Finite probability spaces

Statistical Computing and Empirical Methods
Unit EMATM0061, Data Science MSc

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What we will cover today

We will discuss finite probability spaces 有限概率空间

简单概率空间的特殊情况

We will focus on the special case of simple probability spaces

- In such cases estimating probability reduces to combinatorics.

在这种情况下，估计概率就变成了组合学

We will consider products, permutations and combinations.

Random experiments, events and sample spaces

A random experiment is a procedure (real or imagined) which:

1. has a well-defined set of possible outcomes;
2. could (at least in principle) be repeated arbitrarily many times.

An event is a set (i.e. a collection) of possible outcomes of an experiment

A sample space is the set of all possible outcomes of interest for a random experiment

The laws of probability and their consequences

Definition: Probability

Given a sample space Ω along with a well-behaved collection of events $\mathcal{E}$, a probability $\mathbb{P}$ is a function which assigns a number $\mathbb{P}(A)$ to each event $A \in \mathcal{E}$, and satisfies rules 1, 2, and 3:

Rule 1: $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$ for any event A

Rule 2: $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ for sample space Ω

Rule 3: For pairwise disjoint events $A_1, A_2, \cdots$, we have

$$\mathbb{P}(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$$

We refer to the triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ as a probability space.

Consequence 1: $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$

Consequence 2: If $A, B \in \mathcal{E}$ are events and $A \subseteq B$, then $\mathbb{P}(A) \leq \mathbb{P}(B)$.

Consequence 3: For any event $A \in \mathcal{E}$, we have $0 \leq \mathbb{P}(A) \leq 1$.

Consequence 4: For events $S_1, S_2, \cdots$, we have $\mathbb{P}(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} S_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(S_i)$.

Finite probability spaces

Here, we consider sample spaces with finite numbers of elements (outcomes).

Finite probability spaces

A finite probability space consists of a triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ where

1. $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \cdots, \omega_k\}$ is a finite sample space.
2. $\mathcal{E}$ is given by $\{A \subseteq \Omega\}$, i.e., the collection of all subsets of Ω.
3. The probability $\mathbb{P}$ on Ω is constructed in the following way.

Specify a vector $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, p_2, \cdots, p_k)$ that satisfying

$$(1).\ p_i \geq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \cdots, k. \quad \text{and} \quad (2).\ \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i = 1$$

Define a probability $\mathbb{P}$ based on $\mathbf{p}$ by

$$\mathbb{P}(A) := \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_A(\omega_i) \text{ for } A \subseteq \Omega$$

By definition, we have $\mathbb{P}(\omega_i) = p_i$ for any $\omega_i \in \Omega$.

The vector $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \cdots, p_k)$ is called a probability vector.

Finite probability spaces and three key rules

Recall that a finite probability space is a triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ where Ω is finite, $\mathcal{E} = \{A \subseteq \Omega\}$, and $\mathbb{P}(A) := \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_A(\omega_i)$ for $A \subseteq \Omega$.

To make sure $\mathbb{P}$ is a probability, we must show that the fundamental rules of probability are satisfied.

Recall that the three key rules of probability are: Rule 1: $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$ for any event A; Rule 2: $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$; Rule 3: $\mathbb{P}(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$ for disjoint $\{A_i\}$.

Rule 1: for any $A \in \mathcal{E}$, we have $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$ ✓

Proof: Since $p_i \geq 0$ for all $i = 1, 2, \cdots, k$, we have

$$\mathbb{P}(A) := \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_A(\omega_i) \geq 0.$$

Finite probability spaces and three key rules

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Recall that the three key rules of probability are: Rule 1: $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$ for any event A; Rule 2: $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$; Rule 3: $\mathbb{P}(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$ for disjoint $\{A_i\}$.

Rule 2: the sample space Ω has probability $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ ✓

Proof: For $i = 1, 2, \cdots, k$, $\mathbb{1}_\Omega(\omega_i) = 1$, because $\omega_i \in \Omega$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}(\Omega) &:= \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_\Omega(\omega_i) \qquad \text{by the definition of } \mathbb{P} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \qquad \text{since } \omega_i \in \Omega \text{ for all } i \\
&= 1 \qquad \text{by the definition of } p_i.
\end{aligned}
$$

So we have $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$.

Finite probability spaces and three key rules

Recall that a finite probability space is a triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ where Ω is finite, $\mathcal{E} = \{A \subseteq \Omega\}$, and $\mathbb{P}(A) := \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_A(\omega_i)$ for $A \subseteq \Omega$.

Recall that the three key rules of probability are: Rule 1: $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$ for any event A; Rule 2: $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$; Rule 3: $\mathbb{P}(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$ for disjoint $\{A_i\}$.

Rule 3: For a countable sequence of pairwise disjoint events $A_1, A_2, \cdots$, we have

$$\mathbb{P}\big(\cup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j\big) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_j).$$

Proof: Let $S = \cup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j$. For any $\omega \in \Omega$:
(1). If $\mathbb{1}_S(\omega) = 1$, then $\omega \in S$, hence ω is in exactly one of the (pairwise disjoint) sets $A_1, A_2, \cdots$, and hence $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{A_j}(\omega) = 1$.
(2). If $\mathbb{1}_S(\omega) = 0$, then $\omega \notin S$, hence $\omega \notin A_j$ for all j, and hence $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{A_j}(\omega) = 0$.

Therefore, for any $i \in \{1, \cdots, k\}$, we have $\mathbb{1}_S(\omega_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{A_j}(\omega_i)$, and

$$\mathbb{P}(S) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \mathbb{1}_S(\omega_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{A_j}(\omega_i) \right) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \mathbb{1}_{A_j}(\omega_i) \right) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_j).$$

Finite probability space examples

Recall that a finite probability space is a triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ where Ω is finite, $\mathcal{E} = \{A \subseteq \Omega\}$, and $\mathbb{P}(A) := \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_A(\omega_i)$ for $A \subseteq \Omega$.

Example 1: Rolling a fair dice

Recall that in the previous example of rolling a dice, we have

Sample space $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
Set of events $\mathcal{E} = \{A \subseteq \Omega\}$
Probability $\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{|A|}{6}$ for any $A \in \mathcal{E}$

This is a finite probability space. The probability $\mathbb{P}$ has a corresponding probability vector: $\mathbf{p} = (1/6, 1/6, 1/6, 1/6, 1/6, 1/6)$, and

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_A(\omega_i)$$

Therefore $\mathbb{P}$ is a probability

Finite probability space examples

Recall that a finite probability space is a triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ where Ω is finite, $\mathcal{E} = \{A \subseteq \Omega\}$, and $\mathbb{P}(A) := \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_A(\omega_i)$ for $A \subseteq \Omega$.

Example 2: A customer in the dealership either buys a car (1) or doesn't buy a car (0)

Recall that in the last lecture we have

Sample space $\Omega = \{0, 1\}$
Set of events $\mathcal{E} = \{A \subseteq \Omega\} = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}\}$
Probability $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$, $\mathbb{P}(\{0\}) = 1 - q$, $\mathbb{P}(\{1\}) = q$, $\mathbb{P}(\{0, 1\}) = 1$ (where $0 \leq q \leq 1$)

This is a finite probability space. The probability $\mathbb{P}$ has a corresponding probability vector: $\mathbf{p} = (1 - q, q)$

Therefore $\mathbb{P}$ is a probability

Finite probability space examples

Recall that a finite probability space is a triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ where Ω is finite, $\mathcal{E} = \{A \subseteq \Omega\}$, and $\mathbb{P}(A) := \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_A(\omega_i)$ for $A \subseteq \Omega$.

Example 3: A patient either tests positive (1) or negative (0) for a virus.

Sample space $\Omega = \{0, 1\}$
Set of events $\mathcal{E} = \{A \subseteq \Omega\} = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}\}$
Probability $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0,\ \mathbb{P}(\{0\}) = 1 - q,\ \mathbb{P}(\{1\}) = q,\ \mathbb{P}(\{0, 1\}) = 1$ (where $0 \leq q \leq 1$)

This is a finite probability space. The probability $\mathbb{P}$ has a corresponding probability vector: $\mathbf{p} = (1 - q, q)$

Therefore $\mathbb{P}$ is a probability

Bernoulli distribution

The Bernoulli distribution refers to the probability distribution on a sample space $\{0, 1\}$, in which the probability of outcome "1" is q, and the probability of outcome "0" is $1 - q$ for some $q \in [0, 1]$.

These are all examples of Bernoulli distributions:

Example 2: A customer in the dealership either buys a car (1) or doesn't buy a car (0)

Example 3: A patient either tests positive (1) or negative (0) for a virus.

Bernoulli distributions are typical examples of probabilities in finite sample spaces.

Simple probability spaces

Simple probability spaces are special types of finite probability spaces.

Simple probability spaces

A simple probability space is a finite probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ with the probability vector given by $\mathbf{p} = (\frac{1}{k}, \frac{1}{k}, \cdots, \frac{1}{k})$ where $k = |\Omega|$.

Consequently, the probability of an event $A \in \mathcal{E}$ is given by

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_A(\omega_i) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}.$$

Example: rolling a fair dice

$\mathbf{p} = \left(\frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}\right)$

$\mathbb{P}(\{2, 4, 6\}) = \frac{|\{2,4,6\}|}{6} = 1/2$

Simple product probability spaces

Suppose that we have a set $\mathcal{X}$ and another set $\mathcal{Y}$.

Cartesian product

The cartesian product $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} := \{(x, y) : x \in \mathcal{X}, \text{ and } y \in \mathcal{Y}\}$.

For example, if $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2\}, \mathcal{Y} = \{1, 2, 3\}$, then
$\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3)\}$.

If $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{Y}$ have cardinalities $|\mathcal{X}|$ and $|\mathcal{Y}|$ respectively, then $|\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}| = |\mathcal{X}| \cdot |\mathcal{Y}|$.

A simple product probability space

A simple product probability space is a simple probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ in which $\Omega = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$.

Simple product probability spaces satisfy the rules of probability.

Simple product probability spaces

Recall that a simple product probability space is a simple probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ in which $\Omega = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$.

Example 4: Suppose that I flip a coin and record "heads" (1) and "tails" (0) ($\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$), and I also roll a dice and record which face up ($\mathcal{Y} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$).

So an outcome can be of the form $(1, 6)$, where 1 means "heads" up and 6 means the face of number 6.

Take a sample space $\Omega = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ and for $A \subseteq \Omega$, we have

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}.$$

e.g., $\mathbb{P}(\{(1, 2), (0, 5), (1, 3)\}) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|} = 3/12 = 1/4$.

This a simple product probability space

Simple K-fold product probability spaces

Suppose that we have a sequence of K set $\mathcal{X}_1, \mathcal{X}_2, \cdots, \mathcal{X}_K$.

The (K-fold) cartesian product

The (K-fold) cartesian product is

$$\prod_{i=1}^{K} \mathcal{X}_i = \mathcal{X}_1 \times \mathcal{X}_2 \times \cdots \times \mathcal{X}_K = \{(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_K) : x_i \in \mathcal{X}_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \cdots, K\}$$

When $\mathcal{X}_1 = \mathcal{X}_2 = \cdots = \mathcal{X}_K = \mathcal{Z}$, we write $\mathcal{Z}^K = \prod_{i=1}^{K} \mathcal{X}_i$.

The Cartesian product $\prod_{i=1}^{K} \mathcal{X}_i$ has cardinality $|\prod_{i=1}^{K} \mathcal{X}_i| = |\mathcal{X}_1| \cdot |\mathcal{X}_2| \cdots |\mathcal{X}_K|$.

Example: Suppose that we roll a dice K times.
Then $\mathcal{X}_i = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and $\Omega = \prod_{i=1}^{K} \mathcal{X}_i$. The probability of rolling all ones is $\mathbb{P}(\{1, 1, \cdots, 1\}) = \frac{1}{|\Omega|} = \frac{1}{|\prod_{i=1}^{K} \mathcal{X}_i|} = \frac{1}{6^K}$.

Permutations and Combinations for computing cardinality

Permutations

A permutation is a set of a particular choice of ordering.

Example: if we have a set $\{1, 2, 3\}$, then the different orderings are $(1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2), (2, 1, 3), (2, 3, 1), (3, 1, 2), (3, 2, 1)$.

There are $k! := k \cdot (k-1) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$ different permutations of a sequence of k objects.

Combinations

Given $k \leq n$, we write $\binom{n}{k}$ for the number of subsets of size k chosen from a set of n.

For example, if we have a set of $\{1, 2, 3\}$, then $\binom{3}{2}$ means the number of subsets of size 2: $\{1, 2\}$, $\{1, 3\}$, $\{2, 3\}$.

The number $\binom{n}{k}$ is computed as $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$.

Permutations and Combinations for computing cardinality

Suppose we have a collection of n balls (with numbers $1, 2, 3, \cdots, n$) in a bag:

Example 5. Sampling with replacement

We draw a ball randomly from the bag, record the number, and then return it to bag. We repeat this $k \leq n$ times. This is called **sampling with replacement**.

Question. Let A be the event that the set of k balls drawn from the bag is exactly $\{1, 2, \cdots, k\}$. We are interested in the probability of A.

Answer.

- Since A consists of permutations of $\{1, \cdots, k\}$, we have $|A| = k!$.
- $\mathcal{X}_i = \{1, 2, \cdots, n\}$ and the sample space has cardinality $|\Omega| = |\prod_{i=1}^{k} \mathcal{X}_i| = n^k$
- This is a simple probability space, hence the probability of A is $\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{k!}{n^k}$.

Permutations and Combinations for computing cardinality

Suppose we have a collection of n balls (with numbers $1, 2, 3, \cdots, n$) in a bag:

Example 6. Sampling without replacement

We draw a ball randomly from the bag, record the number, and then leave the ball outside the bag. We repeat this $k \leq n$ times. This is called **sampling without replacement**.

Question. Let A be the event that the set of k balls drawn from the bag is exactly $\{1, 2, \cdots, k\}$. We are interested in the probability of A.

Answer.

- The event A consists of permutations of $\{1, \cdots, k\}$, we have $|A| = k!$.
- The sample space Ω consists of all sequences length k such that the entries of the sequence are taken from $\{1, 2, \cdots, n\}$ without repeating.
- We have $\binom{n}{k}$ choices of the subset of size k from the set $\{1, 2, \cdots, n\}$. Each choice is associated with $k!$ different sequences.
- So $|\Omega| = \binom{n}{k} \cdot k!$, and $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1/\binom{n}{k} = \frac{k!(n-k)!}{n!}$.

Permutations and Combinations for computing cardinality

Suppose we have a collection of n balls (with numbers $1, 2, 3, \cdots, n$) in a bag. Among these balls, r balls are in red (with numbers $1, 2, \cdots, k$), and $n - r$ balls are in blue (with numbers $k + 1, \cdots, n$):

Example 7. Combinations for sampling replacement

We draw a ball randomly from the bag, record the colour (but not the numbers), and then return it to the bag. We repeat this $k \leq n$ times (this is sampling with replacement).

Question. Given a number $q \leq k$, we are interested in the probability of q of these k balls being red.

Answer.

The sample space is $\Omega = \{1, 2, \cdots, n\}^k$, which consists of outcomes of the form $(a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_k)$ for $a_i \in \{1, \cdots, n\}$.

Let $A_{q,k}$ denote the event that q of these k balls are red, i.e., with numbers in $(1, 2, \cdots, r)$.

We want to compute $\mathbb{P}(A_{q,k}) = \frac{|A_{q,k}|}{|\Omega|}$. Here $|\Omega| = n^k$.

Permutations and Combinations for computing cardinality

Question. Given a number $q \le k$, we are interested in the probability of q of these k balls being red.

Answer.

Recall: The sample space is $\Omega = \{1, 2, \cdots, n\}^k$; $A_{q,k}$ denotes the event that q of these k balls are red

Suppose that we have k boxes, and given an outcome of $(a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_k)$, we put the i^{th} ball (with number of a_i) into the i^{th} box. Then each element in $A_{q,k}$ corresponds to one way of having q red balls in the boxes.

To make sure there are q red balls in the boxes, we proceed as follows:

1. We choose q of the k boxes to put in the red balls, therefore having $\binom{k}{q}$ choices.
2. Then we put red balls in the q boxes. Each box can have one of the red balls (one red ball can be in more than 1 box). So we have r^q different ways of doing so.
3. Next we put blue balls in the remaining $k - q$ boxes. Each box can have one of the $n - r$ blue balls, so we have $(n - r)^{(k-q)}$ different ways of doing so.

In total, we have $\binom{k}{q} \cdot r^q \cdot (n - r)^{k-q}$ different ways of having q red balls in the boxes.

We draw a ball randomly from the bag, record the colour (but not the numbers), and then return it to the bag. We repeat this $k \leq n$ times (this is sampling with replacement).

Question. Given a number $q \leq k$, we are interested in the probability of q of these k balls being red.

Answer.

In total, we have $\binom{k}{q} \cdot r^q \cdot (n-r)^{k-q}$ different ways of having q red balls in the boxes.

So we have $|A_{q,k}| = \binom{k}{q} \cdot r^q \cdot (n-r)^{k-q}$.

Finally, we have $|\Omega| = n^k$. So $\mathbb{P}(A_{q,k}) = \frac{|A_{q,k}|}{|\Omega|} = \binom{k}{q} \cdot (\frac{r}{n})^q \cdot (\frac{n-r}{n})^{k-q}$.

Countable probability spaces

Similarly to finite probability spaces, we can construct a probability for sample spaces with countably infinite numbers of elements

Countable probability spaces

A countable probability space consists of a triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbb{P})$ where

1. $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \cdots\}$ is a countably infinite sample space.
2. $\mathcal{E}$ is given by $\{A \subseteq \Omega\}$, i.e., the collection of all subsets of Ω.
3. The probability $\mathbb{P}$ on Ω is constructed in the following way.

Specify a vector $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, p_2, \cdots, p_k, \cdots)$ that satisfying

$$(1).\ p_i \geq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \cdots . \quad \text{and} \quad (2).\ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i = 1$$

Define a probability $\mathbb{P}$ based on $\mathbf{p}$ by

$$\mathbb{P}(A) := \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i \cdot \mathbb{1}_A(\omega_i) \text{ for } A \subseteq \Omega$$

What have we covered?

We introduced the concept of finite probability spaces and showed that the associated probability satisfies the laws of probability

We discussed simple probability spaces, which are a special case of finite probability spaces

We learnt how to estimate probability in simple probability space, using combinatorics.

We considered products, permutations and combinations.

Thanks for listening!

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