

Infinite outcome spaces

Why do we care about infinite sample spaces?

Countable example: suppose we are betting on the outcome of a coin. The odds are fair: At each round we can bet any positive amount $\$X$,

- * if we predict correctly, we get back our bet and an additional $\$X$, so our gain is $\$x$
- * if we are wrong, we lose the $\$X$ that we bet, so our loss is $\$X$

Here is a betting method that guarantees that we leave the casino with a gain of \$1:

- On the first round we bet \$1, if we win we stop.
- If we lose on the 1st round we bet \$2 on the 2nd round, if we win we stop.
- If we lose on the 2nd round we bet \$4 on the 3rd round, if we win we stop.
-
- If we lose on the n 'th round we bet $\$2^n$ on the $(n+1)$ round, if we win we stop.
-

Let E_n be the event that we stop on round n . What is $P(E_n)$?

UnCountable example:

Suppose we pick a real number from the uniform distribution over the interval $[0,1]$

What is the probability that the number is $1/3$?

What is the probability that the number is of the form $1/i$ for some integer i ?

What is the probability that the number is rational?

What is the probability that the number is smaller than 0.1?

Properties of general probability distributions

$$\forall A \subseteq \Omega, 0 \leq P(A) \leq 1 \quad P(\Omega) = 1$$

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

$$\forall A, B \subseteq \Omega, A \cap B = \emptyset \quad \text{Disjoint sets}$$

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

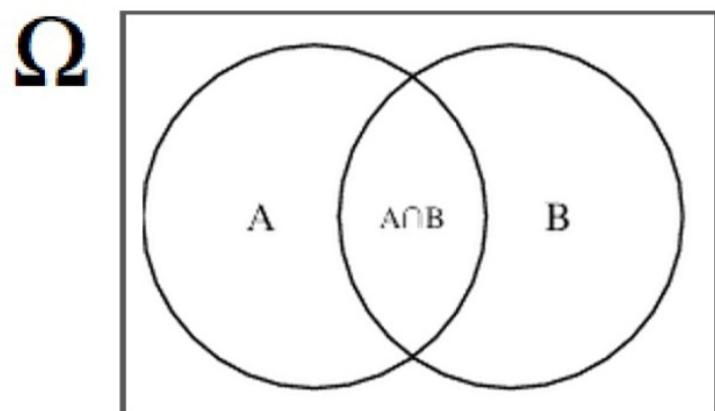
Suppose A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are pairwise

disjoint: $\forall i \neq j \quad A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$

$$\text{Then } P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$$

A few simple questions:

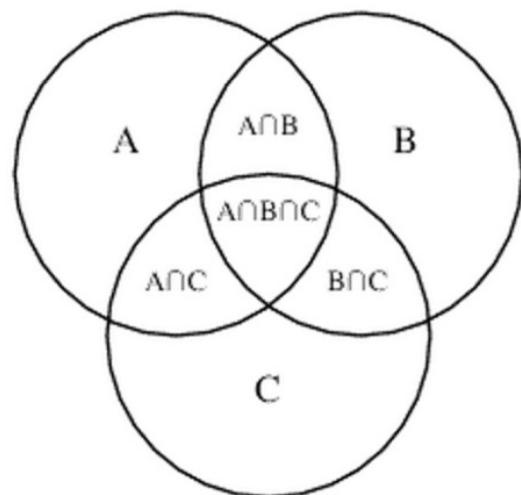
If $P(A) = \frac{1}{2}$, $P(B) = \frac{2}{3}$, What can be said about $P(A \cap B)$?



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

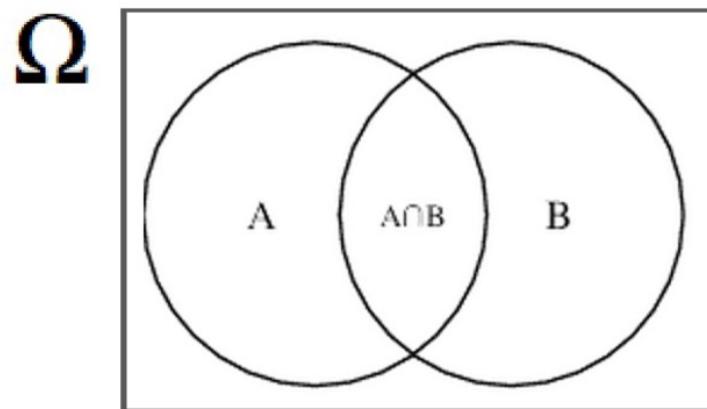
How about: $P(A \cup B \cup C) = ?$

$$\begin{aligned}P(A \cup B \cup C) &= P(A) + P(B) + P(C) \\&\quad - P(A \cap B) - P(A \cap C) - P(B \cap C) \\&\quad + P(A \cap B \cap C)\end{aligned}$$



The inclusion/exclusion principle

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



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 given a natural number index 1,2,3,4,5,...

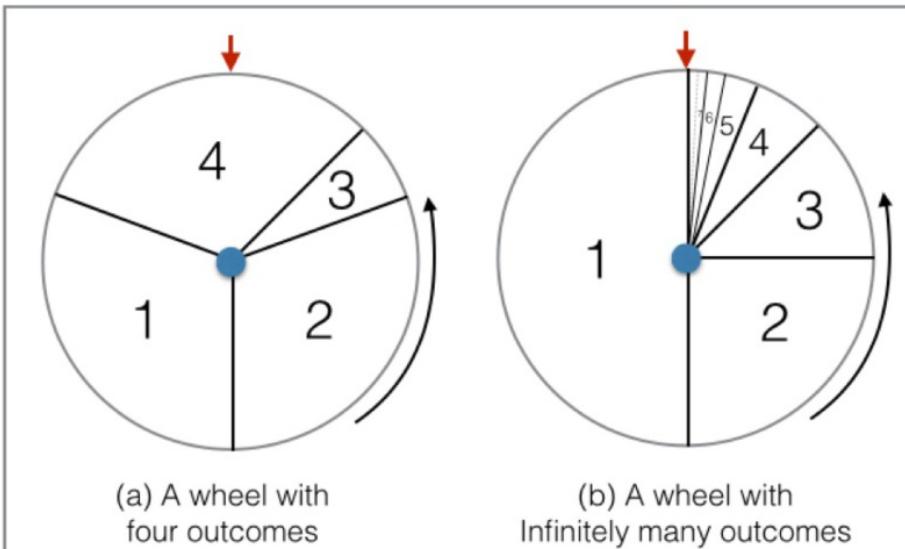
-- Equivalently, if the elements can be put in a list

Examples:

• The integers (pos and neg)

• Numbers of the form $\frac{1}{i}$ $i=1,2,3\dots$

• Rational numbers: of the form $\frac{i}{j}$ i,j are natural



finite

Countably
infinite

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

$$p_i \geq 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i \doteq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n p_i$$

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

$p_i = c$ (constant) $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} nc,$

If $c = 0$: $0,0,0,0,0,0 \rightarrow 0$

If $c > 0$: $c, 2c, 3c, 4c \rightarrow \infty$

The total probability equation for (countably) infinite sets

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

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

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

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

Consider the natural numbers: 1,2,3,...

Is it possible to define a uniform distribution over them?

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

2nd possibility: $0 < P(1) = P(2) = \dots$ $P(\Omega) =$

Analysis of the bet doubling scheme

Here is a betting method that guarantees that we leave the casino with a gain of \$1:

- On the first round we bet \$1, if we win we stop.
- If we lose on the 1st round we bet \$2 on the 2nd round, if we win we stop.
- If we lose on the 2nd round we bet \$4 on the 3rd round, if we win we stop.
-
- If we lose on the n'th round we bet $\$2^n$ on the (n+1) round, if we win we stop.
-

Let E_n be the event that we stop on round n. What is $P(E_n)$?

$$P(E_1) = \frac{1}{2} ; P(E_2) = ; \dots ; P(E_i) =$$

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

- **Geometric Series:** Let r be a number in the range $[0, 1]$, i.e. $0 \leq r \leq 1$. Then:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r^i = \frac{1}{1-r}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} r^i = \frac{r}{1-r}$$

Doubling bets : $r = \frac{1}{2}$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} ir^i = \frac{r}{(1-r)^2}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^i =$$

Note that if $r=1$ the sums are infinite.

Can we use any sequence converging to zero?

Is it enough if $p_i \xrightarrow{i \rightarrow \infty} 0$?

Can we define a distribution of the form $P(i)c/i$?

No, because $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (1/i) = \infty$

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

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

Can we define a distribution of the form

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

Yes, because $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \approx 1.6449\dots$

If we define the distribution to be $P(X = i) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 i^2}$

Then the sum of the probabilities over all natural numbers is 1

**If the series is finite then we can define a distribution by dividing each term by the sum of the series
= the normalization factor**

Z

$$\text{if } \alpha > 1 \quad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^\alpha} < \infty$$

It seems like we can represent the points on the line using a countable set

Rational
Numbers

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

Each element corresponds to a pair of natural numbers. Therefore the

The rational numbers in $[0,1]$:



The distance between i/n and $(i+1)/n$ is $1/n$

As n increases the distance decreases to zero

---> the rationals are dense on the line

= there is a rational number arbitrarily close to any positive real number

Does that mean that all real numbers are rational? NO! ($\sqrt{2}$)

Does that mean that the reals are countable? NO!

The real number $0 \leq x \leq 1$ are uncountable

Proof by contradiction:

- 1. suppose they are countable.*
- 2. write the list of all of the numbers in binary expansion*

*0.000001101001100011100010001000...
0.000101101001100011100010001000...
0.000000101001100011100010001000 ...
0.000001001001100011100010001000 ...
0.0000001100001100011100010001000 ...
0.0000001101000000011100010001000 ...
0.0000001101001111011100010001000 ...
0.0000001101001100111100010001000 ...
0.0000001101001100011000010001000 ..*

*Construct a number that differes from the 1st element in the
1st position, from the 2nd in the 2nd position ...*

0.11111001011...

This number is not in the list: contradiction

The Kolmogorov Axioms of probability theory

- 1) $\Pr(\Omega) = 1$
- 2) If V is a **countable** collection of disjoint events:

$$V = \{A_1, A_2, \dots\}, \quad \forall i \neq j, \quad A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$$

Then Probability of the union is equal to the sum of the probabilities:

$$\Pr\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr(A_i)$$

We would like to define a uniform distribution over a range of reals $[a,b]$.
Let $\Pr(x)=c$ if $a \leq x \leq b$

Don't we get a contradiction?

$$a < b, \quad \sum_{a \leq x \leq b} c = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } c = 0 \\ \infty & \text{if } c > 0 \end{cases}$$

No, because the sum is required to hold only over countable sets, and the set of points in $[a,b]$ is **uncountable**

$$\sum_{a \leq x \leq b} 0 = 1$$

The uniform distribution over [0,1]

$$0 \leq x_1, x_2, \dots \leq 1$$

$$P(\{x_1\}) = 0$$

$$P(\{x_1, x_2\}) = 0$$

$$P(\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}) = 0$$

But, if $0 \leq a < b \leq 1$

$$P([a, b]) = b - a$$

Prob of other sets:

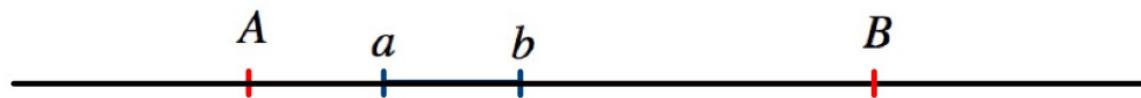
Construct from Countable

Unions & Intersections
of intervals

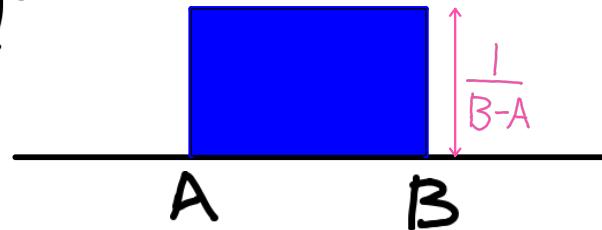
U(A,B) = The Uniform distribution over the segment [A,B]

$U(A,B)$ is defined by assigning probability
to every segment $[a,b]$ where $A \leq a \leq b \leq B$ ($A < B$)

$$\Pr([a,b]) = \Pr((a,b)) = \frac{b-a}{B-A}$$

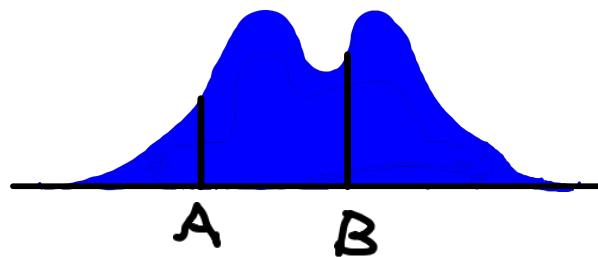


uniform density:



general density

$$P([A, B]) = \int_A^B f(x) dx$$



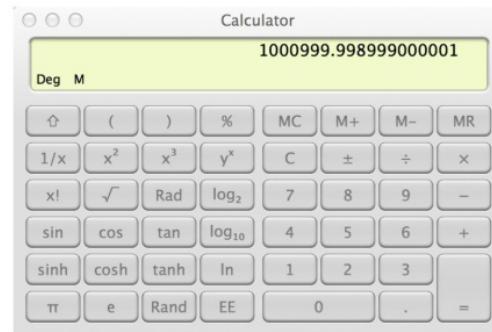
$\forall x \quad f(x) \geq 0$ ($f(x)$ can be larger than 1)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

next class
PDF, CDF
& mixtures

General Probability Spaces

$$\frac{1}{1000} - \frac{1}{1001} = \frac{1}{\frac{1001-1000}{1000 \times 1001}} = 1001000$$



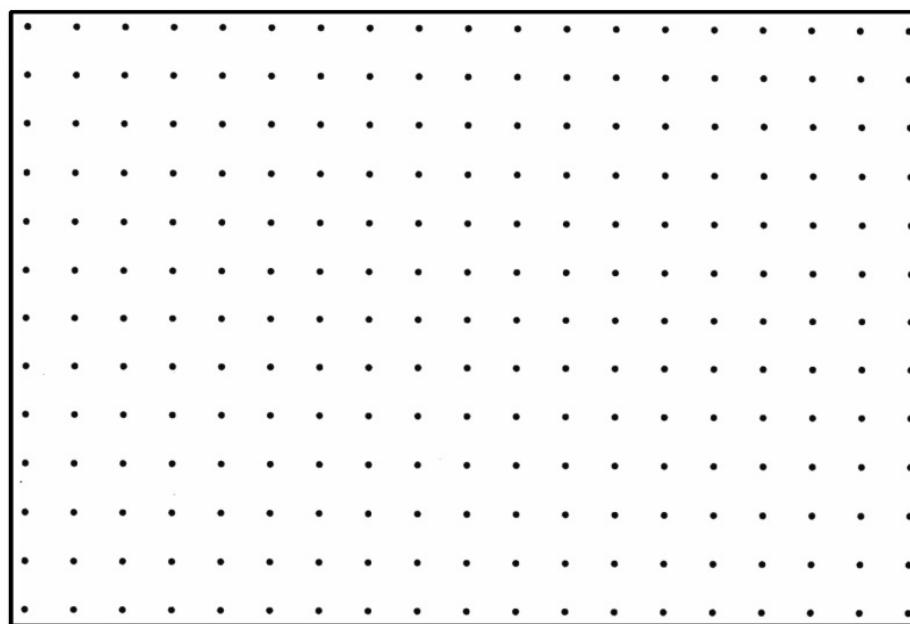
$1/10000 = 1e-4$ not $9.9E-5$

***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

Ω



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

a	b	c	d	e
0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2

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

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

a	b	c	d	e
0.1	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.1

$$\begin{aligned}P(\{a,c,d\}) &= p(a) + p(c) + p(d) \\&= 0.1 + 0.5 + 0.1 = 0.7\end{aligned}$$

Properties of general probability distributions

$$\forall A \subseteq \Omega, 0 \leq P(A) \leq 1 \quad P(\Omega) = 1$$

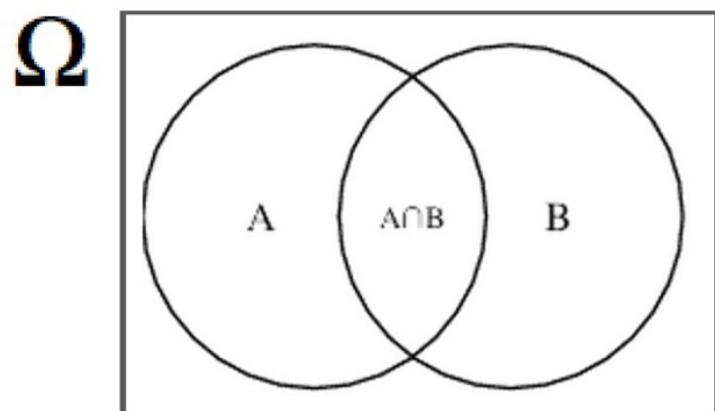
$$\forall A, B \subseteq \Omega, P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$$

$$\forall A, B \subseteq \Omega, A \cap B = \emptyset \quad \text{Disjoint sets}$$

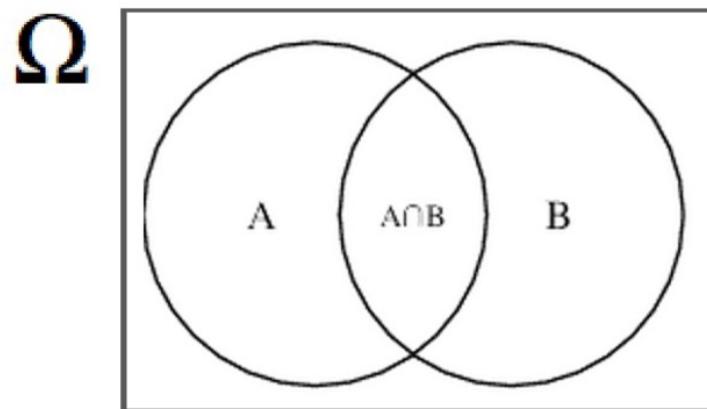
$$\Rightarrow P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

A few simple questions:

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



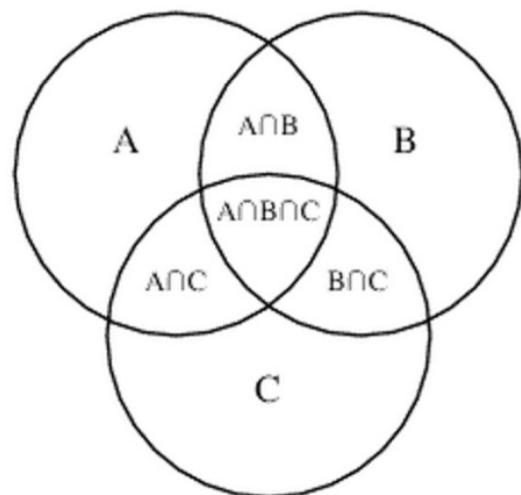
If $P(A) = \frac{1}{2}$, $P(B) = \frac{1}{3}$, $P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{6}$, What is $P(A \cup B) =$?



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

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

$$\begin{aligned}P(A \cup B \cup C) &= P(A) + P(B) + P(C) \\&\quad - P(A \cap B) - P(A \cap C) - P(B \cap C) \\&\quad + P(A \cap B \cap C)\end{aligned}$$



The inclusion/exclusion principle

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 given an integer index.*
- *Equivalently, if the elements can be put in a list*

The total probability equation for (countably) infinite sets

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

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

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

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

Consider the natural numbers: 1, 2, 3, ...

Is it possible to define a uniform distribution over them?

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

2nd possibility: $0 < P(1) = P(2) = \dots$ $P(\Omega) =$

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

$$p_i \geq 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i \doteq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n p_i$$

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

$p_i = c$ (constant) $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} nc,$

If $c = 0$: $0,0,0,0,0,0 \rightarrow 0$

If $c > 0$: $c, 2c, 3c, 4c \rightarrow \infty$

Is it enough if $p_i \xrightarrow{i \rightarrow \infty} 0$?

Can we define a distribution of the form $P(i)c/i$?

No, because $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (1/i) = \infty$

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

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

Can we define a distribution of the form $P[X(\omega) = i] = \frac{c}{i^2}$?

Yes, because $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \approx 1.6449\dots$

If we define the distribution to be $P(X = i) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 i^2}$

Then the sum of the probabilities over all natural numbers is 1

**If the series is finite then we can define a distribution by dividing each term by the sum of the series
= the normalization factor**

$$\text{if } \alpha > 1 \quad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^{\alpha}} < \infty$$

- **Geometric Series:** Let r be a number in the range $[0, 1]$, i.e. $0 \leq r \leq 1$. Then:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r^i = \frac{1}{1-r}$$

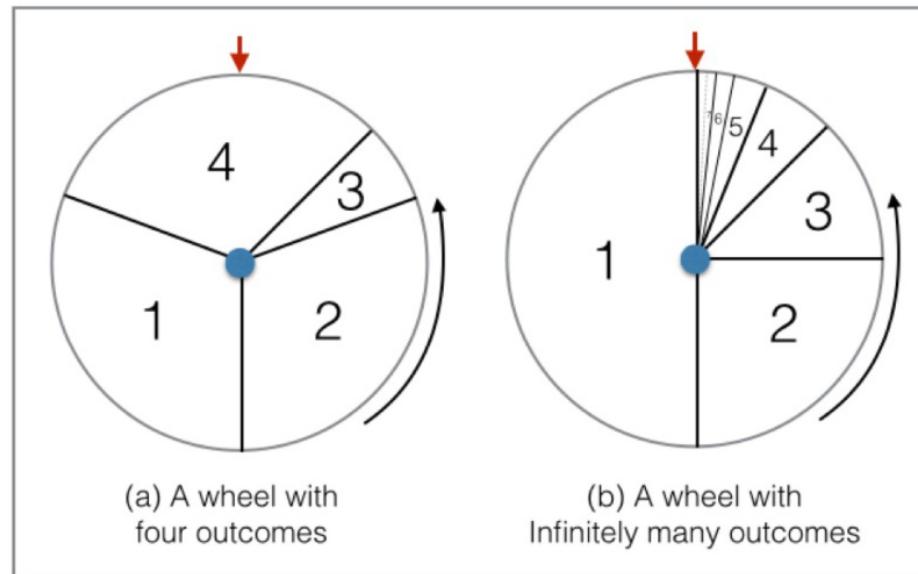
$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} r^i = \frac{r}{1-r}$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} ir^i = \frac{r}{(1-r)^2}$$

Note that if $r=1$ the sums are infinite.

Probabilities over uncountable sets



How can we define the uniform distribution over angles?
Each angle has probability 0
Summing over all angle still gives 0

It seems like we can represent the points on the line using a countable set

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

Each element corresponds to a pair of natural numbers. Therefore the

The rational numbers in $[0,1]$:



The distance between i/n and $(i+1)/n$ is $1/n$

As n increases the distance decreases to zero

---> the rationals are dense on the line

= there is a rational number arbitrarily close to any positive real number

Does that mean that all real numbers are rational? NO! ($\sqrt{2}$)

Does that mean that the reals are countable? NO!

The real number $0 \leq x \leq 1$ are uncountable

Proof by contradiction:

1. suppose they are countable.
2. write the list of **all** of the numbers in binary expansion

0.000001101001100011100010001000...

0.000101101001100011100010001000...

0.000000101001100011100010001000 ...

0.0000001001001100011100010001000 ...

0.0000001100001100011100010001000 ...

0.0000001101000000011100010001000 ...

0.0000001101001111011100010001000 ...

0.0000001101001100111100010001000 ...

0.000000110100110001100010001000 ..

*Construct a number that differes from the 1st element in the
1st position, from the 2nd in the 2nd position ...*

0.11111001011...

This number is not in the list: contradiction

The uniform distribution over [0,1]

$$0 \leq x_1, x_2, \dots \leq 1$$

$$P(\{x_1\}) = 0$$

$$P(\{x_1, x_2\}) = 0$$

$$P(\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}) = 0$$

But, if $0 \leq a < b \leq 1$

$$P([a, b]) = b - a$$

*This is called a density distribution.
General density distributions - on monday.*

For Friday

- 1. Read Chapter 5 (it is updated)***
- 2. Start working on the homework (Get going, it is harder than previous)***
- 3. Akshay will replace me on Friday lecture.***

Densities vs. Point Mass distributions
Mixtures
Histograms vs. CDFs

The Kolmogorov Axioms of probability theory

- 1) $\Pr(\Omega) = 1$
- 2) If V is a **countable** collection of disjoint events:

$$V = \{A_1, A_2, \dots\}, \quad \forall i \neq j, \quad A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$$

Then Probability of the union is equal to the sum of the probabilities:

$$\Pr\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr(A_i)$$

lets consider the segment $[0,1]$. Each point can be represented by an infinite digital expansion. i.e. $0.7345231323\dots$

To say that the set $[0,1]$ is uncountable means that it is impossible to create a list that contains all of these points.

Proof by contradiction:

assume it is possible and
show that there is a point that is not in the list.

0.4491

0.23324284902394839994839948391701...

diagonalization
method 0.33242659180129278501929388832938...

0.45231982375819828837829938271959...

0.64526481727366366277736281727367...

· · ·

· · · ·

We would like to define a uniform distribution over a range of reals $[a,b]$.
Let $\Pr(x)=c$ if $a \leq x \leq b$

Don't we get a contradiction?

$$a < b, \quad \sum_{a \leq x \leq b} c = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } c = 0 \\ \infty & \text{if } c > 0 \end{cases}$$

No, because the sum is required to hold only over countable sets, and the set of points in $[a,b]$ is **uncountable**

$$\sum_{a \leq x \leq b} 0 = 1$$

line segments: closed, open and half closed/half open:

$$[a, b] = \{x | a \leq x \leq b\}$$



$$(a, b) = \{x | a < x < b\}$$



$$[a, b) = \{x | a \leq x < b\}$$



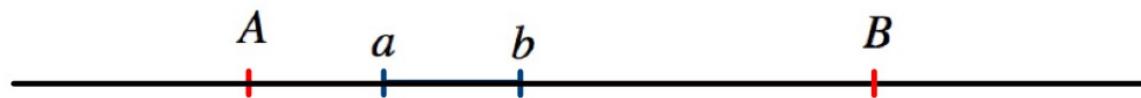
$$(a, b] = \{x | a < x \leq b\}$$



U(A,B) = The Uniform distribution over the segment [A,B]

$U(A,B)$ is defined by assigning probability
to every segment $[a,b]$ where $A \leq a \leq b \leq B$ ($A < B$)

$$\Pr([a,b]) = \Pr((a,b)) = \frac{b-a}{B-A}$$



Lets calculate the probability of some sets with respect to the uniform distribution

Fix the probability distribution $U(-1,1)$

$$P([-1/3, 1/3]) = (1/3 - -1/3) / (1 - -1) = (2/3) / 2 = 1/3$$

$$P([-1, 0]) =$$

$$P([-2, 0]) =$$

$$P([-3, 2]) =$$

$$P([0, 2]) =$$

$$P([-2, -1/2] \cup [1/2, 2]) =$$

|

PDF - the Probability Density Function

When the density distribution is **uniform**, it is easy to de

$$U(a,b) : \text{for all } a \leq x \leq y \leq b, \quad P([x,y]) = \frac{y-x}{b-a}$$

When the density distribution is **not uniform**,

we define a "probability density function" : $f(x) \doteq \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{Pr(}{$

and the probability of a segment $[x,y]$ is: $Pr([x,y]) =$

PDF and CDF

The Probability Density function is shortened to PDF

Another popular representation of a distribution on the real is the CDF: Cumulative Distribution function

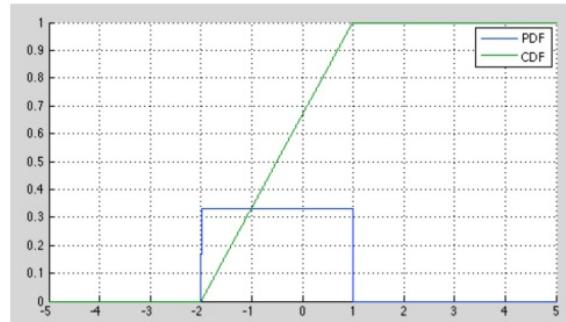
The CDF F is defined as $F(a) \doteq \Pr(x \leq a)$

For density distributions, one can translate between PDF and CDF:

$$F(a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x)dx; \quad f(a) = \left. \frac{dF(x)}{dx} \right|_{x=a}$$

CDF and PDF of the uniform distribution

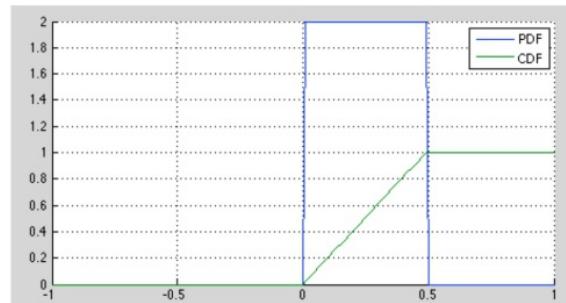
$U(-2,1)$



$f(x) = \text{PDF} = \text{Probability Density Function}$

$F(x) = \text{CDF} = \text{Cumulative Distribution function}$

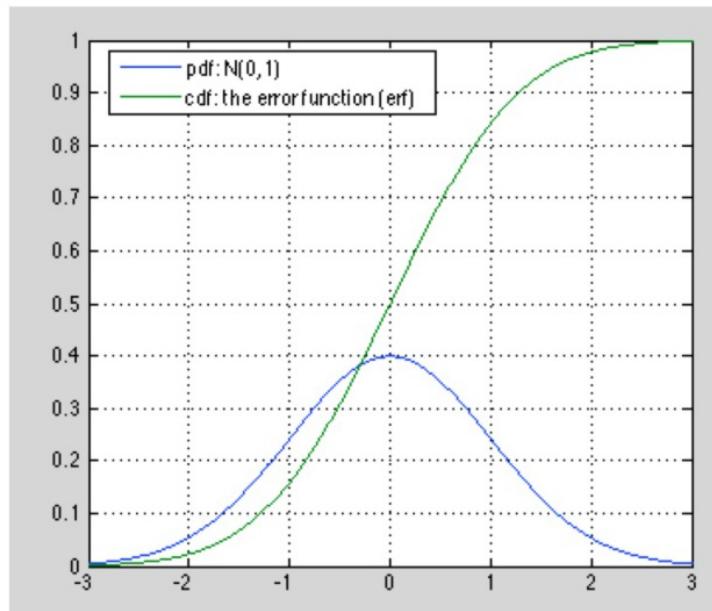
$U(0,0.5)$



$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(s)ds$$

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x)$$

The normal distribution

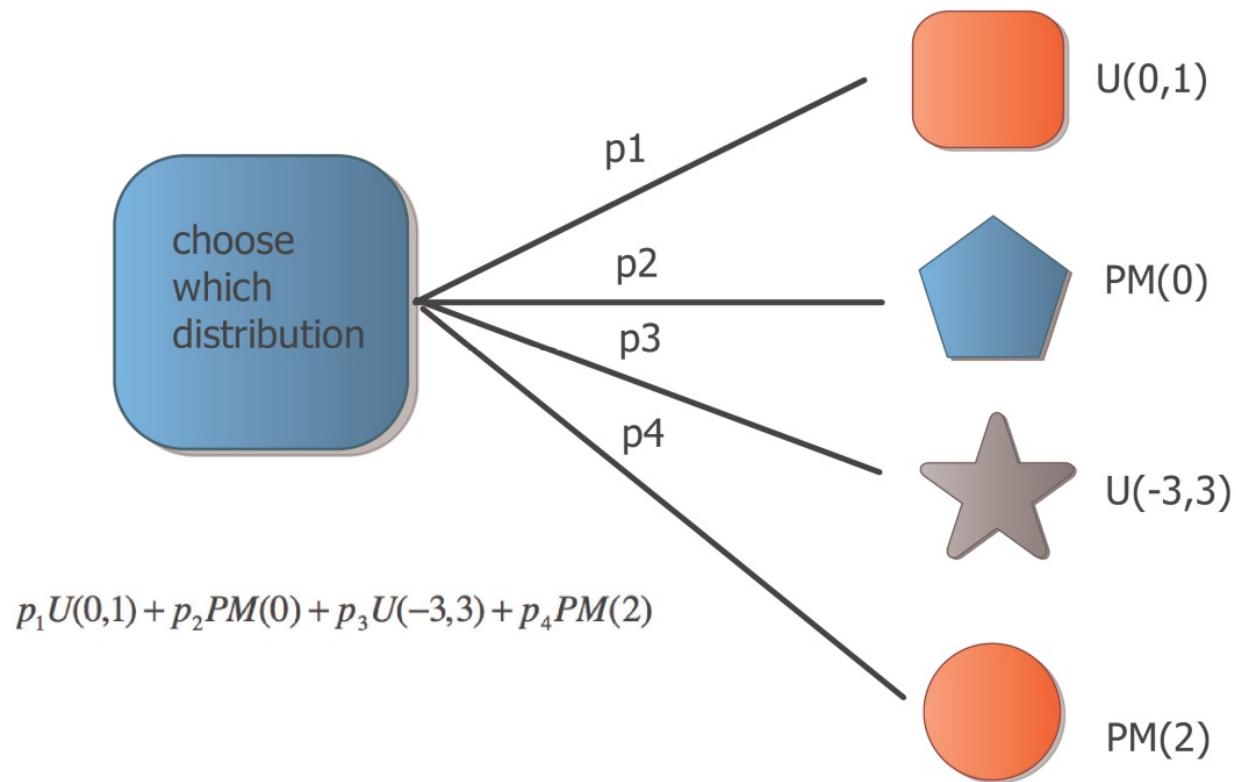


The normal distribution
density function is

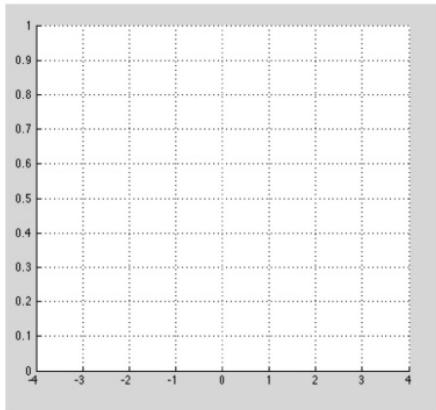
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

add exponential

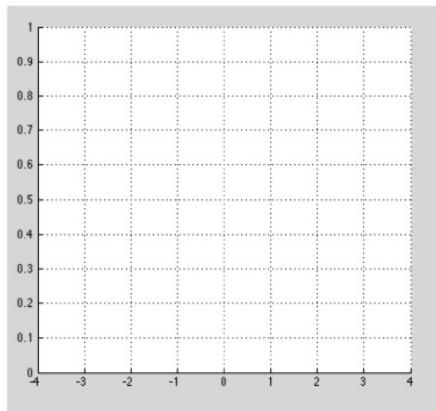
Mixtures distributions



PM(1)



U(-1,2)



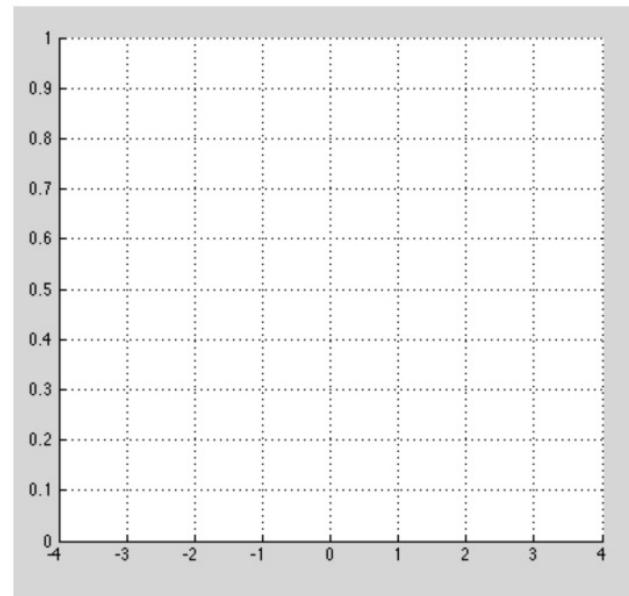
Three PMs

$$0.2PM(-1) + 0.5PM(0) + 0.3PM(3)$$

$$F(-1.01) = 0; \quad F(-1) = 0.2$$

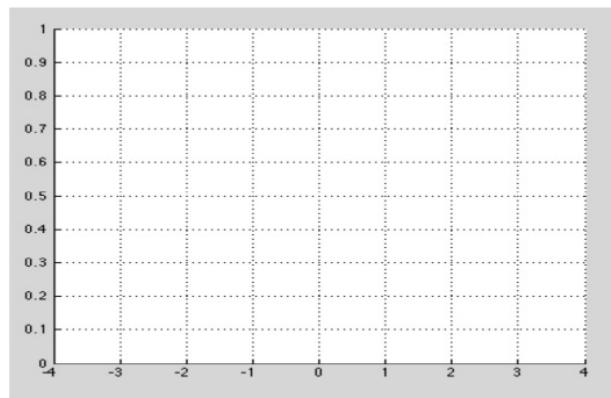
$$F(-0.01) = 0.2; \quad F(0) = 0.7$$

$$F(2.99) = 0.7; \quad F(3) = 1.0$$

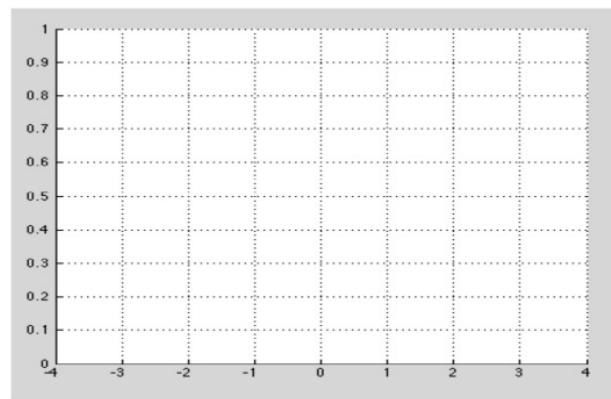


Two Uniforms

$$0.4U(-2,0) + 0.6U(1,3)$$
$$F(-2) = 0; \quad F(0) = 0.4;$$
$$F(1) = 0.4; \quad F(3) = 1.0$$

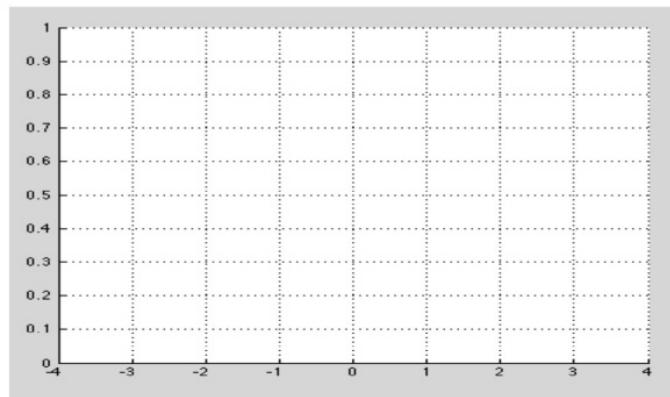


$$0.4U(0,2) + 0.6U(1,3)$$
$$F(0) = 0;$$
$$F(1) = 0.5 * 0.4 = 0.2;$$
$$F(2) = 0.4 + 0.5 * 0.6 = 0.7;$$
$$F(3) = 1.0$$

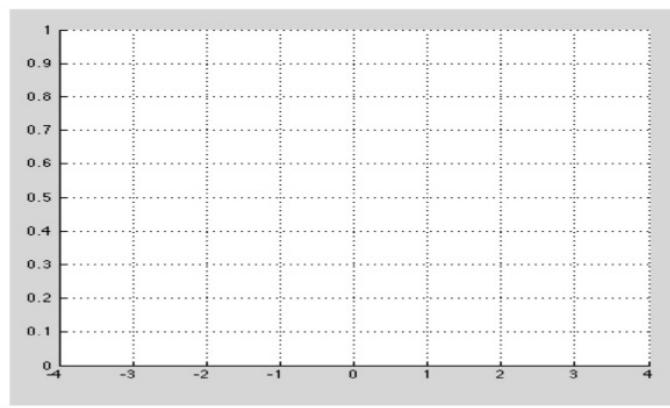


Uniform and Point Mass

$0.3PM(-2) + 0.7U(-1,1)$
 $F(-2.01) = 0; F(-2) = 0.3;$
 $F(-1) = 0.3;$
 $F(1) = 1.0$

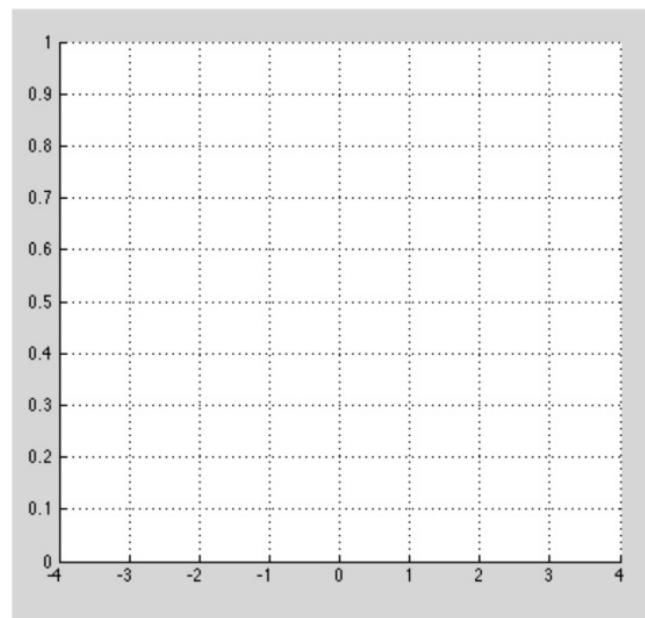


$0.3PM(0) + 0.7U(-1,1)$
 $F(-1) = 0;$
 $F(-0.0001) = 0.34999$
 $F(0) = 0.65$
 $F(1) = 0$

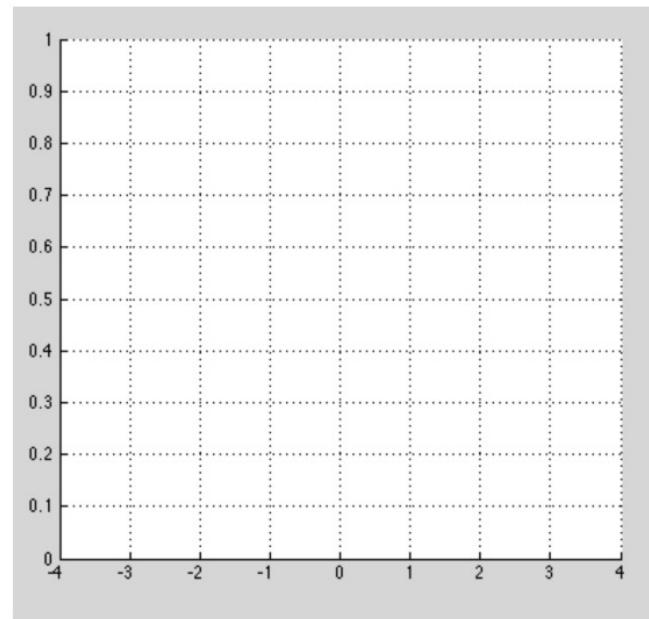


$$p_1 U(0,1) + p_2 PM(0) + p_3 U(-3,3) + p_4 PM(2)$$

Suppose P1=1/10, p2=2/10,p3=3/10,p4=4/10

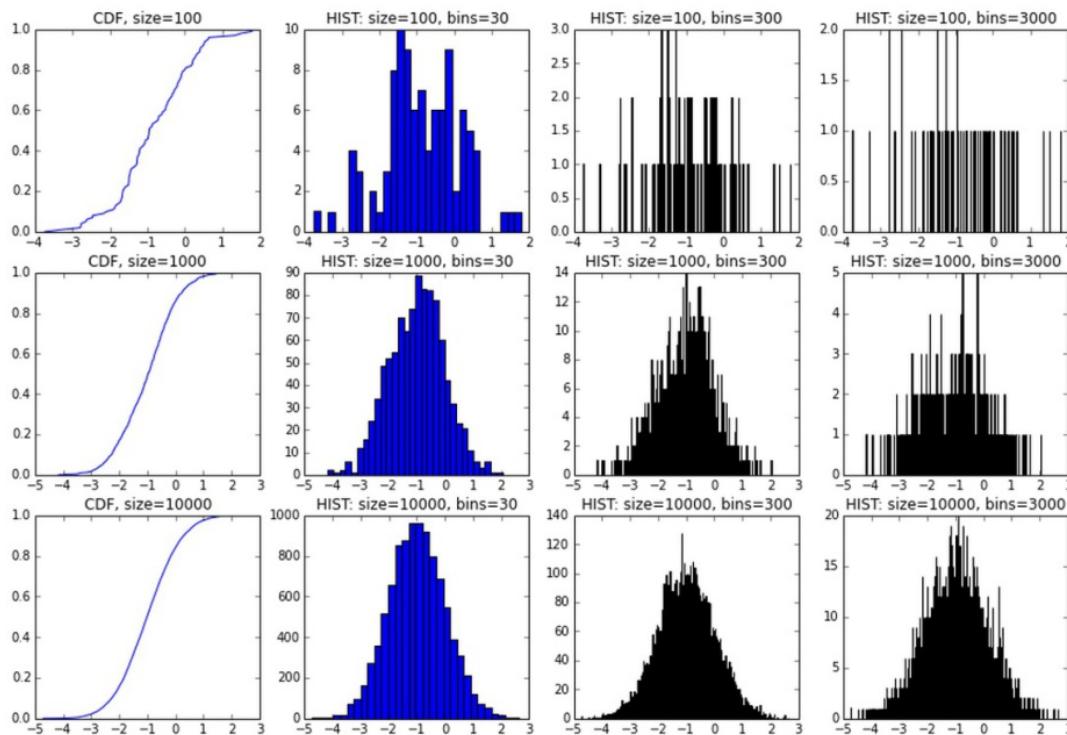


PDF+PM

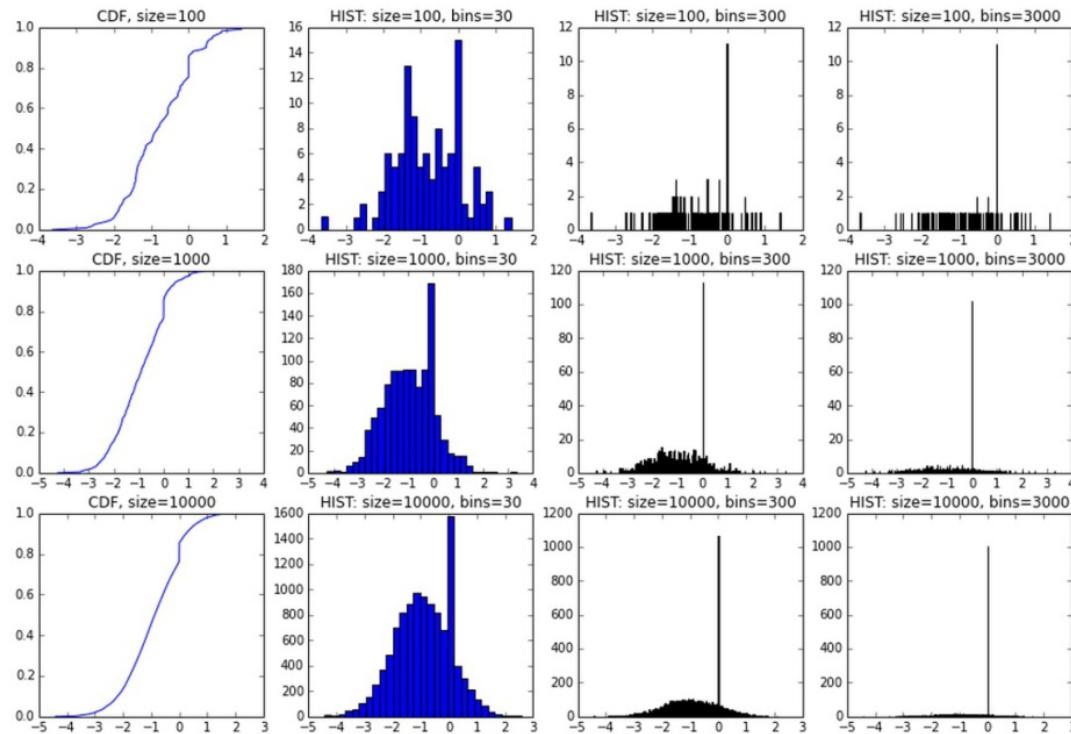


CDF

$N(-1, 1) = \text{A normal distribution centered at } -1, \text{ with width 1}$



**A mixture of the normal and a point-mass
 $(10^*N(-1,1) + PM(0))$**



- 1. It is often hard to choose the number of bins in a histogram**
- 2. When the distribution is a mixture of Point Masses and densities - there is no good choice.**
- 3. Plotting CDFs does not require choosing a parameter.**
- 4. Mixtures of PM and densities is not a problem.**

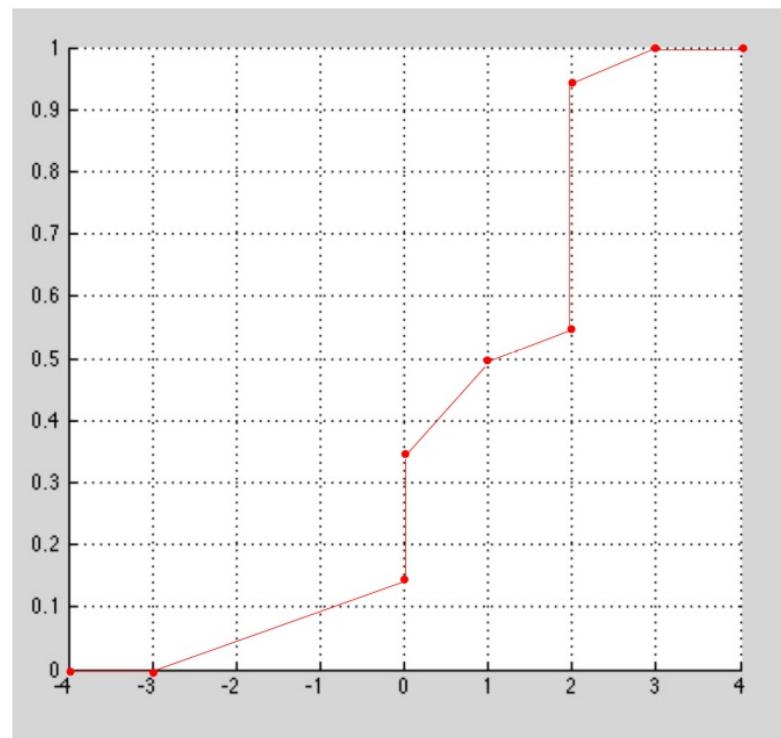
$$.1U(0,1) + .2PM(0) + .3U(-3,3) + .4PM(2)$$

$$F(-3) = 0; F(-.01) \approx .5 * .3 = .15$$

$$F(0) = .35; F(1) = .35 + .1 + \frac{.3}{6} = 0.5;$$

$$F(1.99) \approx 0.5 + 0.05 = 0.55; F(2) = 0.95$$

$$F(3) = 0.95 + \frac{.3}{6} = 1.0$$



density distributions vs. Point-Mass distribution

Point mass distributions assign non-zero probability to individual points.

$$PM(a) \text{ ---- } P(X=a)=1$$

Density distributions assign non-zero probability to segments.

The probability of any single point under a density distribution is zero.

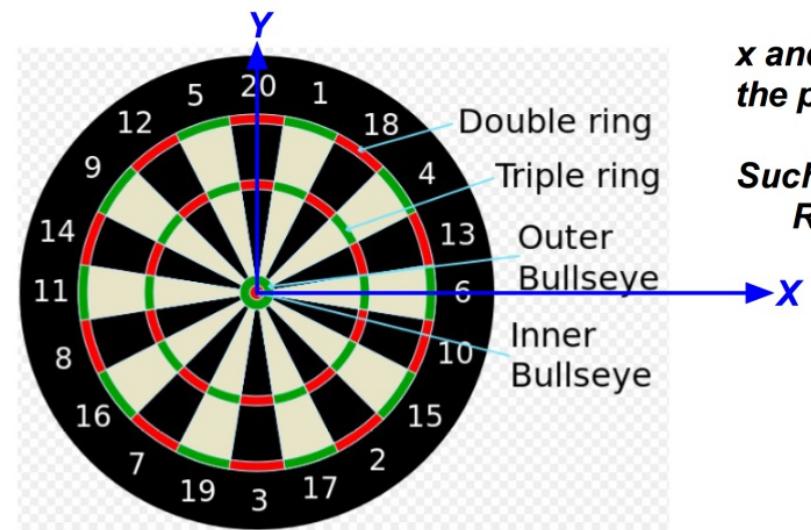
$$\Rightarrow \text{as a result } P([a,b])=P((a,b))=P([a,b))=P((a,b])$$

\Rightarrow the probability of any countable set is zero.

\Rightarrow for example the probability of all rational numbers in $[0,1]$, under the uniform distribution over $[0,1]$ is zero!!!

In other words, if you pick a random number from $U(0,1)$
the probability that it is a rational number is zero !!!

Densities over a 2D space



the sample space is the plane

x and y are mappings from the plane to R

Such mappings are called Random Variables

A natural assumption: the probability distribution of the location (x,y) that the dart falls is a density function that is highest at the bullseye and gets lower the further from the bullseye you get.