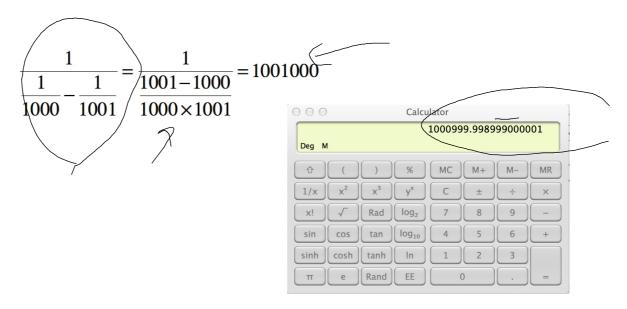
General Probability Spaces

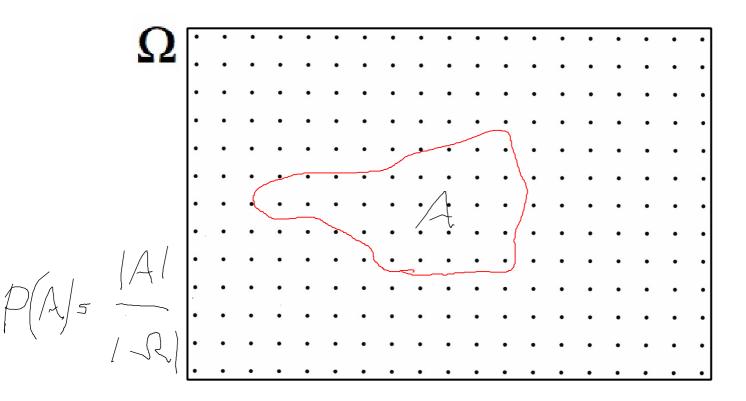


1/10000 = 1e-4 not 9.9E-5

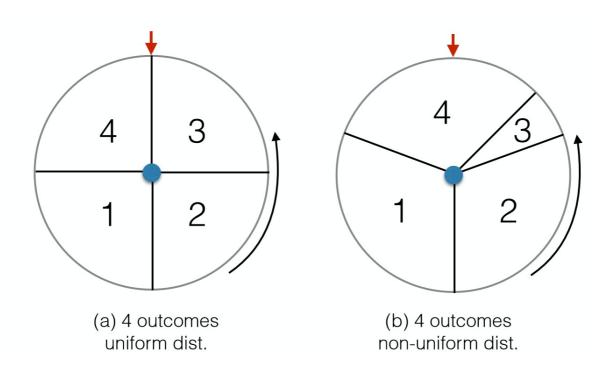
WebWork checks your answers against the correct answers within some tolerance. If you use a calculator your mistake might be masked and reappear at a later point in the problem.

Write complete expressions, don't use a calculator!

Discrete, finite, uniform probability spaces



Wheels of Fortune representing uniform and non-uniform distributions



So Far, we considered finite sample spaces and uniform distributions.

$$P(\{a,c,d\}) = \frac{|\{a,c,d\}|}{|\{a,b,c,d,e\}|} = \frac{3}{5} = 0.6$$

We now consider finite sample spaces and non-uniform distributions.

$$P({a,c,d}) = p(a) + p(c) + p(d)$$
$$= 0.1 + 0.5 + 0.1 = 0.7$$

Properties of general probability spaces

The Sample Space: Ω

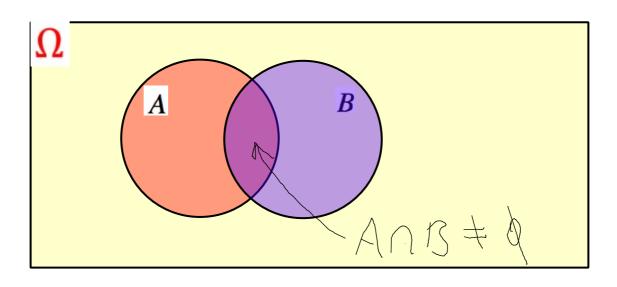
Events: $A_1, A_2, A_3, ...$

are subsets of the Sample Space: $A_i \subseteq \Omega$

$$P(\Omega) = 1$$

$$\forall A \subseteq \Omega: \quad 0 \le P(A) \le 1$$

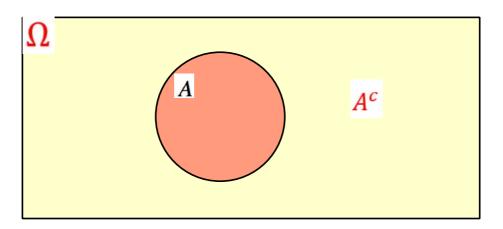
$$\forall A,B \subseteq \Omega, A \cap B = \emptyset$$
 Disjoint sets
 $\Rightarrow P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$



$$\forall A,B \subseteq \Omega, P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$$

Partitioning the unit:

```
Suppose B = A^c
Then A and B are disjoint: A \cap A^c = \emptyset
and their union is the sample space: A \cup A^c = \Omega
\Rightarrow P(A) + P(A^c) = P(\Omega) = 1
\Rightarrow P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)
```



Partitioning a union of 2

If
$$P(A) = \frac{1}{2}$$
, $P(B) = \frac{1}{3}$, $P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{6}$, What is $P(A \cup B) = \frac{1}{2}$?

$$(P(AUB)) = P(ANB') + P(AND) + P(A'NB)$$

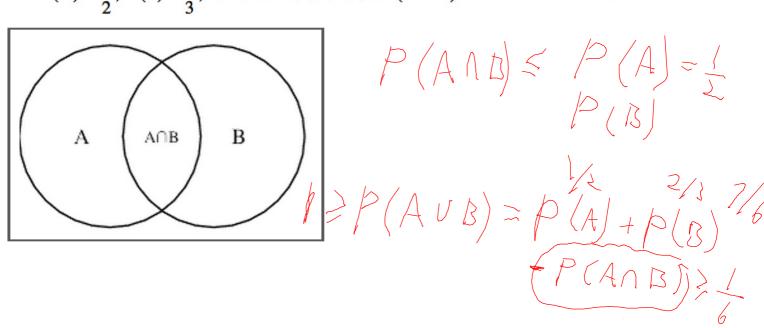
$$P(A) = P(ANB) + P(AND')$$

$$P(B) = P(ANB) + P(A'NB)$$

Bounds on the probability of the intersection

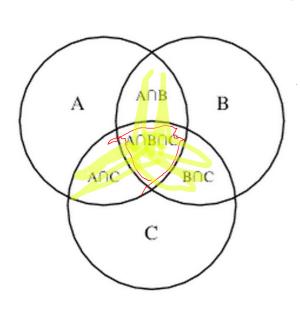
If
$$P(A) = \frac{1}{2}$$
, $P(B) = \frac{2}{3}$, What can be said about $P(A \cap B)$

Ω



General Formula: $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

How about: $P(A \cup B \cup C) = ?$



The inclusion/exclusion principle

$$P(A \cup B \cup C) = P(A) + P(B) + P(C)$$

$$-P(A \cap B) - P(A \cap C) - P(B \cap C)$$

$$+P(A \cap B \cap C)$$

Countably Infinite sample spaces:

Countably infinite sets

The natural numbers: 1,2,3,4,5....

- -- an infinite set
- -- represents counting
- -- A set is infinitely countable if each element can be associated with a different integer index.
- -- Equivalently, if the elements can be put in a list

Other countable sets:

```
all integers (positive and negative): 0,-1,1,-2,2,-3,3,...
all words good order: words of length 1, words of length 2,
Lexicographical is a bad order: ace,ada,....,bad
```

The union of n countable sets (1,1),(2,1),...,(n,1); (1,2),(2,2),...,(n,2); (1,3),(2,3),...,(n,3);

The union of a countably many countable sets (1,1); (1,2),(2,1); (1,3),(2,2),(3,1),...

A,=(1,1), (1,2),(13)

The total probability equation for (countably) infinite sets

$$A_1, A_2, A_3, \ldots \subseteq \Omega$$

$$\forall i \neq j, A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$$

$$A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \cdots \doteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \Omega$$

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

$$C_{1}C+C_{1}C+C+C$$

Consider the natural numbers: 1,2,3,... Is it possible to define a uniform distribution over them?

1st possibility: 0=P(1)=P(2)=...
$$P(\Omega)=$$

$$P(\Omega) = \bigcirc$$



Infinite sums

What is the meaning of $\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i$?

$$p_i \ge 0$$
, $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i \doteq \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i$

This is a non-decreasing sequence it can either converge to some real number or to infinity (∞)

$$\mathbf{p}_{i} = \mathbf{c} \text{ (constant)} \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c = \lim_{n \to \infty} nc, \\
\text{If } c = 0: \quad 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 \to 0 \\
\text{If } c > 0: \quad c, 2c, 3c, 4c \to \infty$$

Power series

$$p_{i} = 1/2^{i}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_{i} = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8}, \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{7}{8}, \frac{15}{16}, \dots \to 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} ia^i = \frac{a}{(1-a)^2}$$

if a<1 the power series converges to a finite number

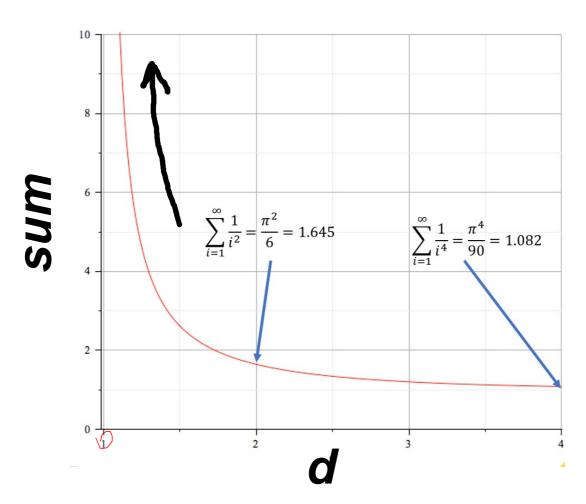
Dirichlet series

For any d>0 the dirichlet series is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^d} = \int_{2^3}^{\sqrt{q}} \frac{1}{2^3} + \int_{3^3}^{\sqrt{q}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q^3}} + \int_{3^3}^{\sqrt{q}$$

When is this sum finite?

Dirichlet series as a function of d



for d=1
$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (1/i) = \infty$$

Partition terms into groups:

- 1. smaller than 2, larger-equal to 1
- 2. smaller than 1, larger-equal to 1/2
- 3. smaller than 1/2, larger-equal to 1/4
- 4. smaller than 1/4, larger-equal to 1/8
- 5.

$$\left(\frac{1}{1}\right), \left(\frac{1}{2}\right), \left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}\right), \left(\frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{7}, \frac{1}{8}\right), \dots$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} \approx \ln n$$

Why are finite sums important?

Can we define a distribution over the natural numbers where

$$P_i = \frac{1}{Z} \frac{1}{i^2}$$
 Where $Z < \infty$?

YES: we set the *normalization* factor

$$Z = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

we get that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P_i = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z} \frac{1}{i^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^2}} = 1 = P(\Omega)$$

the total probability equation is satisfied

Why are finite sums important?

Can we define a distribution over the natural numbers where

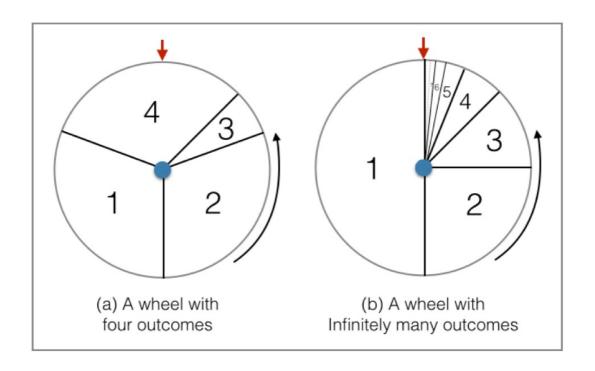
$$P_i = \frac{1}{Z} \frac{1}{i}$$
 Where $Z < \infty$?

NO: If $Z < \infty$ the sum of the probabilities over the natural numbers will be infinite:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P_i = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z} \frac{1}{i} = \frac{\infty}{Z} = \infty > 1 = P(\Omega)$$

the total probability equation is not satisfied

Probabilities over finite and countable sets

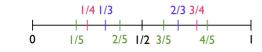


Infinite sample spaces: 2. UNCountably infinite

It might seem like we can represent all points on the segment [0,1] using a countable set: the rationals

Rationals Numbers that can be written as i/j, where i,j are natural numbers

The rationals are a countable set: 1/1; 1/2; 1/3,2/2; 1/4,2/3; 1/5,2/4,3/3; 1/6,2/5,3/4;



We can get arbitrarily close to any point in the segment [0,1]?

----- True: There is a rational number arbitrarily close to any point in segment [0,1]

We can represent (precisely) any point on the line?

---- False: there are irrational numbers, such as sqrt(2)

Suppose that we add to the rational the roots of rational numbers.

---- There is a countable number of those, so the union with the rationals is still a countable set.

----- We are still missing numbers such as pi. Suppose we add it to the mix.

----- Continuing with this process Can we eventually have all of the points in the segment??

---NO! A union of a countable collection of countable set is still countable!

--- And the set of points in [0,1] is uncountable!!

Next time: 1. why is the set uncountable?
2. How do we define distributions over uncountable sample spaces.