FUNDAMENTALS OF QUANTITATIVE MODELING

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Module 3: Probabilistic models



Module 3 content

- What are probabilistic models?
- Random variables and probability distributions -- the building blocks
- Examples of probabilistic models
- Summaries of probability distributions: means, variances and standard deviation
- Special random variables: Bernoulli, Binomial and Normal
- The Empirical Rule

Probabilistic models

- These are models that incorporate random variables and probability distributions
- Random variables represent the potential outcomes of an uncertain event
- Probability distributions assign probabilities to the various potential outcomes
- We use probabilistic models in practice because realistic decision making often necessitates recognizing uncertainty (in the inputs and outputs of a process)

Key features of a probabilistic model

- By incorporating uncertainty explicitly in the model we can measure the uncertainty associated with the outputs, for example by giving a range to a forecast, which is a more realistic goal
- In a business setting incorporating uncertainty is synonymous with understanding and quantifying the risk in a business process, and ideally leads to better management decisions

Oil prices



If you run an energy intensive business, an airline for example, then the price of oil is a key determinant of your profitability



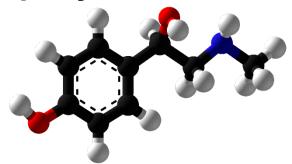
For medium or longterm investment planning (buying new planes) the future price of oil is an important consideration



But who knows the price of oil in ten years? No-one. But we may be able to put a probability distribution around the future price and incorporate the uncertainty into the decision making process

Valuing a drug development company

- A company has 10 drugs in a development portfolio
- Given a drug has been approved, you have predicted its revenue



- But whether a drug is approved or not is an uncertain future event (a random variable). You have estimated the probability of approval
- You only wish to invest in the company if the company's expected total revenue for the portfolio is over \$10B in 5 years time
- You need to calculate the *probability distribution* of the total revenue to understand the investment risk

Some examples of probabilistic models

- **Regression models** (module 4)
- Probability trees
- Monte Carlo simulation
- Markov models

Regression models

- $E(Price | Carats) = -259.6 + 3721 \times Carats$
- The gray band gives a prediction interval for the price of a diamond taken from this population

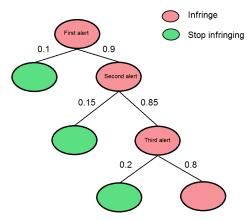


Regression models

- Regression models use data to estimate the relationship between the mean value of the outcome(Y) and a predictor variable(X)
- The intrinsic variation in the raw data is incorporated into forecasts from the regression model
- The less noise in the underlying data the more precise the forecasts from the regression model will be

Probability trees

 Probability trees allow you to propagate probabilities through a sequence of events



• P(Stop infringing) = $0.1 + 0.9 \times 0.15 + 0.9 \times 0.85 \times 0.2 = 0.388$.

Monte Carlo simulation

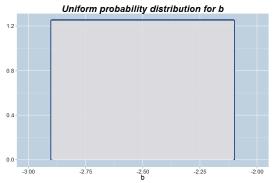
- From the demand model: Quantity = $60,000 \text{ Price}^{-2.5}$
- The optimal price was $p_{opt} = \frac{c \ b}{1+b}$, where b = -2.5, c is the cost, c = 2, and $p_{opt} \approx 3.33$
- But what if b is not known exactly?
- Monte Carlo simulation replaces the number -2.5 with a random variable, and recalculates p_{opt} using different realizations of this random variable from some stated probability distribution

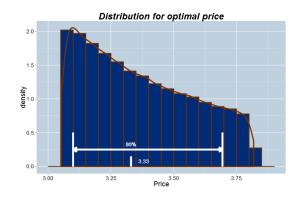
Input and output from a MC simulation

 Input: b from a uniform distribution between -2.9 and -2.1



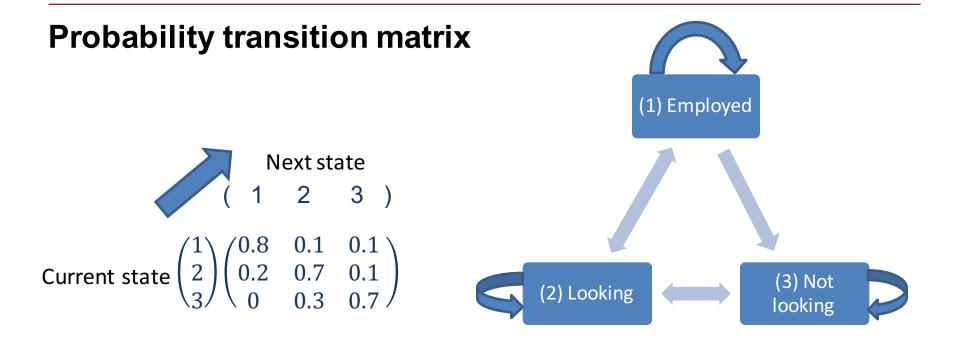
- 100,000 replications
- Interval = (3.1,3.7)





Markov chain models

- Dynamic models for discrete time state space transitions
- Example: employment status (the state of the chain)
- Treat time in 6 month blocks
- Model states:
 - 1. Employed
 - 2. Unemployed and looking
 - 3. Unemployed and not looking



Markov property (lack of memory): transition probabilities only depend on the current state, not on prior states. Given the present, the future does not depend on the past

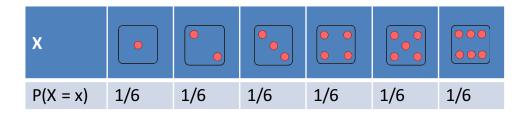
Building blocks of probability models

- Random variables (discrete and continuous)
- Probability distributions
- Random variables represent the potential outcomes of an uncertain event
- Probability distributions assign probabilities to the various potential outcomes

A discrete random variable

Roll a fair die



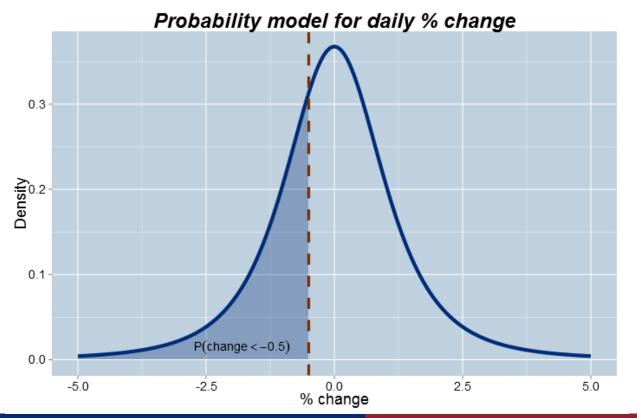


- Probabilities lie between 0 and 1 inclusive
- Probabilities add to 1

A continuous random variable

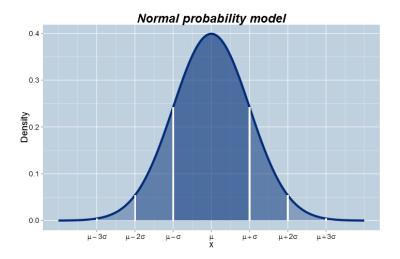
- The *percent change* in the S&P500 stock index tomorrow: 100 × $\frac{p_{t+1}-p_t}{p_t}$ where p_t is the closing price on day t
- It can potentially take on any number between -100% and infinity
- For a continuous random variable probabilities are computed from areas under the *probability density* function

Probability distribution of S&P500 daily % change



Key summaries of probability distributions

- Mean (µ) measures centrality
- Two measures of spread:
 - Variance (σ^2)
 - Standard deviation (σ)



The Bernoulli distribution

The random variable X takes on one of two values:

$$- P(X = 1) = p$$

 $- P(X = 0) = 1-p$

 Often viewed as an experiment that takes on two outcomes, success/failure. Success = 1 and failure = 0

•
$$\mu = E(X) = 1 \times p + 0 \times (1 - p) = p$$

•
$$\sigma^2 = E(X - \mu)^2 = (1 - p)^2 p + (0 - p)^2 (1 - p) = p(1 - p)$$

•
$$\sigma = \sqrt{p(1-p)}$$

• For p = 0.5, μ = 0.5, σ^2 = 0.25 and σ = 0.5

Example: drug development

Will a drug under development be approved?

•
$$X = \begin{cases} Yes = 1 \\ No = 0 \end{cases}$$

- P(X = Yes) = 0.65
- P(X = No) = 0.35
- If drug is approved then the projected revenue is \$500m, 0 otherwise
- Expected(Revenue) = $$500m \times 0.65 + $0 \times 0.35 = $325m$

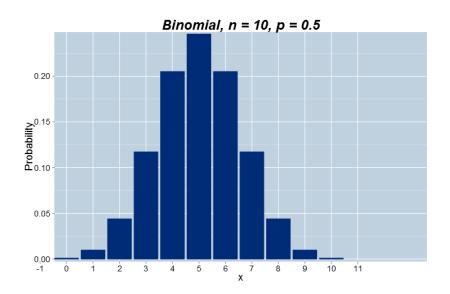
The Binomial distribution

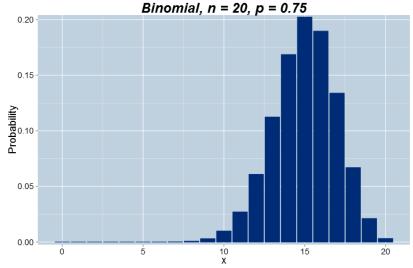
- A Binomial random variable is the number of success in n
 independent Bernoulli trials
- Independent means that P(A and B) = P(A) × P(B)
- Independence means that knowing that A has occurred provides no information about the occurrence of B
- Independence is a common simplifying assumption in many probability models and makes their construction and subsequent calculations much easier

The Binomial distribution

- Example: toss a fair coin 10 times and count the number of heads (call this X)
- Then X has a Binomial distribution with parameters n = 10 and p = 0.5.
- In general: $P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 p)^{n-x}$, where $\binom{n}{x}$ is the binomial coefficient: $\frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!}$
- $\mu = E(X) = np, \sigma^2 = E(X \mu)^2 = np(1 p)$

Binomial probability distributions

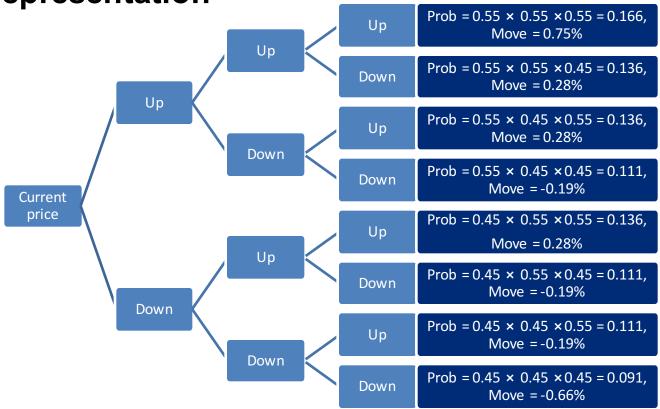




Example: Binomial models for markets (oil for example)

- Assume that the market either goes up or down each day
- It goes up u% with probability p and down d% with probability 1-p
- Assume days are independent
- Example: p = 0.55, 1 p = 0.45, u = 0.25%, d = 0.22%
- Take a time horizon of 3 days
- There are 8 possible outcomes:
 - {UUU},{UUD},{UDD},{DUD},{DUD},{DDD},
- For each outcome there will be an associated market move. For example, if we see (U,U,U) then the market goes up by a factor of 1.0025 × 1.0025 × 1.0025 = 1.007519, that is a little over ¾ of a percent.

Tree representation



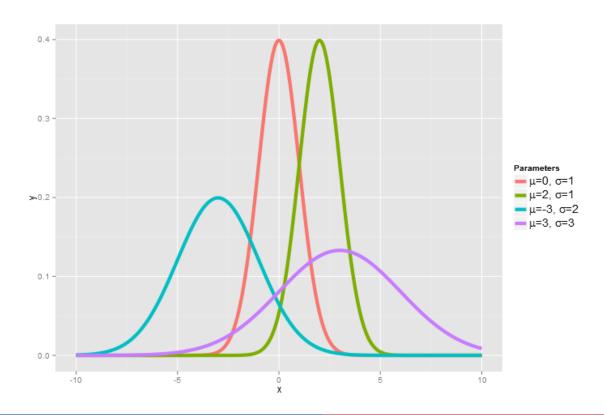
The Normal distribution

- The Normal distribution, colloquially known as the *Bell Curve*, is the most important modeling distribution
- Many disparate processes can be well approximated by Normal distributions
- There are mathematical theorems (the Central Limit Theorem) that tell us Normal distributions should be expected in many situations
- A Normal distribution is characterized by its mean μ and standard deviation σ . It is symmetric about its mean

Examples

- There is a *universality* to the Normal distribution
 - Biological: heights and weights
 - Financial: stock returns
 - Educational: exam scores
 - Manufacturing: the length of an automotive component
- It is therefore often used as a distributional assumption in Monte Carlo simulations (knowing the mean and standard deviation is enough to define a Normal distribution)

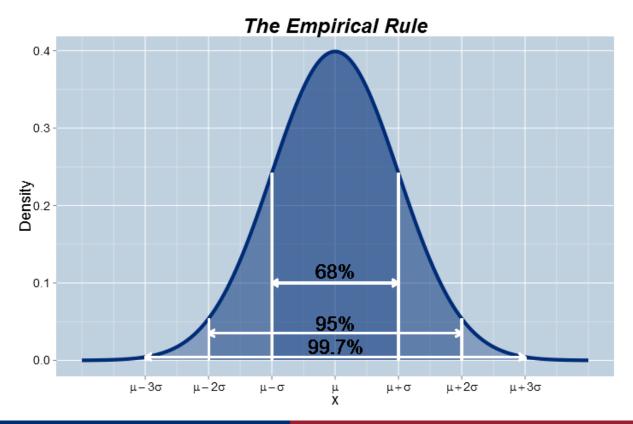
Plots of various Normal distributions



The Empirical Rule

- The Empirical Rule is a rule for calculating probabilities of events when the underlying distribution or observed data is approximately Normally distributed
- It states
 - There is an approximate 68% chance that an observation falls within one standard deviation from the mean
 - There is an approximate 95% chance that an observation falls within two standard deviations from the mean
 - There is an approximate 99.7% chance that an observation falls within three standard deviations from the mean

The Empirical Rule illustrated



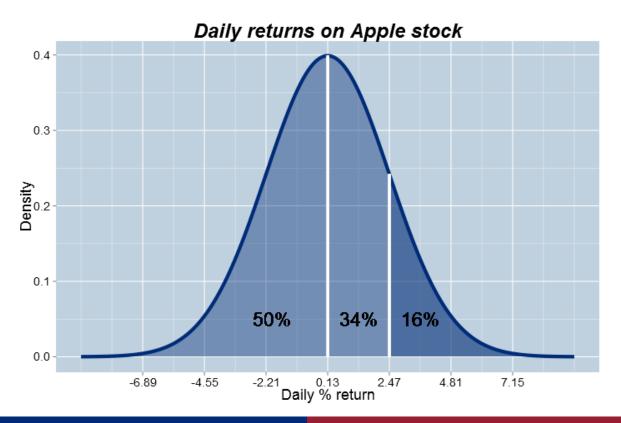
Empirical Rule example

- Assume that the daily **return** on Apple's stock is approximately Normally distributed with mean μ = 0.13% and σ = 2.34%
- What is the probability that tomorrow Apple's stock price increases by more than 2.47%?
- Technique: count how many standard deviations 2.47% is away from the mean, 0.13%. Call this *counter* the *z-score*

$$Z = \frac{2.47 - 0.13}{2.34} = 1$$

So, from the Empirical Rule the probability equals approximately
 16%

Illustrating the answer



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