

5/23/19

Lecture 16

Clinical Trial ex:

$(n_c + n_T)$  people (a) who are similar in all relevant ways to (population  $P$ ) = {all adult patients with disease A}

and (b) who consent to participate in your clinical trial are randomized,  $n_c$  to (the control group) (c) and  $n_T$  to (the treatment group) (T)

Outcome of interest is dichotomous:

1 = disease went into remission (success)

0 = didn't (failure)

Let  $\theta$  be the proportion of successes you would have seen if you could have put (everybody in P) into your treatment group;  $\theta$  is unknown.

Let  $S_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if patient } i \text{ in the actual T group had a success} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Then the rvs ( $S_i | \theta$ ) are IID Bernoulli( $\theta$ ) and the rv  $S = \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} S_i$  has a conditionally Binomial dist:

$$(S | \theta) \sim \text{Binomial}(n_T, \theta)$$

It's meaningful to talk about the conditional expectation r.v.  $E(S | \theta) = n_T \theta$  (a linear function of  $\theta$ ), and using Bayes' Theorem - it's even more meaningful to talk about the conditional expectation r.v.  $E(\theta | S)$  and the constant  $E(\theta | S=s)$ .

Important consequence of the def. of conditional expectation

Remember the Law of Total Probability (LTP)

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(B_i) P(A|B_i)$$

Continuous version of LTP

$X, Y$  continuous rv for which all named densities exist

$$f_{\underline{Y}}(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\underline{X}}(x) \cdot f_{\underline{Y}|\underline{X}}(y|x) dx$$

$\uparrow$   
 $P(A)$

$$\text{By def. } E(\underline{Y}|x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_{\underline{Y}|\underline{X}}(y|x) dy$$

$$E(\underline{Y}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_{\underline{Y}}(y) dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\underline{X}}(x) f_{\underline{Y}|\underline{X}}(y|x) dx \right] dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\underline{X}}(x) \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_{\underline{Y}|\underline{X}}(y|x) dy \right] dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\underline{X}}(x) \cdot E(\underline{Y}|x) dx \quad \textcircled{*}$$

if ok to  
interchange  
order of  
integration

{Weighted average of  $E(\underline{Y}|x)$  with  $f_{\underline{X}}(x)$  as the weights}

Recall that for any continuous rv  $\underline{W}$

$$E(\underline{W}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w \cdot f_{\underline{W}}(w) dw \quad \text{and}$$

$$E[h(\underline{W})] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(w) f_{\underline{W}}(w) dw \quad (\text{LOTUS})$$

So  $\textcircled{*}$  is just  $E_{\bar{X}}[E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})]$  and we have shown  
that  $E(\bar{Y}) = E_{\bar{X}}[E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})]$

(Part 1 of the double expectation theorem)

$\bar{X}, \bar{Y}$  r.v.s such that  $f_{\bar{Y}|\bar{X}}(y|\bar{x})$  exists  $\rightarrow$  it makes  
sense to speak not only of  $E(\bar{Y}|\bar{x})$ , the mean  
of  $f_{\bar{Y}|\bar{X}}(y|\bar{x})$ , but also of the variance of that  
dist.

Def: The  $\# v(\bar{Y}|\bar{x}) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} E_{\bar{X}}[[\bar{Y} - E(\bar{Y}|\bar{x})]^2 | \bar{x}] = g(x)$   
is called the conditional variance of  $\bar{Y}$  given  $\bar{X}=x$ ,  
and the  $v(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})$  is just  $g(\bar{X})$ , the conditional  
variance of  $\bar{Y}$  given  $\bar{X}$

Thm:  $\bar{X}, \bar{Y}$  related w.

Want to use some function  $\hat{Y} = d(\bar{X})$  to predict  $\bar{Y}$   
from  $\bar{X} \rightarrow$  the prediction  $\hat{Y} = d(\bar{X})$  that minimizes  
the MSE  $E(\bar{Y} - \hat{Y})^2 = E\{[\bar{Y} - d(\bar{X})]^2\}$  is  
 $\hat{Y} = d(\bar{X}) = E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})$ , the conditional expectation of  
 $\bar{Y}$  given  $\bar{X}$ .

Part 2 of the double expectation theorem

$\bar{X}, \bar{Y}$  r.v. such that all of the following expressions  
exist  $\rightarrow V(\bar{Y}) = E_{\bar{X}}[v(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})] + V_{\bar{X}}[E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})]$

Imagine a 2-part game:  
Stage 1: Predict  $\bar{Y}$  without knowing  $\bar{X}$   
 if you buy into MSE as your measure of "goodness" of a prediction, we know that you should predict

$$\frac{1}{n} \bar{Y} = \mu_{\bar{Y}} = E(\bar{Y}) \text{ and your resulting MSE will be}$$

$$E[(\bar{Y} - \mu_{\bar{Y}})^2] = V(\bar{Y}) = \sigma_{\bar{Y}}^2$$

Stage 2: Observe  $\bar{X}$ , now predict  $\bar{Y}$

$$\text{Say } \hat{Y} = x^*$$

Then we know the MSE-optimal prediction is

$$\hat{Y}_{\bar{X}=x^*} = E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X}=x^*) \text{ and your resulting MSE will be } E\{\bar{Y} - E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X}=x^*)\}^2 = V(\bar{Y}|x^*) \quad (**)$$

From the vantage point of someone thinking about stage 2 before it happens,  $\bar{X}$  is not yet known, so the expected value of  $(**)$ , namely  $E_{\bar{X}}[V(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})]$ , is the best you can do to guess at how good the stage 2 prediction will be.

The 2nd part of the double expectation theorem says

$$V(\bar{Y}) = E_{\bar{X}}[V(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})] + V_{\bar{X}}[E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})]$$

$$\begin{matrix} \text{MSE } \bar{Y} \\ \text{of } \bar{Y} \end{matrix} \uparrow \quad \text{"E(MSE)" of } \hat{Y}_{\bar{X}} = E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})$$

But since variances are always non-negative,

$$V_{\bar{X}}[E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})] \geq 0 \text{ so}$$

$$E_{\bar{X}}[V(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})] + V_{\bar{X}}[E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})] \geq E_{\bar{X}}[V(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})] \underbrace{}_{\text{MSE of } \hat{Y}_{\bar{X}}} \geq \text{"E(MSE)" of } \hat{Y}_{\bar{X}}$$

Thus you always expect your predictive accuracy to get better (or at least stay the same) when you use  $E(\bar{Y}|\bar{X})$  to predict  $\bar{Y}$

## Utility

Q: How to take action sensibly when the consequences are uncertain?

A: There is a theory of optimal action under uncertainty — called Bayesian decision theory — a concept called utility

The theory takes its simplest form when comparing gambles.

Ex:  $\bar{X}$  has discrete pmf  $f_{\bar{X}}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & x = -\$350 \\ \frac{1}{2} & x = +\$500 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$   
Suppose  $\bar{X}$  = your net gain from gamble A

$\bar{Y}$  has discrete pmf  $f_{\bar{Y}}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{3} & y = \$400 \\ \frac{1}{3} & y = \$50 \\ \frac{1}{3} & y = \$60 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$   
and  $\bar{Y}$  = your net gain from gamble B  
Is A better than B?

Turns out that  $E(\bar{X}) = \$75$ ,  $E(\bar{Y}) = \$50$

Note that with B you're supposed to win at least \$40 while A has no such guarantee.

Is A still automatically better for you than B?

A risk-averse person would grab B quickly  
A risk-seeking person would probably pick A

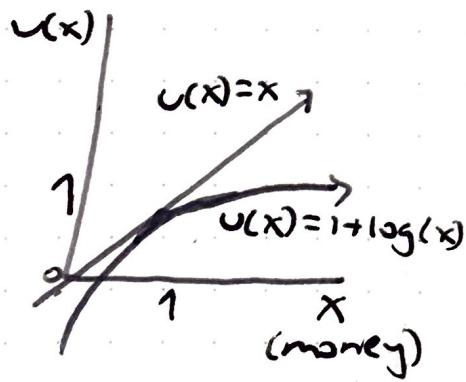
Your utility function  $U(x)$  is that function which assigns to each possible net gain  $-\infty < x < \infty$  a real #  $U(x)$  representing the value to you of gaining  $x$ .

Q: If  $x$  is money, why not just use  $U(x) = x$ ?

Daniel Bernoulli: If your entire net worth is (say) \$10, then the value to you of a \$1 is much greater than if your entire net worth is (say) \$1,000,000.

Thus, the utility of money is sublinear (meaning that it doesn't grow with  $x$  as fast as  $f(x) = x$  does).

Daniel B proposed this sublinear function for utility, namely  $U(x) = 1 + \log(x)$  for  $x > 0$ .



### Principle of Expected Utility Maximization

Def: You are said to choose between gambles by maximizing expected utility (MEU) if, with  $U(x)$  your utility function,

- (a) you prefer gamble  $\bar{X}$  to gamble  $\bar{Y}$  if  $E[U(\bar{X})] > E[U(\bar{Y})]$

(b) you're indifferent between  $\bar{X}$  and  $\bar{Y}$  if  
 $E[u(\bar{X})] = E[u(\bar{Y})]$

Thm: Under 4 reasonable axioms, MEU is the best you can do.

Ex: Suppose you bought a single \$2 ticket in the Powerball lottery in Take Home Test problem 2: the drawing on July 30, 2016 for which the Grand Prize was \$487 million.

Let  $\bar{X}$  be the unknown amount you will win (thinking about  $\bar{X}$  before the drawing)

(Recall the table from the test)

$\bar{X}$  has 9 possible values  $x$ .

$$\text{so } E(\bar{X}) = \sum_{\substack{911 \\ 9 \text{ possibilities}}} x \cdot P(\bar{X} = x) = \$1.99$$

Q: Before the drawing, someone offers you  $\$x_0$  for your ticket, should you sell?

A: With  $u(x)$  as your utility function, your expected gain if you keep the ticket is  $E[u(\bar{X})]$

If for you  $u(x) = x$  (utility  $\hat{=}$  money) then  
 $E[u(\bar{X})] = \$1.99$

Action 1: (sell) you gain  $\$x_0$  for sure

Action 2: (keep) Your expected utility is

$$E[u(\bar{x})]$$

Under MEU, you should sell if  $u(x_0) > E[u(\bar{x})]$

If  $u(x) = x$  for you then your optimal action is  
(sell if offered more than \$1.99)

Diff problem:

On Jan. 13, 2016 during the Powerball jackpot was  
\$1.6 billion

$\bar{X}$  = your winnings (uncertain before the drawing)

$$E(\bar{X}) = \$5.80 \text{ on a } \$2 \text{ ticket}$$

Q: If  $u(x) = x$  for you, is it rational under MEU  
to sell all your assets and buy as many lottery  
tickets as possible?

A: Yes, but that's a silly utility function; to be  
realistic you'd have to subtract from  $x$  the  
monetary value (cost) to you of the disruption  
of your life that would ensue with action

### A catalog of useful distributions (DS Ch. 5)

Case 1: Discrete

$\bar{X} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\rho)$ ,  $0 < \rho < 1$  if  $f_{\bar{X}}(x) = \rho^x (1-\rho)^{1-x} I_{\{0,1\}}(x)$

$$f_{\bar{X}}(x) = \begin{cases} \rho & \text{for } x=1 \\ 1-\rho & \text{for } x=0 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Support}(\bar{X})$$

$$E(\bar{X}) = \rho$$

$$V(\bar{X}) = \rho(1-\rho)$$

$$\Psi_{\bar{X}}(t) = \rho e^t + (1-\rho) \quad \text{for all } -\infty < t < \infty$$

$$SD(\bar{X}) = \sqrt{\rho(1-\rho)}$$