2 = \{red\}$$

If your opinions differ (blue, red or red, blue) then you are back at the initial situation. Thus the third person will be equivalent to the first person.

Let  $D_1 = D_2 = \{blue\}$ . If  $E_3 = \{blue\} \implies D_3 = \{blue\}$  If  $E_3 = \{red\}$ , then  $P(R|blue, blue, red) = \frac{P(R) \cdot P(blue, blue, red|R)}{P(blue, blue, red)} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3}} = \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{3} < \frac{1}{2}$ . Thus when  $E_3 = \{red\} \implies D_3 = \{blue\}$ . Now the cascade has started, which also means 4th person  $\equiv$  3rd person.

$$P(B \text{ cascade}|R) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \left(\frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3}\right) \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \left(\frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot 2\right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \dots = \frac{1}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\frac{4}{9}} = \frac{1}{5} \equiv 20\%$$

### 1.3 Genral Cascade Model

Example: Adopting a product

1) Let B be bad and G be good. We estimate  $P(B) = 1 - p$  and  $P(G) = p$ .

2) And let  $v_g$  be if we guess G right and  $v_b$  if we guess B right.

$$v_g \cdot p + v_b \cdot (1 - p) = 0 - \text{Expected Reward. Rewritten it looks like } v_b + (v_g - v_b) \cdot p.$$

It is accepted if  $P(G|signal) > p$  and rejected if  $P(G|signal) < p$ .

3) low(L) and high(H)

	B	G
L	q	1-q
H	1-q	q

Table 1: With  $q > \frac{1}{2}$

$$P(L|B) = q > \frac{1}{2}, P(H|B) = 1 - q. P(L|G) = 1 - q, P(H|G) = q > \frac{1}{2}.$$

$$\text{First person } P(G|H) = \frac{P(H|G) \cdot P(G)}{P(H)} = \frac{p \cdot q}{p \cdot q + (1-p) \cdot (1-q)} > \frac{p \cdot q}{p \cdot q + (1-p) \cdot q} = \frac{p \cdot q}{q} = p$$

$$\text{Thus } E_1 = \{H\} \implies D_1 = \{G\}$$

Let  $a + b$  - person and  $S$  - signal  $a$  times H and  $b$  times L.

$$P(G|S) = \frac{P(S|G) \cdot P(G)}{P(S)} = \frac{p \cdot q^a \cdot (1-q)^b}{p \cdot q^a \cdot (1-q)^b + (1-p) \cdot (1-q)^a \cdot q^b} > \frac{p \cdot q^a \cdot (1-q)^b}{p \cdot q^a \cdot (1-q)^b + (1-p) \cdot q^a \cdot (1-q)^b} = p$$

This is when  $a < b \iff (1-q)^a \cdot q^b > q^a \cdot (1-q)^b$  (because  $q > 1-q$ ).

Thus when  $a < b$ ,  $D = \{B\}$

If  $a > b \iff (1-q)^a \cdot q^b < q^a \cdot (1-q)^b$ . This would result in  $P(G|S) > p \implies D = \{G\}$

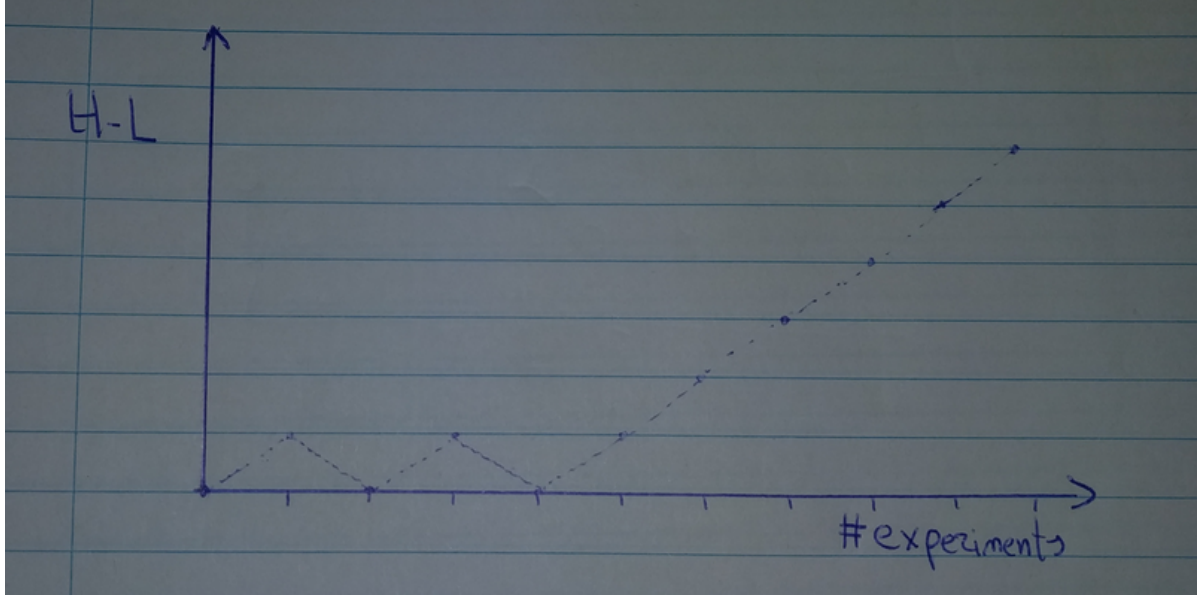


Figure 2: Graph showing cascade with up = H and down = L

## 2 Lecture 2 Network Effects

**Definition 6.** *Externality: welfare affected by actions of others without a "contract" (mutual agreement).*

**Definition 7.** *Interest: reservation price (how much you are willing to pay).*

**Definition 8.** *Consumers: numbers between 0 and 1.*

When  $x < y$ ,  $x$  has a higher reservation price than  $y$ .

**Definition 9.**  $r(x)$ : reservation price where  $0 < x < 1$ .

//TODO picture

**Definition 10.**  $p$ : market price.  $p \geq r(0)$  means nobody buys it and  $p \leq r(1)$  means everybody buys it.

**Definition 11.**  $p^*$ : equilibrium market price.  $x^*$  is chosen such that  $r(x^*) = p^*$  - equilibrium quality.

$x < x^* \implies r(x) > p^* \implies x$  wants to buy.

$y > x^* \implies r(y) < p^* \implies y$  regrets it (downwards implies regret).

**Definition 12.**  $z$ : fraction of the population that uses the product

**Definition 13.**  $r(x)$ : reservation price of  $x \in [0, 1]$

The price  $x$  wants to pay  $p^* = r(x) \cdot f(z)$  (the "new" reservation price).  $f(z)$  is increasing in  $z$ .

$f(0) = 0$  (if nobody uses the product)  $\implies p(0) = r(0) \cdot f(0) = 0$

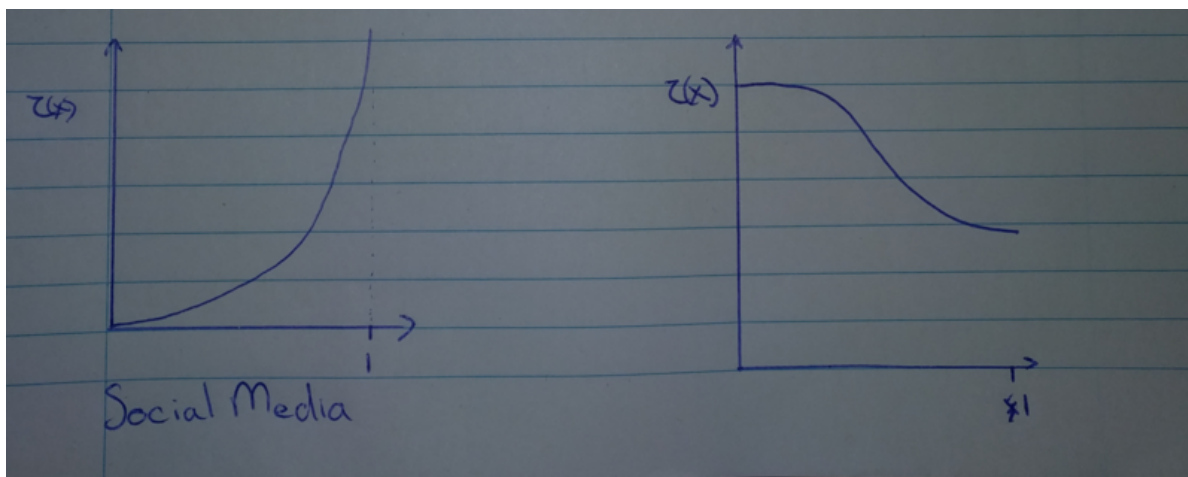


Figure 3: Example for social media

So the customer expects fraction  $z$  and buys the product if  $r(x) \cdot f(z) \geq p^*$  where  $p^*$  is the market price.

## 2.1 Self-fulfilling expectation

If all customers agree that fraction  $f$  will buy the product and behave based on that, then the fraction of people who buys the product will be  $z$ .

How it works:

$$z = 0 : f(0) = 0 \implies \forall x \text{ holds } r(x) \cdot f(0) = 0 \implies z = 0$$

$x' > 0$  buys the product ( $z > 0$ ).  $r(x') \cdot f(z) > p^*$ ,  $r(x)$  is decreasing fraction.

$$x < x' \implies r(x) > r(x') \implies r(x) \cdot f(z) > r(x') \cdot f(z) > p^* \implies x \text{ buys.}$$

Customer  $z$  has lowest intrinsic value  $r(z)$  on  $[0, z]$ .

If  $p^* = f(z) \cdot r(z) \implies$  self-fulfilling expectation.

//TODO picture

Suppose  $p^* = f(z) \cdot r(x)$  for some  $x \implies$  fraction  $x$  will but  $\implies$  actual value for  $x$  is  $f(x) \cdot r(x)$ .  $x < y \implies f(x) \cdot r(x) < p^* \implies x$  paid too much!

If  $p^* = r(z) \cdot f(z)$  ( $\exists z$  (there is always such a  $z$ ))  $\implies z$  buys  $\implies x < z$  also buys  $\implies$  fraction  $z$  will have it.

$z$  is the fraction of the population that uses the product.  $r(x)$  is the intrinsic price of  $x \in [0, 1]$ . The price  $x$  wants to pay  $p(x) = r(x) \cdot f(z)$ , in other words the reservation price.  $p^* = r(z) \cdot f(z)$  is the equilibrium.  $f(0) = 0 \implies p^* = r(0) \cdot f(0) = 0$ , in other words equilibrium.

Example:  $r(x) = 1 - x^2$ ,  $f(z) = z^2$   
 $p^* = r(z) = (1 - z^2) \cdot z^2$

$p^* > \frac{3}{16} \implies$  no solution  
 $p^* < \frac{3}{16} \implies r(z) \cdot f(z)$  has 2 solutions.  
 //TODO 3 pictures

We will look at different cases:

1.  $z = 0$ : This is a stable equilibrium.
2.  $0 < z < z'$ :  $r(z) \cdot f(z) < p^* \implies$  if they have bought it, they regret it (downward pressure).
3.  $z' < z < z''$ :  $r(z) \cdot f(z) > p^* \implies$  more people want the product (upward pressure).
4.  $z > z''$ :  $r(z) \cdot f(z) < p^* \implies$  downwards pressure.

Conclusion: 0 and  $z''$  are stable equilibrium and  $z'$  is a tipping point.

## 2.2 A Dynamic View

x wants to purchase, thus  $r(x) \cdot f(z) \geq p^*$ . We define  $\hat{z}$  as a solution for  $r(\hat{z}) \cdot f(z) = p^*$ . This can be rewritten as  $r(\hat{z}) = \frac{p^*}{f(z)}$ . It holds that when  $r(0) \geq \frac{p^*}{f(z)} \iff$  solution exists. We can also rewrite the formula to  $\hat{z} = r^{-1}(\frac{p^*}{f(z)}) = g(z)$ , ( $\hat{z}$  is the fraction of people that will buy given  $z$  and  $p$ ).

Example:  $r(x) = 1 - x^2$ ,  $f(z) = z^2$ ,  $\hat{z} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{p^*}{z^2}}$ .

If  $z > \sqrt{p^*} \implies \hat{z}$  is defined and if  $z \leq \sqrt{p^*} \implies \hat{z} = 0$ .

$q = r(x) = 1 - x^2 \implies x^2 = 1 - q$

$x = \sqrt{1 - y} = r^{-1}(y)$  Remember that in these cases we have always assumed that  $f(0) = 0$ .

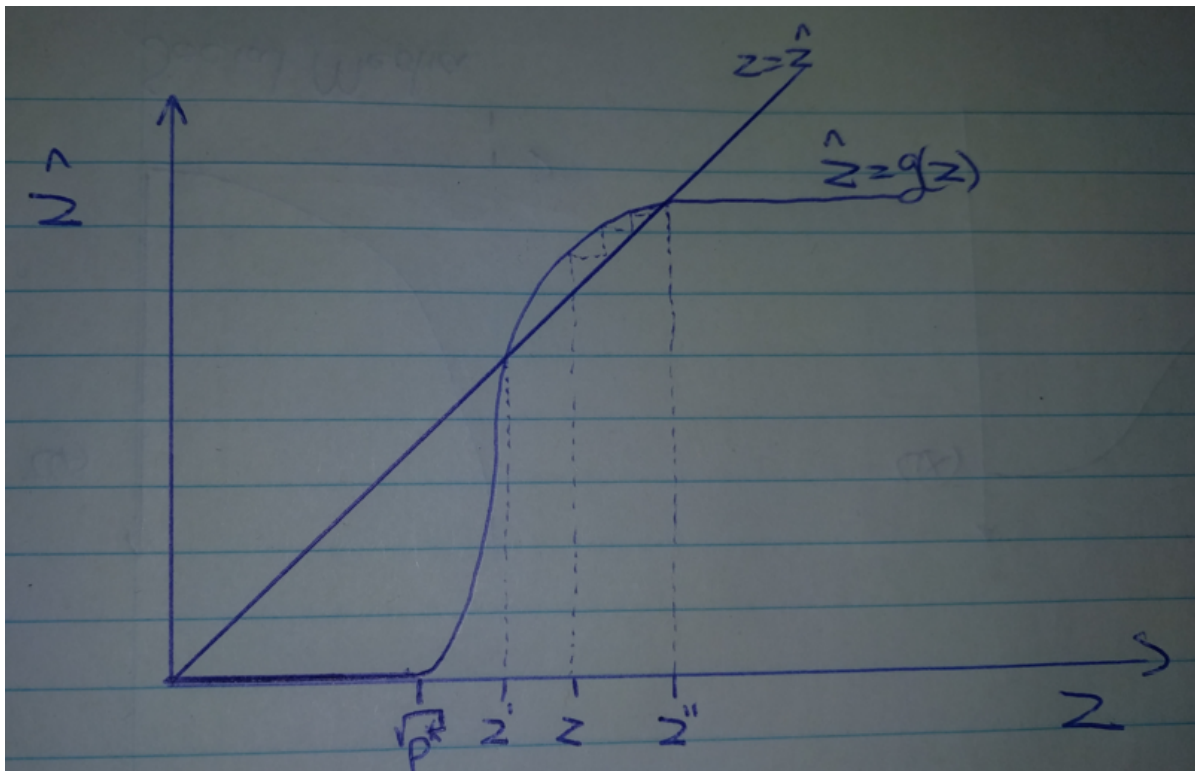


Figure 4:  $\hat{z}$  plotted against  $z$