

Statistics Lecture

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Basic definitions

Random Experiment

Definition

A random experiment is an experiment whose outcome can not predicted with certainty.

Examples

- Observing if a system component is functioning properly or has failed at a given point in time in the future.
- Determining the execution time of a program.
- Determining the response time of a server request.

Definition

The result of the experiment is called the outcome of the experiment. The totality of the possible outcomes of a random experiment is called the sample space of the experiment and it will be denoted by the letter S .

Basic definitions

Sample space

- The definition of the sample space S is determined by the experiment and the purpose for which the experiment is carried out. When observing the status of two components of a running system, it may be sufficient to know if zero, one or two components have failed without having to exactly identify which component has failed.
- We classify the sample spaces w.r.t. the number of elements they contain.
 - *Finite sample space*: the set of possible outcomes of the experiment is finite;
 - *Countably infinite sample space*: the outcomes of the experiment are in a one-to-one relationship with \mathbb{N} ;
 - Otherwise the sample space is called *uncountable* or *nondenumerable*.
- A finite or countably finite sample space is called a *discrete* sample space. *Continuous* sample spaces, such as all the points on a line or interval are examples of uncountables sample spaces.

Basic definitions

Event

Definition

Given a random experiment and the corresponding sample space S , a collection of certain outcomes is called an event E . E is a subset of the sample space $E \subset S$. Equivalently, any statement of conditions identifying E is called an event.

Example

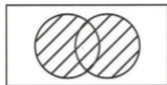
In the random experiment “Toss of a die”, we define the sample space $S = \{1, \dots, 6\}$. The event $E = \{\text{The outcome is an even number}\}$ is equivalent to $E = \{2, 4, 6\}$.

Definition

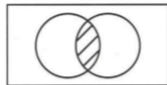
Given a random experiment with sample space S we call a single performance of the experiment a *trial*.

Basic definitions

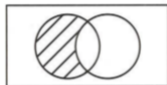
Basic Set Operations



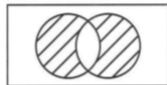
Union: $A \cup B$



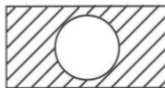
Intersection: $A \cap B$



Difference: $A \setminus B$



Symmetric Difference: $A \Delta B$



Complementation: A^c

Basic definitions

Sequential sample space

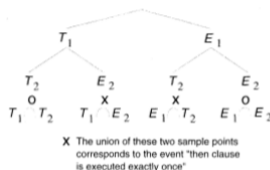


Figure 1.8. Tree diagram of a sequential sample space

The set of all leaves of the tree is the sample space of interest.

Basic definitions

Two-dimensional sample space

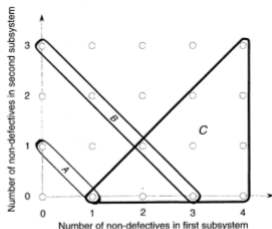


Figure 1.9. A two-dimensional sample space

- ① $A := \{\text{"the system has exactly one non-defective component"}\}$
- ② $B := \{\text{"the system has exactly three non-defective components"}\}$
- ③ $C := \{\text{"the first subsystem has more non-defective components than the second subsystem"}\}$

Basic definitions

Events

- Let E be an event of S and let s denote the outcome of a specific trial. If $s \in E$ we then say that the event E has *occured*. Only one outcome $s \in S$ can occur on any trial. However, every event including s will occur.
- Let E , E_1 and E_2 be events. We define the event \bar{E} to be *the complement* of E , i.e. $\bar{E} = \{s \in S \mid s \notin E\}$.
- Let E_1 and E_2 be two events. We define the event
 - $E_1 \cup E_2 := \{s \in S \mid s \in E_1 \text{ or } s \in E_2\}$ *the union* of E_1 and E_2 .
 - $E_1 \cap E_2 := \{s \in S \mid s \in E_1 \text{ and } s \in E_2\}$ *the intersection* of E_1 with E_2 .
 - $E_1 \setminus E_2 := \{s \in S \mid s \in E_1 \text{ and } s \notin E_2\}$ *the difference* of E_1 and E_2 .
- If $E_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ we say that the two events E_1 and E_2 are *mutually exclusive* or *disjoint*.
- We denote by $|E|$ *the cardinality* of E , i.e. the number of elements (outcomes) in E .

Basic definitions

Algebra of events

Definition

Let S denotes the sample space of a given experiment and \mathcal{F} a collection of events. We say that \mathcal{F} is an *algebra* over S if the following two conditions are fulfilled:

- ① S must be an element of \mathcal{F} , i.e. $S \in \mathcal{F}$.
- ② If $E_1 \in \mathcal{F}$, $E_2 \in \mathcal{F}$, the sets $E_1 \cup E_2$, $E_1 \cap E_2$ must also belong to \mathcal{F} .
- ③ If $E_1 \in \mathcal{F}$, $E_2 \in \mathcal{F}$, $E_1 \setminus E_2$ must also belong to \mathcal{F} .

Interpretation: an algebra \mathcal{F} over S is a family of subsets of S which is closed with respect to the three binary operators \cup , \cap and \setminus .

Remark: condition 3 of the previous definition can be replaced by the following equivalent condition:

- 3^{bis} If $E \in \mathcal{F}$ then $\overline{E} \in \mathcal{F}$.

Example

- a) The collection given by $\mathcal{F} = \{S, \emptyset\}$ is an algebra (the so called *trivial* algebra over S).
- b) The collection $\mathcal{F} = \{E, \bar{E}, S, \emptyset\}$ is the algebra generated by $E \subset S$.
- c) The power set of S , denoted by $\mathcal{P}(S)$, is defined to be the collection consisting of all subsets of S (including the empty set \emptyset).

Exercise

- ① Show by mathematical induction that if S is a finite set with $|S| = n$ elements, then the power set of S contains $|\mathcal{P}(S)| = 2^n$ elements.
- ② Show that condition 3^{bis} is equivalent to condition 3.
- ③ Given $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ construct at least two different algebras on S .
- ④ De Morgan's law. Let A and B two events. Show that

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \cap \bar{B} \text{ and } \overline{A \cap B} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}.$$

Exercise

- ① *De Morgan's law. Let I be a non empty, possibly uncountable set and $A_i, i \in I$ a family of sets indexed by I . Show that*

$$\overline{\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i} = \bigcap_{i \in I} \bar{A}_i \text{ and } \overline{\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i} = \bigcup_{i \in I} \bar{A}_i.$$

Definition

The indicator of the set $A \subseteq S$ is the function on S given by

$$1_A(s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } s \notin A. \end{cases}$$

Interpretation: the function 1_A “indicates” wheter A occurs.

Exercise

Prove the following equalities:

$$1_{A \cup B} = \max\{1_A, 1_B\}; \quad 1_{A \cap B} = \min\{1_A, 1_B\} = 1_A 1_B$$
$$1_{\bar{A}} = 1 - 1_A; \quad 1_{A \Delta B} = |1_A - 1_B|$$

Basic definitions

σ –Algebra of events

Definition

Let S denotes the sample space of a given experiment and \mathcal{G} a collection of events. We say that \mathcal{G} is a σ –*algebra* over S if

- 1 \mathcal{G} is an *algebra* over S .
- 2 If $E_n \in \mathcal{G}$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$, then

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \in \mathcal{G}.$$

Interpretation: a σ –algebra \mathcal{G} over S is a family of subsets of S which is closed with respect to

- the difference operator \setminus (or, equivalently, complementation),
- the *countable* union and intersection of its elements.

Basic definitions

Algebra and σ -Algebra generation

Theorem

Let \mathcal{E} be a collection of subsets of S . Then there are a smallest algebra $\alpha(\mathcal{E})$ and a smallest σ -algebra $\sigma(\mathcal{E})$ containing all the sets that are in \mathcal{E} .

Proof.

$\mathcal{P}(S)$ is a σ -algebra on S . Therefore it exists at least one σ -algebra and one algebra containing \mathcal{E} . We define $\alpha(\mathcal{E})$ (or $\sigma(\mathcal{E})$) to consist of all sets that belong to every algebra (or σ -algebra) containing \mathcal{E} . It is easy to verify that this system is an algebra (or σ -algebra) and indeed the smallest. \square

Basic definitions

Algebra and σ -Algebra generation

Examples

- ① Let \mathcal{C} be the family of open intervals on the real line, i.e.

$$\mathcal{C} := \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } a < b\}.$$

$\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) := \sigma(\mathcal{C})$ is called the Borel sigma algebra over \mathbb{R} .

- ② Let $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real valued function. The family of preimages:

$$\{f^{-1}(B) : B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\}$$

is a σ -algebra on S , the σ -algebra generated by f [denoted $\sigma(f)$].

Basic definitions

Measurable space

Definition

The pair (S, \mathcal{G}) where S is the sample space and \mathcal{G} a σ -algebra on S is called a measurable space and the elements of \mathcal{G} are called events.

Remark: a subset A of the sample space S is an event if and only if $A \in \mathcal{G}$.

Example

Suppose we toss a die once. We choose $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and $\mathcal{G} := \{S, \emptyset, \{1, 2, 3\}, \{4, 5, 6\}\}$. The subset $A = \{2, 4, 6\}$ of S is *not* an event of \mathcal{G} . Let define the sigma algebra $\mathcal{H} := \sigma(\{\{1, 2, 3\}, A\})$ and the new measurable space (S, \mathcal{H}) . $A \in \mathcal{H}$ so that A is now an event.

Exercise

Complete the sigma algebra \mathcal{H} by enumerating its elements.

Basic definitions

Probability Law

Definition

Let (S, \mathcal{H}) be a measurable space. A probability measure or probability law is a positive real-valued function $P : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that the following axioms hold

- 1 $P(S) = 1$.
- 2 For every sequence $\{E_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of pairwise disjoint events ($E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset$, $\forall i \neq j$) it must hold

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(E_i).$$

Remark: a probability law is a function defined on a sigma algebra. The *arguments* of P are *events*, i.e. *subsets* of S and *elements* of \mathcal{H} .

A probability law has many useful relations, see Trivedi pp. 15-16.

Basic definitions

Probability Law

Example

Probability of union of events.

If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are any events, then

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) &= P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \\ &= \sum_i P(A_i) - \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} P(A_i \cap A_j) \\ &\quad + \sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq n} P(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) + \dots \\ &\quad + (-1)^{n-1} P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n), \end{aligned}$$

where the successive sums are over all possible events, pairs of events, triples of events, and so on.

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) &= P(A_1) + P(\bar{A}_1 \cap A_2) + P(\bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2 \cap A_3) + \dots \\ &\quad + P(\bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2 \cap \dots \cap \bar{A}_{n-1} \cap A_n). \end{aligned} \tag{1.4}$$

Exercise

Using the properties of P prove equality 1.4

Basic definitions

Probability Law