



Section 3 Probability of events

- 1. The definition and properties of frequency
- 2. Statistical definition of probability
- 3. Classical probability
- 4. Geometric probability
- 5. Axiomatic definition of probability



-. The definition and properties of frequency

1. Definition Experiment n times in the same condition. Event

A happens n_A times. Then

$$\frac{n_A}{n}$$
 is the frequency of A, denoted by $f_n(A)$.



2. Properties

If A is any event from E, then

$$(1) \ 0 \le f_n(A) \le 1;$$

(2)
$$f(\Omega) = 1$$
, $f(\emptyset) = 0$;

(3) if A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k are mutually exclusive, then

$$f(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_k) = f_n(A_1) + f_n(A_2) + \dots + f_n(A_k).$$

e. g. Toss a coin 5 times, 50 times, 500 times, and repeat the experiment 7 times. Observe the number and calculate the frequency of event A, which denotes the number of the head appears. *n close to infinity, f* changes very slowly.

Exper n =		= 5	n = 50		n = 500	
iment	n_H	f	n_H	f	n_H	f
1	2	0.4	22	0.44	251	0.502
2	3	0.6	25	0.50	249	0.498
3	1	0.2	21	0.42	256	0.512
4	5	1.0	25	0.50	247	0.494
5	1	0.2	24	0.48	251	0.502
6	2	0.4	18	0.36	262	0.524
7	4	0.8	27	0.54	258	0.516

Based on the data, the following laws can be obtained.

- (1) f has volatility(波动性). For different n, f is different;
- (2) For the experiment of tossing a coin, if n is small, f changes drastically, but given n is large, f is close to a fixed number, i.e., when n is close to infinity, f swings slowly at 0.5.

experimenter	n	$n_{_H}$	f
De Morgan	2048	1061	0.5181
Buffon	4040	2048	0.5069
K. Pearson	12000	6019	0.5016
K.Pearson	24000	12012	0.5005

$$f_n(A) \xrightarrow{n} l \operatorname{arg} e \xrightarrow{1} 2$$





Conclusion

Given small n, then the f of event A swings large.

Given large n , then the f is close to a fixed number p , where $0 \le p \le 1$.

This number shows the possibility of event to happen.

It is called probability of the event A, denoted by

$$Prob(A) = p$$
 or $P(A) = p$.



Note.

1º
$$f_n(A) = \frac{n_A}{n}$$
 and $P(A)$ are different.

$$f_n(A) = \frac{n_A}{n}$$
 is a random number, which is depended

on E; P(A) is a fixed number!

- 2° if n is close to infinity, then $P(A) \approx f_n(A) = \frac{n_A}{n}$ 3° Drawbacks of classical probability
 - (1) Difficult to study, i.e. needing to experiment many times, to check if $f_n(A) = \frac{n_A}{n}$ is closed to a fixed number of not.

Question?

One doctor tells you the following information: "you got serious sickness, and one of ten can survive." "But you are lucky, because nine person who are before you are dead because of this sickness.

Thus, you can survive"

Is the doctor's conclusion true?





二、Statistical Definition Of Probability

1.Definition 1.2

In E, if n is close to infinity, then $f_n(A)$ is close to a fixed number p.

Here p is called the probability of A, denoted by P(A)=p.

Properties 1.1

(1) For any A, $0 \le p(A) \le 1$;

(2)
$$P(\Omega) = 1, P(\emptyset) = 0;$$



(3) If for any i,
$$j \in \mathbb{N}$$
, $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$, then

$$A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m,$$

 $P(A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_m) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \dots + P(A_m)$

Note: It is difficult to determine the probability of some events.

三、Classical probability

1.definition:

If E has the following two properties:

1) finiteness

 Ω only has finite sample points: $\omega_1, \omega_2, \cdots, \omega_n$ i.e., $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \cdots, \omega_n\}$

2) Equal probability

$$p(\omega_1) = p(\omega_2) = \cdots = p(\omega_n)$$

Then, E is called classical probability.



2. Determine the classical probability(1.3)

For E, sample space of E is Ω composing by n sample points, A is any event, the cardinality of which is m, i.e., $A \subset \Omega$, |A| = m, then:

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

This is the classical probability of an event.

e.g., 1 The number for a company is 200, composed by 160 female.

A: choosing one person from the company, and the person is male. P(A)=?

Solution: Number of Ω : n = 200

A ="the person chose is male"

The number of sample points in A (the number of male):

$$m = 200-160=40$$

$$\therefore P(A) = \frac{m}{n} = \frac{40}{200} = \frac{1}{5} = 0.2$$



3. Three classical experiments

- (1) Taking ball model;
- (2) Allocating room model;
- (3) Choosing Number model.

e.g.,5 Taking ball model

(1) Taking ball without replacement

Question1: Given a bag containing *M* white

ball and *N* black balls, draw out m+n balls without

replacement. A: the m+n balls are composed by m

white balls, n black balls. P(A)=?

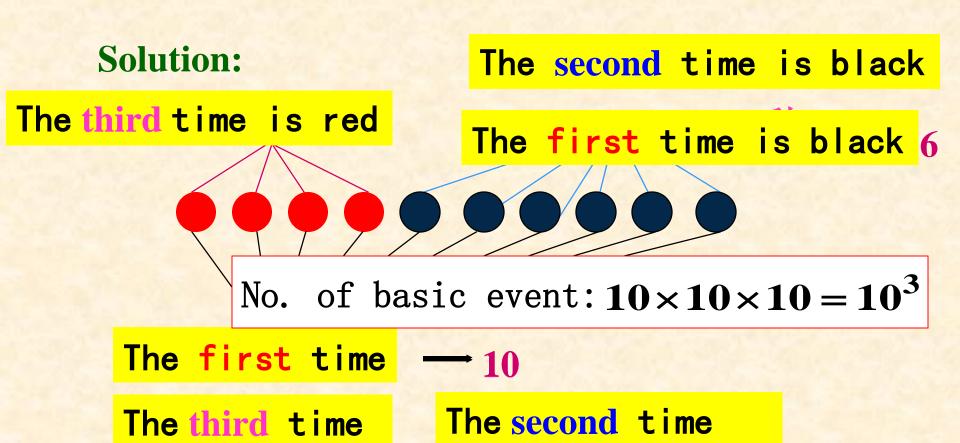
Solution:

The number of sample point in Ω : C_{M+N}^{m+n} The number of sample point in A: $C_{M}^{m} \cdot C_{N}^{n}$

Thus:
$$P(A) = \frac{C_M^m \cdot C_N^n}{C_{M+N}^{m+n}}.$$

(2) Taking ball with replacement

Question 2: Given a bag containing 4 red balls and 6 black balls, draw out balls 3 times with replacement. A: the color of the balls took out are black, black and red. P(A)=?



Solution:

The no. of sample point in Ω : $10 \times 10 \times 10 = 10^3$,

The no. of sample points in A: $6 \times 6 \times 4$,

Thus:
$$P(A) = \frac{6 \times 6 \times 4}{10^3} = 0.144$$
.

Allocating Room model

Given the probability for a certain person(total is n person) is allocated to a room(total is $N(n \le N)$) is 1/N.

Question: determine the probability of the following events.

- (1) The certain n rooms have only 1 person in each room;
- (2) There exist *n* rooms, in which there are 1 person in each room;
- (3) One fixed room has $m(m \le n)$ person.

Solution:

1 °First, calculate the no. of sample points in Ω .

Analysis:

Allocate n person into N rooms. For every allocation,

it corresponds one sample point. Because each person can come into any N rooms, the total no. to allocate one person into one room is N. Since there are n person, there are $N \times N \times \cdots \times N = N^n$ ways to allocate the n person.

No. of Sample points in $\Omega : \mathbb{N}^n$

2 ° (1) suppose A= "The certain n rooms have only 1 person in each room"

No. of Sample points in
$$A: P_n^n = n!$$
 $\therefore P(A) = \frac{n!}{N^n}$ (factorial n)

- (2) Suppose B= "There exist n rooms, in which there are 1 person in each room"
- analysis For event B, the n rooms are not chose, thus, the n rooms can be chose from N total rooms. The total no. of ways to choose the rooms is C_N^n

Once the n person is chose, the no. of ways to allocate the people is n!, thus, B contains $C_N^n \cdot n!$ sample points.

$$\therefore P(B) = \frac{C_N^n \cdot n!}{N^n}$$



(3) Suppose C ="One fixed room has m(m \leq n)person".

analysis" the ways choosing $m(m \le n)$ person from n person and put him in the fixed room is C_n^m ,

The other n-m person can be put in the remaining N-1 rooms. The No. of ways is $(N-1)^{n-m}$

Thus, the No. of sample points in C is:

$$C_n^m \cdot (N-1)^{n-m}$$

$$\therefore P(C) = \frac{C_n^m \cdot (N-1)^{n-m}}{N^n}$$



Choosing Number model

choose one no. from $0, 1, 2, \dots, 9$ with replacement.

Suppose
$$P(\omega) = \frac{1}{10}$$
. Choose 7 numbers,

Determine the probability:

- (1) 7 number are totally different;
- (2) do not have 4 and 7;
- (3) 9 appears 2 times;
- (4)9 appears at least two times

Solution: No. of the sample point in Ω : 10⁷



(1) A="7 number are totally different"

The no. of sample points in A:

$$P_{10}^7 = 10 \times 9 \times 8 \times 7 \times 6 \times 5 \times 4$$

$$\therefore P(A) = \frac{P_{10}^7}{10^7} = \frac{10!}{10^7 \cdot 3!}$$

(2) B="do not have 4 and 7"

$$P(B) = \frac{8^7}{10^7} \approx 0.2097$$

(3) C="9 appears only 2 times"

$$P(C) = \frac{C_7^2 \cdot 9^5}{10^7}$$

(4) D="9 appears at least two times".

 $D_k(k \le 7) = 9$ appears only k times

$$P(D_k) = \frac{C_7^k \cdot 9^{7-k}}{10^7}$$

(solution1)
$$D = D_2 + D_3 + \dots + D_7$$

$$P(D) = P(D_2) + P(D_3) + \dots + P(D_7)$$

$$\therefore P(D) = \sum_{k=2}^{7} \frac{C_7^k \cdot 9^{7-k}}{10^7}$$

(solution2)
$$\overline{D} = D_0 + D_1$$

 $P(D) = 1 - P(\overline{D})$
 $= 1 - P(D_0) - P(D_1)$
 $= 1 - \frac{9^7}{10^7} - \frac{C_7^1 \cdot 9^6}{10^7} \approx 0.1497$

四、Geometric probability

1. Definition

If E has the following properties:

- 1) infinite: the Ω of the E is a geometry area, including infinite sample points. Every point in the area corresponds one sample points;
- 2) Equally likely possibility:

If |A| = |B|, then P(A) = P(B), where | | is the geometric metric of the event. i.e., in one dimensional space, | | is the length.

Then the model described by E is Geometric probability model.

Note.

geometric space	One dimension	two	three	•••
metric	length	area	volume	•••

2. Geometric probability

Definition. For E, m(A) is the geometric metric of event A, Ω is the sample space. If $0 < m(\Omega) < +\infty$, then

$$P(A) = \frac{m(A)}{m(\Omega)}$$

Note. One dim

One dimension :
$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}$$
;

Two dimension

$$: P(A) = \frac{areaA}{area\Omega};$$

Three dimension

:
$$P(A) = \frac{volumeA}{volume\Omega}$$
.

e.g.8

B,C are two points in the line segment AD. Cut AD into three segments AB, BC and CD.

Question? What is the probability that these three segment could form a triangle?

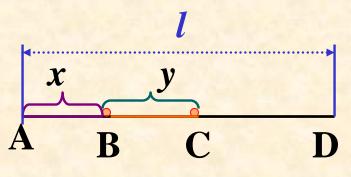
Solution:

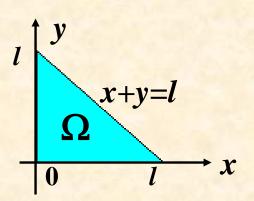
$$\begin{cases} 0 < x < l, 0 < y < l \\ 0 < l - (x + y) < l \end{cases}$$

Sample space Ω :

$$0 < x < l, \quad 0 < y < l$$

$$0 < x + y < l$$





AB, BC and CD can form a triangle

⇔ The length of any one segment is smaller than the sum of the length of the other two segments.

$$\therefore 0 < x < l - x, 0 < y < l - y$$

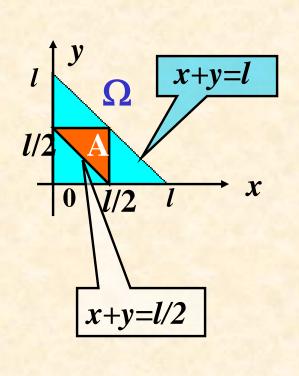
and
$$0 < l - (x + y) < x + y$$

denote A = "AB, BC, CD can from a triangle"

then
$$A: 0 < x < \frac{l}{2}, 0 < y < \frac{l}{2},$$

$$\frac{l}{2} < x + y < l$$

$$\therefore P(A) = \frac{S(A)}{S(\Omega)} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(\frac{l}{2})^2}{\frac{1}{2}l^2} = \frac{1}{4}$$





五、Axiomatic definition of probability

1.definition. Given Ω is the sample space of E, for $A \subset \Omega$,

There exists a real number P(A) corresponding to A.

If P(A) satisfied the following properties:

- (1) non negative: for and $A \subset \Omega$, $P(A) \ge 0$ holds;
- (2) normalization: $P(\Omega)=1$;
- (3) additivity:

if
$$i \neq j$$
, $A_i A_j = \emptyset$ $(i, j = 1, 2, \dots)$, it holds



$$P(A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_m + \dots)$$

= $P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \dots + P(A_m) + \dots$

Then P(A) is the probability of event A.

2. Properties of probability

(1)
$$P(\emptyset)=0$$

Proof: $\Omega = \Omega + \emptyset + \emptyset + \cdots$
 $P(\Omega)=P(\Omega)+P(\emptyset)+P(\emptyset)+\cdots$
 $P(\Omega)=1 \therefore P(\emptyset)=0$

(2) additivity:

 ifA_1, A_2, \dots, A_m are mutually exclusive with each other, then

$$P(\sum_{i=1}^{m} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} P(A_i)$$

Proof: $A_1 + A_2 + \cdots + A_m = A_1 + A_2 + \cdots + A_m + \emptyset +$

$$P(A_1 + A_2 + \cdots + A_m)$$

$$= P(A_1 + A_2 + \cdots + A_m + \emptyset + \emptyset + \cdots)$$

$$= P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \cdots + P(A_m) + P(\emptyset) + P(\emptyset) + P(\emptyset)$$

$$= P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \cdots + P(A_m)$$

(3) For any event A,

$$P(\overline{A}) = 1 - P(A)$$

Proof:
$$:: A + \overline{A} = \Omega, \ A\overline{A} = \emptyset$$

$$\therefore P(A) + P(\overline{A}) = P(\Omega) = 1$$

Thus,
$$P(\overline{A}) = 1 - P(A)$$

(4). if
$$B \subset A$$
, then $P(A-B) = P(A) - P(B)$

Proof :
$$B \subset A$$
 : $A = A \cup B = B + (A - B)$

$$B(A-B) = BA\overline{B} = \emptyset$$

$$\therefore P(A) = P(B) + P(A - B)$$

Thus,
$$P(A-B) = P(A) - P(B)$$

Conclusion1(monotonicity) if $B \subset A$, then $P(B) \leq P(A)$

Proof: By (4), and $P(A-B) \ge 0$, the conclusion holds.

(5) additivity:

For any two events A, B, it holds

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(AB)$$



Proof:
$$A \cup B = A + (B - A)$$

$$B - AB = BAB = B(\overline{A} \cup \overline{B})$$

$$= B\overline{A} \cup B\overline{B} = B\overline{A} \cup \emptyset$$

$$= B\overline{A} = B - A$$

$$\therefore A \cup B = A + (B - AB)$$

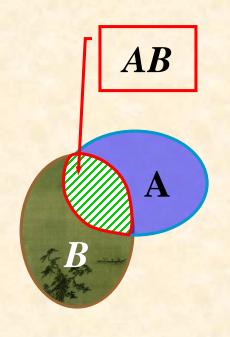
$$A(B-AB) = ABA = \emptyset$$

$$\therefore P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B - AB)$$

$$::AB\subset B$$

$$\therefore P(B-AB) = P(B) - P(AB)$$

Thus,
$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(AB)$$



Conclusion2. $P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$

Generally,
$$P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i) \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i)$$

Conclusion3. For any events, A_1 , A_2 , ..., A_n ,

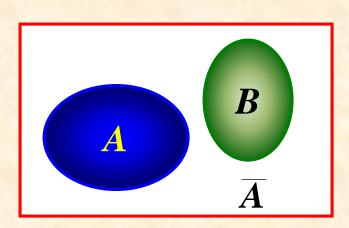
$$P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i) - \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} P(A_i A_j) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i) - \sum_{i \le i < j \le n} P(A_i A_j) + \sum_{i \le i \le n} P(A_i) = \sum_{i \le n} P(A_i) = \sum_{i \le n} P(A_i) + \sum_{i \le n} P(A_i) = \sum_{i \ge n} P(A$$

$$\sum_{1 \le i < j < k \le n} P(A_i A_j A_k) + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} P(A_1 A_2 \cdots A_n)$$

E.g.10 If
$$P(A) = \frac{1}{3}, P(B) = \frac{1}{2},$$

 $P(B\overline{A}) = ?$

- (1) If A and B are M.E.
- (2) $A \subset B$;
- (3) $P(AB) = \frac{1}{8}$.



Solution (1)
$$AB = \emptyset$$
 , $B \subset \overline{A}$: $B\overline{A} = B$

Thus,
$$P(B\overline{A}) = P(B) = \frac{1}{2}$$

(2) $A \subset B$;

$$P(B\overline{A}) = P(B-A)$$

$$=P(B)-P(A) = \frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{3}=\frac{1}{6}.$$

(3)
$$P(AB) = \frac{1}{8}$$
.

$$B\overline{A} = B - A = B - AB$$
 $AB \subset B$

$$\therefore P(B\overline{A}) = P(B - AB) = P(B) - P(AB)$$

$$=\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{8}=\frac{3}{8}.$$