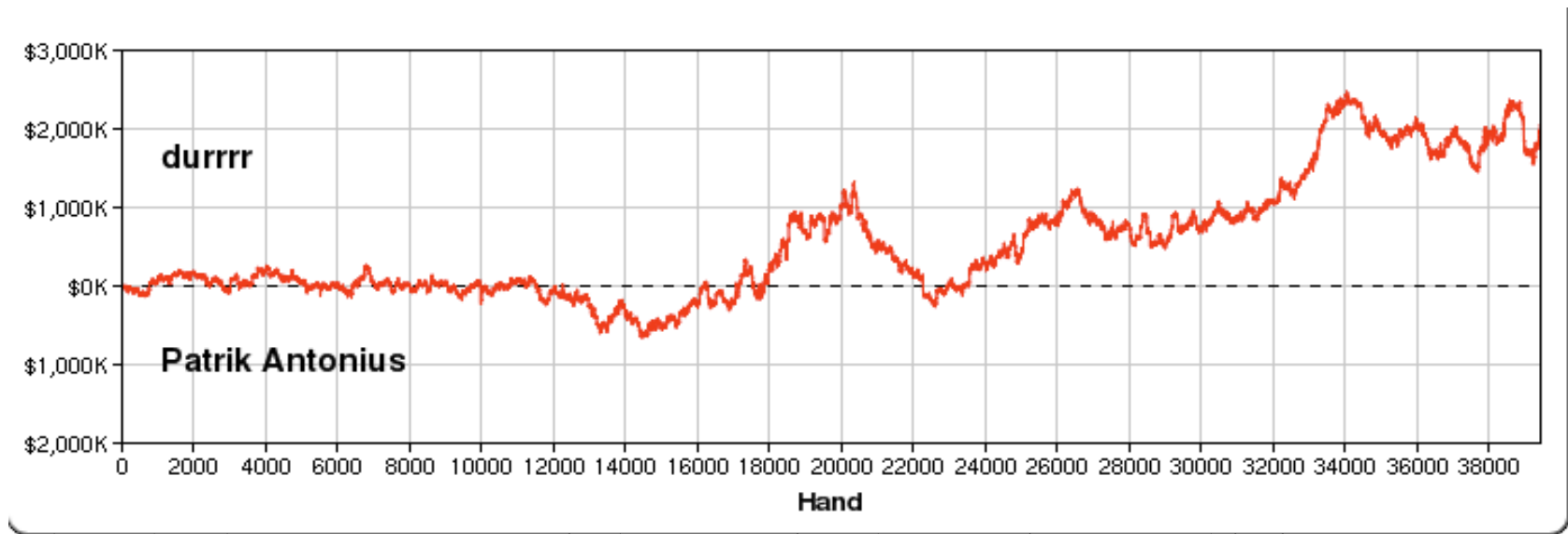


Stat 100a: Introduction to Probability.

Outline for the day

1. Sample size, and a quick fact about normals.
2. Random walks.
3. Reflection principle.
4. Ballot theorem.
5. Avoiding zero.
6. Chip proportions and induction.
7. Doubling up.

The range $\bar{X}_n \pm 1.96 (\sigma/\sqrt{n})$ is a 95% confidence interval for μ . $1.96 (\sigma/\sqrt{n})$
(from fulltiltpoker.com:)



Based on the data, can we conclude Dwan is a better player? Is his longterm avg. $\mu > 0$?

Over these 39,000 hands, Dwan profited \$2 million. \$51/hand. sd \sim \$10,000.

95% CI for μ is $\$51 \pm 1.96 (\$10,000 / \sqrt{39,000}) = \$51 \pm \$99 = (-\$48, \$150)$.

Results are inconclusive, even after 39,000 hands!

Sample size calculation. How many more hands are needed?

If Dwan keeps winning \$51/hand, then we want n so that the margin of error = \$51.

$1.96 (\sigma/\sqrt{n}) = \51 means $1.96 (\$10,000) / \sqrt{n} = \51 , so $n = [(1.96)(\$10,000)/(\$51)]^2 \sim 148,000$, so about 109,000 *more* hands.

A fact about normals.

If X and Y are independent and both are normal, then $X+Y$ is normal, and so are $-X$ and $-Y$.

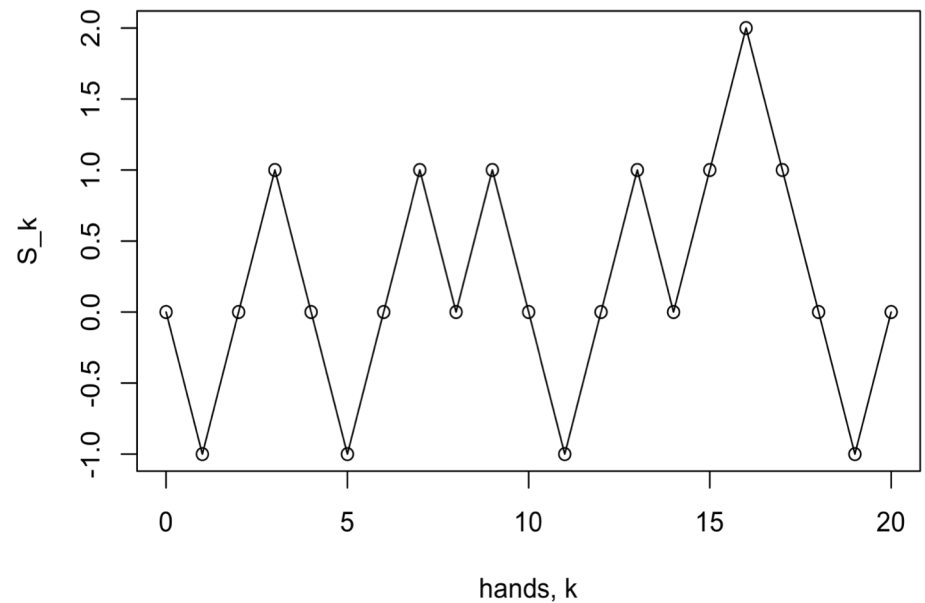
2. Random walks, ch. 7.6.

Suppose that X_1, X_2, \dots , are iid,

and $S_k = X_0 + X_1 + \dots + X_k$ for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

The totals $\{S_0, S_1, S_2, \dots\}$ form a random walk.

The classical (*simple*) case is when each X_i is 1 or -1 with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ each.



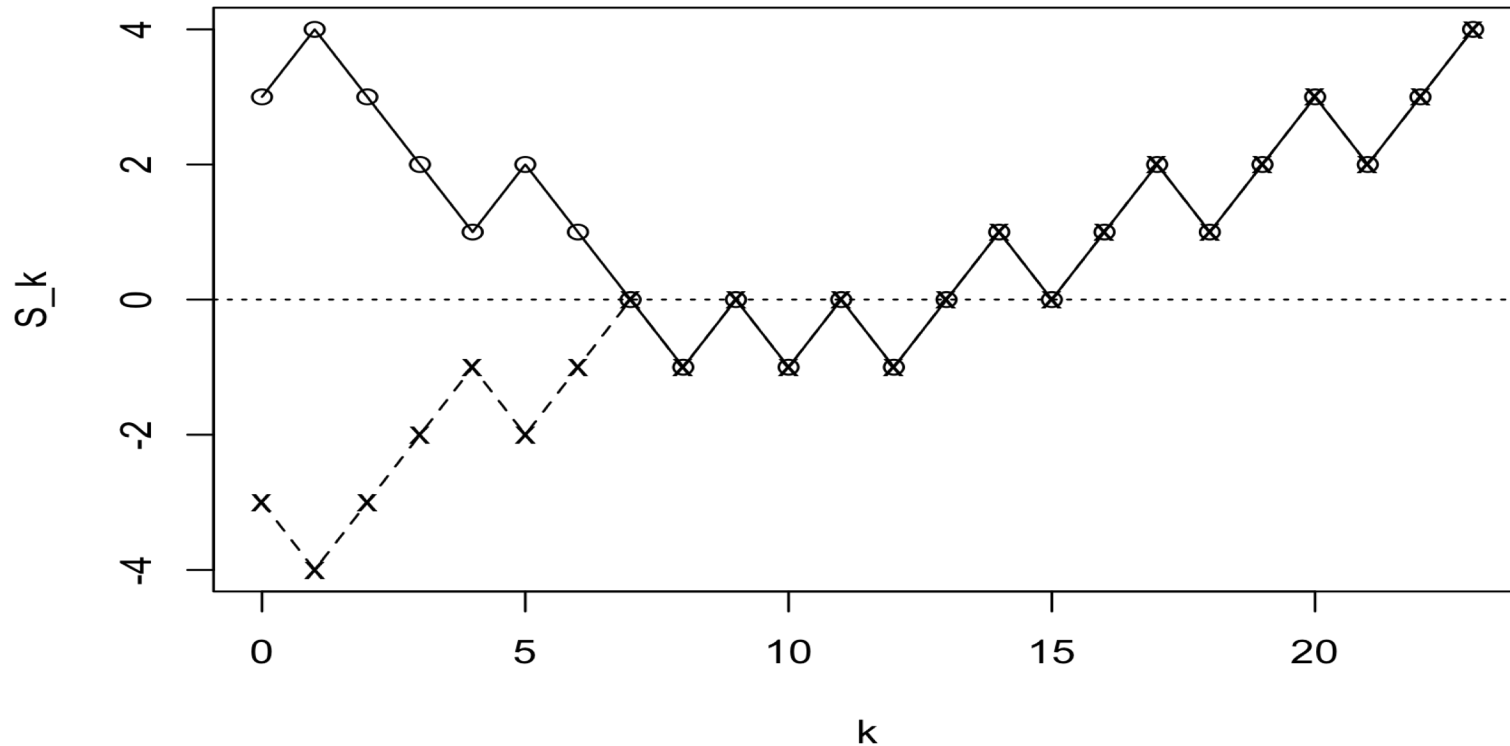
* Reflection principle: The number of paths from $(0, X_0)$ to (n, y) that touch the x-axis = the number of paths from $(0, -X_0)$ to (n, y) , for any n, y , and $X_0 > 0$.

* Ballot theorem: In $n = a+b$ hands, if player A won a hands and B won b hands, where $a > b$, and if the hands are aired in random order, $P(\text{A won more hands than B throughout the telecast}) = (a-b)/n$.

[In an election, if candidate X gets x votes, and candidate Y gets y votes, where $x > y$, then the probability that X always leads Y throughout the counting is $(x-y) / (x+y)$.]

* For a simple random walk, $P(S_1 \neq 0, S_2 \neq 0, \dots, S_n \neq 0) = P(S_n = 0)$, for any even n .

3. Reflection Principle. The number of paths from $(0, X_0)$ to (n, y) that touch the x-axis
 = the number of paths from $(0, -X_0)$ to (n, y) , for any n, y , and $X_0 > 0$.



For each path from $(0, X_0)$ to (n, y) that touches the x-axis, you can reflect the first part
 til it touches the x-axis, to find a path from $(0, -X_0)$ to (n, y) , and vice versa.

Total number of paths from $(0, -X_0)$ to (n, y) is easy to count: it's just $C(n, a)$, where you
 go up a times and down b times.

[For example, to go from $(0, -10)$ to $(100, 20)$, you have to "profit" 30, so you go up
 $a=65$ times and down $b=35$ times, and the number of paths is $C(100, 65)$.

In general, $a - b = y - (-X_0) = y + X_0$. $a + b = n$, so $b = n - a$, $2a - n = y + X_0$, $a = (n + y + X_0)/2$].

4. Ballot theorem. In $n = a+b$ hands, if player A won a hands and B won b hands, where $a > b$, and if the hands are aired in random order, then $P(\text{A won more hands than B throughout the telecast}) = (a-b)/n$.

Proof: We know that, after $n = a+b$ hands, the total difference in hands won is $a-b$.

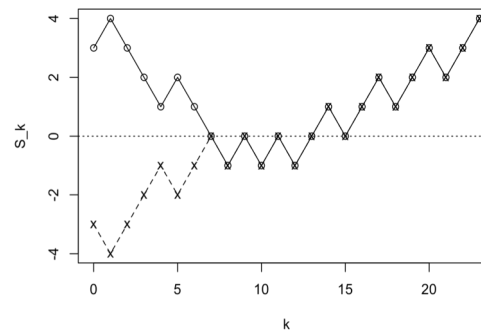
Let $x = a-b$.

We want to count the number of paths from $(1,1)$ to (n,x) that do not touch the x -axis.

By the reflection principle, the number of paths from $(1,1)$ to (n,x) that **do** touch the x -axis equals the total number of paths from $(1,-1)$ to (n,x) .

So the number of paths from $(1,1)$ to (n,x) that **do not** touch the x -axis equals the number of paths from $(1,1)$ to (n,x) minus the number of paths from $(1,-1)$ to (n,x)

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= C(n-1, a-1) - C(n-1, a) \\
 &= (n-1)! / [(a-1)! (n-a)!] - (n-1)! / [a! (n-a-1)!] \\
 &= \{n! / [a! (n-a)!]\} [(a/n) - (n-a)/n] \\
 &= C(n, a) (a-b)/n.
 \end{aligned}$$



And each path is equally likely, and has probability $1/C(n,a)$.

So, $P(\text{going from } (0,0) \text{ to } (n,x) \text{ without touching the } x\text{-axis}) = (a-b)/n$.

5. Avoiding zero.

For a simple random walk, for any even # n , $P(S_1 \neq 0, S_2 \neq 0, \dots, S_n \neq 0) = P(S_n = 0)$.

Proof. The number of paths from $(0,0)$ to (n,j) that don't touch the x-axis at positive times
= the number of paths from $(1,1)$ to (n,j) that don't touch the x-axis at positive times
= paths from $(1,1)$ to (n,j) - paths from $(1,-1)$ to (n,j) by the *reflection principle*
= $N_{n-1,j-1} - N_{n-1,j+1}$.

Let $Q_{n,j} = P(S_n = j)$. By the logic above,

$$P(S_1 > 0, S_2 > 0, \dots, S_{n-1} > 0, S_n = j) = \frac{1}{2}[Q_{n-1,j-1} - Q_{n-1,j+1}].$$

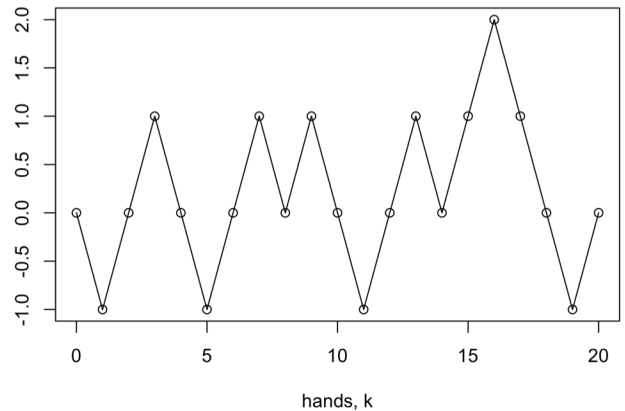
Summing from $j = 2$ to ∞ ,

$$\begin{aligned} P(S_1 > 0, S_2 > 0, \dots, S_{n-1} > 0, S_n > 0) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}[Q_{n-1,1} - Q_{n-1,3}] + \frac{1}{2}[Q_{n-1,3} - Q_{n-1,5}] + \frac{1}{2}[Q_{n-1,5} - Q_{n-1,7}] + \dots \text{ and these terms are eventually } 0 \\ &= (1/2) Q_{n-1,1}. \end{aligned}$$

Now note that $Q_{n-1,1} = P(S_n = 0)$, because to end up at $(n, 0)$, you have to be at $(n-1,1)$ and then go down, or at $(n-1,-1)$ and then go up. So $P(S_n = 0) = (1/2) Q_{n-1,1} + (1/2) Q_{n-1,-1} = Q_{n-1,1}$.

Thus $P(S_1 > 0, S_2 > 0, \dots, S_{n-1} > 0, S_n > 0) = \frac{1}{2} P(S_n = 0)$. By the same arguments,
 $P(S_1 < 0, S_2 < 0, \dots, S_{n-1} < 0, S_n < 0) = \frac{1}{2} P(S_n = 0)$.

So, $P(S_1 \neq 0, S_2 \neq 0, \dots, S_n \neq 0) = P(S_n = 0)$.



6. Chip proportions and induction, Theorem 7.6.6.

$P(\text{win a tournament})$ is proportional to your number of chips.

Simplified scenario. Suppose you either go up or down 1 each hand, with prob. $1/2$.

Suppose there are n chips, and you have k of them.

Let $p_k = P(\text{win tournament given } k \text{ chips}) = P(\text{random walk goes } k \rightarrow n \text{ before hitting } 0)$.

Now, clearly $p_0 = 0$. Consider p_1 . From 1, you will either go to 0 or 2.

So, $p_1 = 1/2 p_0 + 1/2 p_2 = 1/2 p_2$. That is, $p_2 = 2 p_1$.

We have shown that $p_j = j p_1$, for $j = 0, 1$, and 2 .

(induction:) Suppose that, for $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m$, $p_j = j p_1$.

We will show that $p_{m+1} = (m+1) p_1$.

Therefore, $p_j = j p_1$ for all j .

That is, $P(\text{win the tournament})$ is prop. to your number of chips.

$p_m = 1/2 p_{m-1} + 1/2 p_{m+1}$. If $p_j = j p_1$ for $j \leq m$, then we have

$$m p_1 = 1/2 (m-1) p_1 + 1/2 p_{m+1},$$

$$\text{so } p_{m+1} = 2m p_1 - (m-1) p_1 = (m+1) p_1.$$

7. Doubling up. Again, $P(\text{winning}) = \text{your proportion of chips}$.

Theorem 7.6.7, p152, describes another simplified scenario.

Suppose you either double each hand you play, or go to zero, each with probability $1/2$.

Again, $P(\text{win a tournament})$ is prop. to your number of chips.

Again, $p_0 = 0$, and $p_1 = 1/2$ $p_2 = 1/2$ p_2 , so again, $p_2 = 2 p_1$.

We have shown that, for $j = 0, 1$, and 2 , $p_j = j p_1$.

(induction:) Suppose that, for $j \leq m$, $p_j = j p_1$.

We will show that $p_{2m} = (2m) p_1$.

Therefore, $p_j = j p_1$ for all $j = 2^k$. That is, $P(\text{win the tournament})$ is prop. to # of chips.

This time, $p_m = 1/2 p_0 + 1/2 p_{2m}$. If $p_j = j p_1$ for $j \leq m$, then we have

$mp_1 = 0 + 1/2 p_{2m}$, so $p_{2m} = 2mp_1$. Done.

In Theorem 7.6.8, p152, you have k of the n chips in play. Each hand, you gain 1 with prob. p , or lose 1 with prob. $q=1-p$.

Suppose $0 < p < 1$ and $p \neq 0.5$. Let $r = q/p$. Then $P(\text{you win the tournament}) = (1-r^k)/(1-r^n)$.

The proof is again by induction, and is similar to the proof we did of Theorem 7.6.6.

8. Examples.

(Chen and Ankenman, 2006). Suppose that a \$100 winner-take-all tournament has $1024 = 2^{10}$ players. So, you need to double up 10 times to win. Winner gets \$102,400.

Suppose you have probability $p = 0.54$ to double up, instead of 0.5.

What is your expected profit in the tournament? (Assume only doubling up.)

Answer. $P(\text{winning}) = 0.54^{10}$, so exp. return = $0.54^{10} (\$102,400) = \215.89 . So exp. profit = \$115.89.

What if each player starts with 10 chips, and you gain a chip with $p = 54\%$ and lose a chip with $p = 46\%$? What is your expected profit?

Answer. $r = q/p = .46/.54 = .852$. $P(\text{you win}) = (1-r^{10})/(1-r^{10240}) = 79.9\%$.
So exp. profit = $.799(\$102400) - \$100 \sim \$81700$.

Random Walk example.

Suppose you start with 1 chip at time 0 and that your tournament is like a simple random walk, but if you hit 0 you are done. $P(\text{you have not hit zero by time } 47)?$

We know that starting at 0, $P(Y_1 \neq 0, Y_2 \neq 0, \dots, Y_{2n} \neq 0) = P(Y_{2n} = 0)$.

So, for a random walk starting at (0,0),

by symmetry $P(Y_1 > 0, Y_2 > 0, \dots, Y_{48} > 0) = \frac{1}{2} P(Y_1 \neq 0, Y_2 \neq 0, \dots, Y_{2n} \neq 0)$

$= \frac{1}{2} P(Y_{48} = 0) = \frac{1}{2} \text{Choose}(48,24)(\frac{1}{2})^{48}$.

Also $P(Y_1 > 0, Y_2 > 0, \dots, Y_{48} > 0) = P(Y_1 = 1, Y_2 > 0, \dots, Y_{48} > 0)$

$= P(\text{start at 0 and win your first hand, and then stay above 0 for at least 47 more hands})$

$= P(\text{start at 0 and win your first hand}) \times P(\text{from (1,1), stay above 0 for } \geq 47 \text{ more hands})$

$= \frac{1}{2} P(\text{starting with 1 chip, stay above 0 for at least 47 more hands})$.

So, multiplying both sides by 2,

$P(\text{starting with 1 chip, stay above 0 for at least 47 hands}) = \text{Choose}(48,24)(\frac{1}{2})^{48}$

$= 11.46\%$.