

# 1 Expected Value and Variance

## 1.1 Conditional Expectation

Recall that if  $X$  is a discrete random variable with PMF  $p$ , and  $B$  is an event with  $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ , then

$$p(x|B) = \frac{p(x)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$$

is a probability distribution on  $B$ . This is the PMF of the random variable  $X$ , given  $B$ .

### Definition 1.1

Let  $X$  be a random variable with PMF  $p$ . Suppose that  $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ . Then, the conditional expectation of  $X$  given  $B$  is

$$\mathbb{E}(X|B) = \sum_x xp(x|B).$$

**Remark:** The situation is similar in the continuous case, but we instead have a conditional PDF

$$f(x|B) = \frac{f(x)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$$

and the conditional expectation is given by

$$\mathbb{E}(X|B) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xp(x|B)dx.$$

### 1.1.1 Law of Total Expectation

Just like how there is a Law of Total Probability, there is also a Law of Total Expectation.

#### Theorem 1.1: Law of Total Expectation

Let  $X$  be a random variable on sample space  $\Omega$ . Suppose that  $B_1, \dots, B_n$  is a partition  $\Omega$ . Then,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X|B_i)\mathbb{P}(B_i).$$

This is useful because, often,  $\mathbb{E}(X)$  is sometimes difficult to find directly. However, if we condition on a well-chosen  $B_i$ , then it becomes manageable.

(Example.) In the gambling game “craps,” a player makes a bet and then rolls a pair of dice. If the sum is 7 or 11, the player wins. If it is 2, 3, or 12, the player loses. If the sum is any other number  $s$ , the player continues to roll until either another  $s$  (they win) or 7 (they lose) occurs (7 is lucky the first time). Now, let  $R$  be the number of rolls in a single game of craps.

1. Find  $\mathbb{E}(R)$ .

1. By the Law of Total Expectation, we have

$$\mathbb{E}(R) = \sum_{x=2}^{12} \mathbb{E}(R|X=x)\mathbb{P}(X=x),$$

where  $X$  is the initial sum. Note that if

$$x \in \{2, 3, 7, 11, 12\},$$

then

$$\mathbb{E}(R|X=x) = 1$$

since the game is immediately over if we get one of those numbers. In particular,

- There is 1 way to get a 2 (11).
- There are 2 ways to get a 3 (12, 21).
- There are 6 ways to get a 7 (16, 61, 25, 52, 43, 34).
- There are 2 ways to get a 11 (56, 65).
- There is 1 way to get a 12 (66).

Hence,

$$\sum_{x \in \{2, 3, 7, 11, 12\}} \mathbb{E}(R|X=x)\mathbb{P}(X=x) = \frac{12}{36}.$$

Now, if

$$x \in \{4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10\},$$

then we can use a similar argument to the one above. For example, when  $x = 4$ , we have 3 ways to get 4 (13, 31, 22). This gives us

$$\mathbb{P}(X=4) = \frac{3}{36}.$$

There are also 6 ways to get 7 (16, 61, 25, 52, 43, 34). Therefore, the number of rolls  $R$ , given that the initial sum is  $X = 4$ , is distributed as  $1 + G$ , where  $G$  is a geometric random variable (where the success is defined by rolling a 4 or 7) with success probability  $p = \frac{9}{36}$ . Note that the 1 is there because of the initial roll of the 4, but then we have to keep rolling. Thus, we get

$$\mathbb{E}(R|X=4)\mathbb{P}(X=4) = \left(1 + \frac{36}{9}\right) \frac{3}{36}.$$

To see how we got  $\left(1 + \frac{36}{9}\right)$ , recall that  $E(X) = \frac{1}{p}$  if  $X$  is Geometric( $p$ ). So, by Linearity of Expectation, we get that the expected value of 1 (so it's 1) plus the expected value of the geometric (so it's  $36/9$ ).

So, by similar reasoning, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(R) &= \frac{12}{36} + \left(1 + \frac{36}{9}\right) \frac{3}{36} + \left(1 + \frac{36}{10}\right) \frac{4}{36} + \left(1 + \frac{36}{11}\right) \frac{5}{36} \\ &\quad + \left(1 + \frac{36}{11}\right) \frac{5}{36} + \left(1 + \frac{36}{10}\right) \frac{4}{36} + \left(1 + \frac{36}{9}\right) \frac{3}{36} = \frac{557}{165} \approx 3.375 \end{aligned}$$

So, on average, we expect a little bit more than 3 and 1/3 rolls of the dice in each of the game of craps.

### 1.1.2 Martingales

Informally, we can think of martingales as random processes that encapsulate the idea of a *fair game*.

#### Definition 1.2

Let  $(X_0, X_1, X_2, \dots)$  be a sequence of random variables and  $\phi$  a function. Let  $M_n = \phi(X_n)$ . The sequence  $(M_0, M_1, M_2, \dots)$  is called a **martingale** (MG) with respect to  $(X_0, X_1, X_2, \dots)$  if, for any  $n$  and any  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ , we have that

$$\mathbb{E}(M_{n+1} - M_n | X_n = x_n, \dots, X_0 = x_0) = 0.$$

**Remark:** If we think of  $M_n$  as the total winnings after  $n$  bets by a gambler, then  $(M_0, M_1, M_2, \dots)$  is a “fair game” in the sense that neither the gambler nor the “house” has an advantage. In other words, after the  $(n+1)$ th game, we would expect no additional gain (hence why this is equal to 0).

#### Theorem 1.2

For any random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , we have that

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

#### Remarks:

- Recall that  $\mathbb{E}(M_{n+1} | X_n, \dots, X_0) = M_n$  for a MG. Then, taking expectations on both sides, it follows that  $\mathbb{E}(M_{n+1}) = \mathbb{E}(M_n)$  for all  $n$ . Hence, for all (deterministic) times  $n \geq 0$ , we have that  $\mathbb{E}(M_n) = \mathbb{E}(M_0)$ .
- These are a powerful tool, which can lead to quick or slick proofs of things that would be computationally challenging otherwise.

(Example.) Recall, from Lecture 1, that Peter and Paul keeps flipping a coin. If it is “Heads,” then Peter wins \$1. Otherwise, Peter loses \$1. Let  $X_i$  be Peter’s winning after the  $i$ th bet. Note that  $X_0 = 0$ .

To see that this is a MG, note that the series of flips are independent. Hence, for any  $n$  and any  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} - X_n | X_n = x_n, \dots, X_1 = x_1) = (1)\frac{1}{2} + (-1)\frac{1}{2} = 0.$$

Recall that  $\mathbb{E}(M_n) = \mathbb{E}(M_0)$  for all (deterministic) times  $n \geq 0$ . However, this is not necessarily true for *random*  $T$ . Hence, we restrict to a special class of random times.

#### Definition 1.3

A time  $T$  is a **stopping time** (ST) if and only if, for any  $n$ , to know if  $T = n$ , we only need to know the values of  $X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n$ . That is, we do not need any information about the future after time  $n$ .

For example, the first time we visit 0 is a ST, but the last time we visit 0 is not (in order for us to know if time  $n$  is 0, we need to know the full history).

#### Theorem 1.3: The Optional Stopping Theorem (OST)

If  $(M_0, M_1, \dots)$  is a MG and  $T$  is a ST, then  $\mathbb{E}(M_T) = \mathbb{E}(M_0)$  if the following conditions are satisfied:

1.  $M_n$  is bounded until time  $T$ , and
2.  $\mathbb{P}(T < \infty) = 1$ .

(Example: Gambler's Ruin). Suppose that Peter currently has \$1. Furthermore, suppose that they play instead with a coin that comes up Heads with probability  $p \neq 1/2$ . What is the probability  $\mathbb{P}(J)$  that Peter wins the "Jackpot" ( $\$N$ ) before going "bust" ( $\$0$ )?

For this biased RW, we know that

$$M_n = (q/p)^{X_n}$$

is a MG, where  $X_n$  is Peter's winnings. Note that here

$$\phi(x) = (q/p)^x.$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(M_{n+1} - M_n | X_n = x_n, \dots, X_1 = x_1) &= (q/p)^{x_n}(q/p - 1)p + (q/p)^{x_n}(p/q - 1)q \\ &= (q/p)^{x_n}[(q - p) + (p - q)] \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Now, let  $T$  be the first time that  $X_n \in \{0, N\}$ . By the OST, we know that

$$q/p = \mathbb{E}(M_T) = 1 \cdot \mathbb{P}(J^C) + (q/p)^N \cdot \mathbb{P}(J).$$

Hence,

$$\mathbb{P}(J) = \frac{(q/p) - q}{(q/p)^N - 1}.$$