

1.2 Classical probability models(古典概率模型)

1.2 Classical probability models(古典概率模型)

Random experiment(随机试验), Sample points(样本点) and sample spaces(样本空间)

1.2 Classical probability models(古典概率模型)

Random experiment(随机试验), Sample points(样本点) and sample spaces(样本空间)

- We roll a dice and the possible outcomes are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 corresponding to the side that turns up.

1.2 Classical probability models(古典概率模型)

Random experiment(随机试验), Sample points(样本点) and sample spaces(样本空间)

- We roll a dice and the possible outcomes are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 corresponding to the side that turns up.
- We toss a coin with possible outcomes H (heads) and T (tails).

Each elementary outcome of a random experiment is termed a sample point, usually denoted by ω .

Each elementary outcome of a random experiment is termed a sample point, usually denoted by ω . The set of all sample points is termed sample space, usually denoted by Ω .

Each elementary outcome of a random experiment is termed a sample point, usually denoted by ω . The set of all sample points is termed sample space, usually denoted by Ω .

Let $\omega_i = \{i \text{ comes up}\}$ in the proceeding example of dice throwing, then $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_6\}$.

Example

A bag contains 10 balls, 3 of which are red, 3 white and 4 black. If a ball is drawn at random, then the sample space may be taken as

$$\Omega_1 = \{\text{a red ball, a white ball, a black ball}\}.$$

Example

If we label these 10 balls with, red—1, 2, 3, white—4, 5, 6, black—7, 8, 9, 10, and take a ball randomly, then the sample space may be taken as

Example

If we label these 10 balls with, red—1, 2, 3, white— 4, 5, 6, black— 7, 8, 9, 10, and take a ball randomly, then the sample space may be taken as

$$\Omega_2 = \{\omega_1, \cdots, \omega_{10}\}, \quad \omega_i = \{ \text{the } i\text{-th ball} \}$$

Example

In the above Example 1, if two balls are taken at a time, then each sample point is expressed as (i, j) , where i and j are the numbers attached to balls,

Example

In the above Example 1, if two balls are taken at a time, then each sample point is expressed as (i, j) , where i and j are the numbers attached to balls, and so the sample space is equal to

$$\Omega = \{(1, 2), (1, 3), \cdots, (1, 10), \\ (2, 3), \cdots, (2, 10), \cdots, (9, 10)\},$$

which consists of $\binom{10}{2} = 45$ sample points in sum.

Example

The distance between the target and the projectile is a non-negative real number. In this case the sample space may be taken as

$$\Omega = [0, \alpha],$$

a 1-dimensional continuous interval, where α is a positive real constant.

Classical probability models: possesses the following two fundamental features.

- 1 The sample space is finite, i.e., $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_n\}$, where $\omega_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are elementary events.
- 2 Each elementary event comes up with equal possibility, i.e., their probabilities are identical.

Definition

If a random experiment possesses n elementary events of equal possibility and event A contains m of these elementary events, then the probability $P(A)$ that event A comes up is defined as

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

Properties of probability:

1 Non-negativity(非负性): $P(A) \geq 0$;

Properties of probability:

- 1 Non-negativity(非负性): $P(A) \geq 0$;
- 2 Normalization(规范性): $P(\Omega) = 1$, where Ω is a sure event;

Properties of probability:

- 1 **Non-negativity(非负性)**: $P(A) \geq 0$;
- 2 **Normalization(规范性)**: $P(\Omega) = 1$, where Ω is a sure event;
- 3 **Additivity(可加性)**: Suppose that A and B will never come up simultaneously (i.e., $A \cap B = \emptyset$) and that $A + B$ stands for the event that A , or B , or both come up (i.e., $A \cup B$), then $P(A + B) = P(A) + P(B)$.

In particular, if event A and B will never come up simultaneously (i.e., $A \cap B = \emptyset$), and, at least one of A and B will come up (i.e., $A \cup B = \Omega$), then

$$P(A) = 1 - P(B).$$

Example

有 n 个球, N 个格子 ($n \leq N$), 球与格子都是可以区分的. 每个球落在各格子内的概率相同(设格子足够大, 可以容纳任意多个球). 将这 n 个球随机地放入 N 个格子, 求:

- (1) 指定的 n 格各有一球的概率;
- (2) 有 n 格各有一球的概率.

Solution.

把球编号为 $1 \sim n$, n 个球的每一种放法是一个样本点, 每一种放法是等可能的, 这属于古典概率模型,

把球编号为 $1 \sim n$, n 个球的每一种放法是一个样本点, 每一种放法是等可能的, 这属于古典概率模型, 样本点总数应该是

把球编号为 $1 \sim n$, n 个球的每一种放法是一个样本点, 每一种放法是等可能的, 这属于古典概率模型, 样本点总数应该是 N 个中取 n 个球的重复排列数 N^n .

把球编号为 $1 \sim n$, n 个球的每一种放法是一个样本点, 每一种放法是等可能的, 这属于古典概率模型, 样本点总数应该是 N 个中取 n 个球的重复排列数 N^n .

(1) 记 $A = \{\text{指定的 } n \text{ 格各有一球}\}$,

把球编号为 $1 \sim n$, n 个球的每一种放法是一个样本点, 每一种放法是等可能的, 这属于古典概率模型, 样本点总数应该是 N 个中取 n 个球的重复排列数 N^n .

(1) 记 $A = \{\text{指定的 } n \text{ 格各有一球}\}$, 它包含的样本点数是指定的 n 格中 n 个球的全排列数 $n!$,

把球编号为 $1 \sim n$, n 个球的每一种放法是一个样本点, 每一种放法是等可能的, 这属于古典概率模型, 样本点总数应该是 N 个中取 n 个球的重复排列数 N^n .

(1) 记 $A = \{\text{指定的 } n \text{ 格各有一球}\}$, 它包含的样本点数是指定的 n 格中 n 个球的全排列数 $n!$,

$$P(A) = n!/N^n.$$

(2) 记 $B = \{\text{有 } n \text{ 格各有一球}\},$

(2) 记 $B = \{\text{有 } n \text{ 格各有一球}\}$, 它包含的样本点数是 N 格中选取 n 格的排列数 P_N^n ,

(2) 记 $B = \{\text{有 } n \text{ 格各有一球}\}$, 它包含的样本点数是 N 格中选取 n 格的排列数 P_N^n ,

$$\begin{aligned} P(B) &= \frac{P_N^n}{N^n} = \frac{N!}{N^n(N-n)!} \\ &= \frac{N(N-1)\cdots(N-n+1)}{N^n} \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right)\left(1 - \frac{2}{N}\right)\cdots\left(1 - \frac{n-1}{N}\right). \end{aligned}$$

注意到

$$\log(1 - x) = -x + O(x^2); \quad x \rightarrow 0.$$

注意到

$$\log(1 - x) = -x + O(x^2); \quad x \rightarrow 0.$$

我们有

$$\begin{aligned} & \log \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{N}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{N}\right) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \log \left(1 - \frac{k}{N}\right) = - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{k}{N} + O\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{k^2}{N^2}\right) \\ &= - \frac{n(n-1)}{2N} + O\left(\frac{n^3}{N^2}\right) \quad \text{if } \frac{n}{N} \rightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

所以

$$P(B) \approx \exp \left\{ -\frac{n(n-1)}{2N} \right\}.$$

Example

(生日问题) 求 n 个人中至少有两个人同生日的概率.

Example

(生日问题) 求 n 个人中至少有两个人同生日的概率.

解. 认为每个人的生日等可能地出现在365天中的任意一天, 则样本空间 Ω 的元素个数为 $\#\Omega = 365^n$.

Example

(生日问题) 求 n 个人中至少有两个人同生日的概率.

解. 认为每个人的生日等可能地出现在365天中的任意一天, 则样本空间 Ω 的元素个数为 $\#\Omega = 365^n$. 用 \bar{A} 表示 n 个人的生日各不相同, 则作为 Ω 的子集 $\#\bar{A} = P_{365}^n$.

Example

(生日问题) 求 n 个人中至少有两个人同生日的概率.

解. 认为每个人的生日等可能地出现在365天中的任意一天, 则样本空间 Ω 的元素个数为 $\#\Omega = 365^n$. 用 \bar{A} 表示 n 个人的生日各不相同, 则作为 Ω 的子集 $\#\bar{A} = P_{365}^n$. 要求的概率为

$$\begin{aligned} p_n &= P(A) = 1 - P(\bar{A}) \\ &= 1 - \frac{P_{365}^n}{365^n} = 1 - \frac{365!}{(365 - n)! 365^n}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_n &= P(A) = 1 - P(\overline{A}) \\ &= 1 - \frac{P_{365}^n}{365^n} = 1 - \frac{365!}{(365-n)!365^n}. \end{aligned}$$

计算这样的概率, 要计算阶乘数 $n!$. 随 n 的增大, $n!$ 增长非常快, 例如

$$10! = 3,628,000, \quad 15! = 1,307,674,368,700,$$

而 $100!$ 包含158位数字.

在实际计算中, 常常用Stirling 公式进行近似计算:

$$\begin{aligned} n! &= \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \exp\left\{\frac{\theta_n}{12n}\right\}, \quad 0 < \theta_n < 1 \\ &\approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n. \end{aligned}$$

另一方面,

$$\begin{aligned} p_n &= 1 - \frac{P_{365}^n}{365^n} \\ &= 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{365}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{365}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{365}\right) \\ &\approx 1 - \exp \left\{ -\frac{n(n-1)}{2 \times 365} \right\} \triangleq \tilde{p}_n. \end{aligned}$$

可以计算出如下结果:

n	20	30	40	50	60	70	80
p_n	0.411	0.706	0.891	0.970	0.994	0.9992	0.9999
\tilde{p}_n	0.406	0.696	0.882	0.965	0.992	0.9987	0.9998

n	22	23
p_n	0.4757	0.5073
\tilde{p}_n	0.4689	0.5000

$$p_n - \tilde{p}_n \leq 0.01.$$

Example

A bag contains a white balls and b black balls. These balls are drawn one by one randomly and without replacement. Find the probability that the k -th ball drawn is a white one.

Solution 1. 把球编号, 按摸球的次序把球排成一行, 直到 $(a + b)$ 个球都摸完, 每种排法为一个样本点, 样本点总数为

Solution 1. 把球编号, 按摸球的次序把球排成一行, 直到 $(a + b)$ 个球都摸完, 每种排法为一个样本点, 样本点总数为 $(a + b)$ 个球的排列数 $(a + b)!$.

Solution 1. 把球编号, 按摸球的次序把球排成一列, 直到 $(a + b)$ 个球都摸完, 每种排法为一个样本点, 样本点总数为 $(a + b)$ 个球的排列数 $(a + b)!$.

所考察的事件相当于在第 k 个位置放白球, 共有 a 种放法,

Solution 1. 把球编号, 按摸球的次序把球排成一列, 直到 $(a + b)$ 个球都摸完, 每种排法为一个样本点, 样本点总数为 $(a + b)$ 个球的排列数 $(a + b)!$.

所考察的事件相当于在第 k 个位置放白球, 共有 a 种放法, 每种放法又对应其它 $(a + b - 1)$ 个球的 $(a + b - 1)!$ 放法,

Solution 1. 把球编号, 按摸球的次序把球排成一行, 直到 $(a + b)$ 个球都摸完, 每种排法为一个样本点, 样本点总数为 $(a + b)$ 个球的排列数 $(a + b)!$.

所考察的事件相当于在第 k 个位置放白球, 共有 a 种放法, 每种放法又对应其它 $(a + b - 1)$ 个球的 $(a + b - 1)!$ 放法, 故该事件包含的样本点数为 $a(a + b - 1)!$, 所求的概率为

$$P = \frac{a(a + b - 1)!}{(a + b)!} = \frac{a}{a + b}.$$

Solution 2. 各球不编号, 即所有白球都看成相同, 这时相当于在 $(a + b)$ 个位置中取 a 个位置放白球, 共有

Solution 2. 各球不编号, 即所有白球都看成相同, 这时相当于在 $(a + b)$ 个位置中取 a 个位置放白球, 共有 $\binom{a+b}{a}$ 中取法,

Solution 2. 各球不编号, 即所有白球都看成相同, 这时相当于在 $(a + b)$ 个位置中取 a 个位置放白球, 共有 $\binom{a+b}{a}$ 中取法, 所考察的事件为在第 k 个位置放白球, 其它各位置放 $a - 1$ 个白球, 共 $\binom{a+b-1}{a-1}$ 种放法,

Solution 2. 各球不编号, 即所有白球都看成相同, 这时相当于在 $(a + b)$ 个位置中取 a 个位置放白球, 共有 $\binom{a+b}{a}$ 中取法, 所考察的事件为在第 k 个位置放白球, 其它各位置放 $a - 1$ 个白球, 共 $\binom{a+b-1}{a-1}$ 种放法, 故所求的概率为

$$P = \frac{\binom{a+b-1}{a-1}}{\binom{a+b}{a}} = \frac{a}{a+b}.$$

Example

There are a defective products and b nondefective products and they are indistinguishable. If n ($n \leq a$) products are sampled from them, find the probability that the n products sampled contain k defective ones.

Solution. 在 $(a + b)$ 件产品中取 n 件有 $\binom{a+b}{n}$ 种取法,

Solution. 在 $(a + b)$ 件产品中取 n 件有 $\binom{a+b}{n}$ 种取法, 而在 a 件次品中取 k 件, b 件正品中取 $n - k$ 件共有 $\binom{a}{k} \binom{b}{n-k}$ 种取法. 故所求的概率为

$$P = \frac{\binom{a}{k} \binom{b}{n-k}}{\binom{a+b}{n}}.$$

Example

One has two boxes of matches, each having n matches, in his pocket. Each time he wants to use match, he will randomly take out a box and draw one match from it. When he finds the box he takes out is empty, find the probability that the other box has just m matches.

Solution. It is obvious that the event

{ When one box he takes out is empty, the other box has just m matches }

is equal to the event

{ At the $(2n + 1 - m)$ -th draw, he finds one box is empty }.

Solution. It is obvious that the event

$\{ \text{When one box he takes out is empty, the other box has just } m \text{ matches} \}$

is equal to the event

$\{ \text{At the } (2n + 1 - m)\text{-th draw, he finds one box is empty} \}$.

And also, it is equal to $A + B$, where

$A = \{ \text{at the } (2n + 1 - m)\text{-th draw,} \\ \text{he finds box A is empty} \},$

$B = \{ \text{at the } (2n + 1 - m)\text{-th draw,} \\ \text{he finds box B is empty} \}.$

We consider A first.

We consider A first. It is obvious that

$A = \{$ in the first $(2n + 1 - m)$ draws,
box A is drawn at the $(2n + 1 - m)$ -th draw;
and in other $(2n - m)$ draws , box A is drawn n times,
box B is drawn $n - m$ times $\}$.

We consider A first. It is obvious that

$A = \{$ in the first $(2n + 1 - m)$ draws,
box A is drawn at the $(2n + 1 - m)$ -th draw;
and in other $(2n - m)$ draws, box A is drawn n times,
box B is drawn $n - m$ times $\}$.

We have totally 2^{2n+1-m} ways to take the first $(2n + 1 - m)$ draws
in which $\binom{2n-m}{n}$ ways satisfy the condition in event A .

Similarly, in the totally 2^{2n+1-m} ways to take the first $(2n+1-m)$ draws, $\binom{2n-m}{n}$ ways satisfy the condition in event B . Therefore, the desired probability is

$$\frac{2\binom{2n-m}{n}}{2^{2n+1-m}} = \frac{\binom{2n-m}{n}}{2^{2n-m}}.$$

古典概率模型的推广

在古典概率模型中, 样本空间 $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$ 是有限的且每个样本点出现是等可能的.

古典概率模型的推广

在古典概率模型中, 样本空间 $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$ 是有限的且每个样本点出现是等可能的.

一般地, 如果样本空间 $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots\}$ 含有可列个元素, 样本点 ω_i 出现的可能性为 $p(\omega_i)$, 其中 $p(\omega_i) \geq 0$, $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p(\omega_i) = 1$. 这时事件 A 的概率为

$$P(A) = \sum_{i: \omega_i \in A} p(\omega_i).$$

古典概率模型的推广

在古典概率模型中, 样本空间 $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$ 是有限的且每个样本点出现是等可能的.

一般地, 如果样本空间 $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots\}$ 含有可列个元素, 样本点 ω_i 出现的可能性为 $p(\omega_i)$, 其中 $p(\omega_i) \geq 0$, $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p(\omega_i) = 1$. 这时事件 A 的概率为

$$P(A) = \sum_{i: \omega_i \in A} p(\omega_i).$$

对这样的概率模型, 容易验证有如下性质:

① 非负性: $P(A) \geq 0$;

① 非负性: $P(A) \geq 0$;

② 规范性: $P(\Omega) = 1$;

- ① 非负性: $P(A) \geq 0$;
- ② 规范性: $P(\Omega) = 1$;
- ③ 可加性: 若事件 A 和 B 不同时发生, 则 $P(A + B) = P(A) + P(B)$;

- ① 非负性: $P(A) \geq 0$;
- ② 规范性: $P(\Omega) = 1$;
- ③ 可加性: 若事件 A 和 B 不同时发生, 则 $P(A + B) = P(A) + P(B)$;
- ④ 可列可加性: 若事件 $A_i, i = 1, 2, \dots$ 中任何两个都不会同时发生(即, $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, i \neq j$), 用 $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ 表示它们中至少有一个发生(即 $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$), 则

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

In fact,

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{j: \omega_j \in \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i} p(\omega_j)$$

In fact,

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) &= \sum_{j: \omega_j \in \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i} p(\omega_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j: \omega_j \in A_i} p(\omega_j) \end{aligned}$$

In fact,

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) &= \sum_{j: \omega_j \in \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i} p(\omega_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j: \omega_j \in A_i} p(\omega_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i). \end{aligned}$$

Geometrical probability models(几何概率)

Sample space Ω —a region in \mathbf{R}^n .

"equal possibility":

Geometrical probability models(几何概率)

Sample space Ω —a region in \mathbf{R}^n .

"equal possibility": measure of A = measure of $B \implies$

$$P(A) = P(B).$$

Definition

Event $A_g = \{ \text{a sample point falls into region } g \subset \Omega \}$. The probability of A_g is defined as

$$P(A_g) = \frac{\text{Measure of } g}{\text{Measure of } \Omega}.$$

This is called the geometric probability.

Example

(The arrangement problem). Two people make an appointment to meet at a park between 7 o'clock and 8 o'clock and the person who first arrives at the park will keep waiting for another for 20 minutes. Find the probability that they can meet.

Solution.....

Take 7 o'clock as the beginning time and assume that one people arrives at x and the other arrives at y . The sample ponit is (x, y) and

Take 7 o'clock as the beginning time and assume that one people arrives at x and the other arrives at y . The sample ponit is (x, y) and the sample space is

$$\Omega = \{(x, y) | 0 \leq x \leq 60, 0 \leq y \leq 60\}.$$

Take 7 o'clock as the beginning time and assume that one people arrives at x and the other arrives at y . The sample ponit is (x, y) and the sample space is

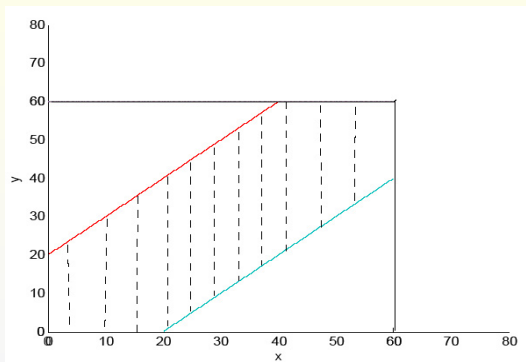
$$\Omega = \{(x, y) | 0 \leq x \leq 60, 0 \leq y \leq 60\}.$$

The two people meet each other if and only if $|x - y| \leq 20$. Therefore the sample points such that event $A = \{\text{they meet each other}\}$ happens constitute the area

$$g = \{(x, y) | |x - y| \leq 20, 0 \leq x, y \leq 60\}.$$

1.2 Classical probability models

Geometrical probability models



So we have

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{the area of } g}{\text{the area of } \Omega}$$

So we have

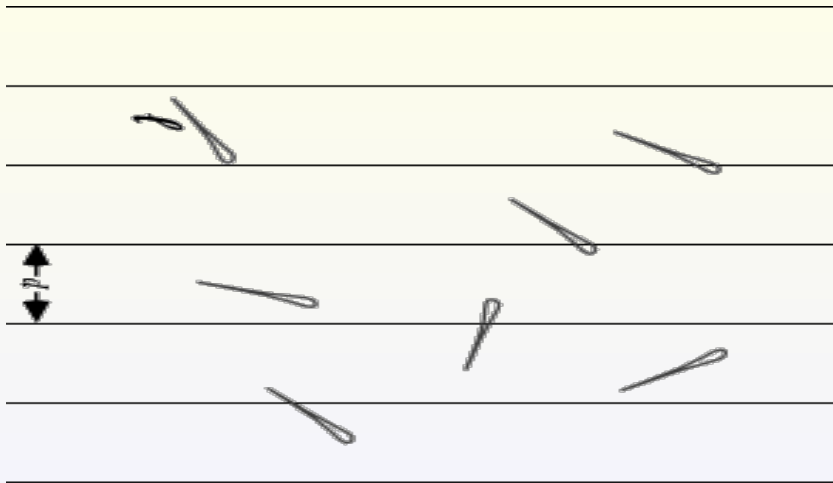
$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= \frac{\text{the area of } g}{\text{the area of } \Omega} \\ &= \frac{60^2 - (60 - 20)^2}{60^2} = \frac{5}{9}. \end{aligned}$$

Example

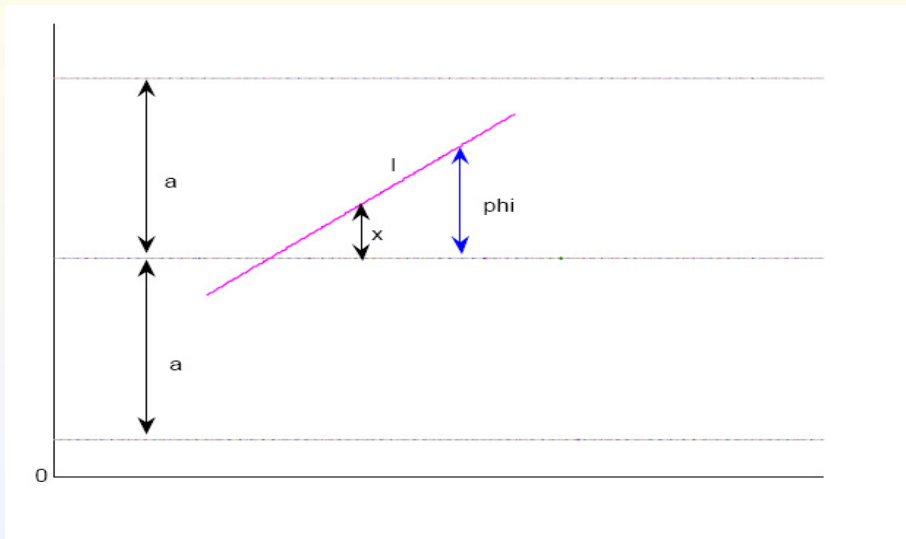
(The problem of Buffon's needles) If a needle of length l is dropped at random on the middle of a horizontal surface ruled with parallel lines a distance $a > l$ apart, what is the probability that the needle will cross one of the lines?

1.2 Classical probability models

Geometrical probability models



Solution.



The position the needle lies in (the sample point) is decided by two parameters, the distance x between needle's midpoint and the line closest to it , and the angle φ between the needle and parallel lines.

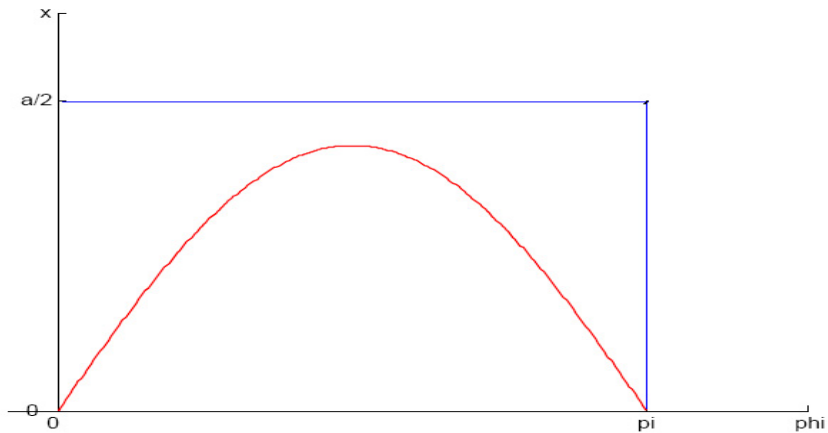
The position the needle lies in (the sample point) is decided by two parameters, the distance x between needle's midpoint and the line closest to it, and the angle φ between the needle and parallel lines. So the sample space is

$$\Omega = \{(\varphi, x) \mid 0 \leq \varphi \leq \pi, 0 \leq x \leq \frac{a}{2}\}.$$

The needle crosses one of the parallel lines if and only if $x \leq \frac{l}{2} \sin \varphi$ (denote this area by g).

1.2 Classical probability models

Geometrical probability models



Hence the desired probability is

$$P = \frac{\text{the area of } g}{\text{the area of } \Omega}$$

Hence the desired probability is

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \frac{\text{the area of } g}{\text{the area of } \Omega} \\ &= \frac{\int_0^\pi \frac{l}{2} \sin \varphi d\varphi}{\pi a/2} = \frac{2l}{a\pi}. \end{aligned}$$

Monte Carlo method If we know the value of P , then we can obtain

$$\pi = \frac{2l}{a}P.$$

Since

$$\text{probability } P \approx \text{frequency } \frac{n}{N},$$

the latter can be obtained from a large number of repeated independent experiments. Then

$$\pi \approx \frac{2l}{a} \frac{n}{N}.$$

In history, one of the best approximate values is $\pi \approx 3.1415929$.

In history, one of the best approximate values is $\pi \approx 3.1415929$.
Nowadays, repeated independent experiments can be simulated by
computator. And so the probability can by approximated by
simulation.

In history, one of the best approximate values is $\pi \approx 3.1415929$.

Nowadays, repeated independent experiments can be simulated by computer. And so the probability can be approximated by simulation.

Monte Carlo method is very popular in computation.

Properties of probability:

① Non-negativity(非负性): $P(A) \geq 0$;

Properties of probability:

- 1 Non-negativity(非负性): $P(A) \geq 0$;
- 2 Normalization(规范性): $P(\Omega) = 1$, where Ω is a sure event;

Properties of probability:

- 1 Non-negativity(非负性): $P(A) \geq 0$;
- 2 Normalization(规范性): $P(\Omega) = 1$, where Ω is a sure event;
- 3 Additivity(可加性): Suppose that A and B will never happen simultaneously and that $A + B$ stands for the event that A , or B , or both happen, then $P(A + B) = P(A) + P(B)$.

- 4 Countable Additivity(可数可加性): Suppose that any two of A_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots$, will never happen simultaneously (i.e., $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$, $i \neq j$) and that $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ stands for the event that at least one of A_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots$, happens (i.e., $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$), then

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