layered
trees

1 Session 1

1.1 Review of Set Theory

A set is a collection of object called elements (of the set)
Notation : Upper case letters are used to denote sets

Ex : A = set of all students in MATH 323.
An element of the set A is any student in MATH 323

1.1.1 Particular Set

1. Empty set
Notation : $\varnothing$
Def : Set with no element

Ex : Let A = $\{a, b, c\}$
a $\in$ A : a belongs to A
d $\notin$ A : d is not in A

1.1.2 Operations on sets

1. Union
   Let A, B be two sets.
   $$A \cup B = \{x | x \in \text{A or } x \in B\}$$
   (a) $A = \{a.b.c\} \qquad B = \{c, d, e\}$
   $A \cup B = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$
   (b) $A = (-2, +\inf) \qquad B = (-4, 6)$
   $A \cup B = (-4, +\inf)$
2. Intersection Let A, B be two sets
   $$A \cap B = \{x | x \in \text{A and } x \in B\}$$
   (a) $A = \{a, b, d\} \qquad B = \{b, d, e\}$
   $A \cap B = \{b, d\}$
   (b) $A = (-2, +\inf] \qquad B = (-6, 2)$
   $A \cap B = (-2, 2)$
   (c) $A = (2, +\inf) \qquad B = (-6, 2)$
   $A \cap B = \{\varnothing\}$

   A and B are distant
   $$A \cup B = \varnothing \iff A = B = \varnothing$$
3. Complement

1.1.3 Properties of sets

1. $A \cap B = B \cap A$
   $A \cup B = B \cap A$

2. $A \cap \varnothing = \varnothing$
   $A \cup \varnothing = A$

3. $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$
   $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$

4. $(A^c)^c = A$

5. $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$
   $(A \cap B)^c = A^C \cup B^c$

Proof. Let's prove 5 !
E = F means

1. $E \subseteq F$
2. $F \subseteq E$

Proving $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$

1. $\subseteq$
   Let $x \in (A \cup B)^x$, this means that $x \notin (A \cup B)$
   $x \notin A$ and $x \notin B$
   $x \in A^c$ and $x \in B^c$
   $x \in (A^c \cap B^c)$
2. $\supseteq$
   Let $x \in (A^c \cap B^c)$
   $x \in A^c$ and $x \in B^c$
   $x \notin A$, $x \notin B$
   $x \notin (A \cup B)$
   $x \in (A \cup B)^c$

$\square$

1.1.4 Other notation

1. $\setminus$
   $A \setminus B = \{x \in A | x \notin B\}$
   $A \setminus B = A \cap B^c$
2. $\triangle$
   $A \triangle B = A \setminus B \cup B \setminus A$

1.2 Let's start probability

Probability : studying random events as opposed to deterministic events
Random Experiments : experiments such that the outcome is unknown, but part of a set called Ω
Ex

1. Toss a coin
   $\Omega = \{H, T\}$

2. Roll a dice
   $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4, \omega_5, \omega_6\}$
   ω_i is the number i appera on the top-face of the dice.

3. Tossing a coin until H appears
   $\Omega = \{"H", "TH", "TTH", "TTTH", ..., TT...TH, ...\}$

Let Ω be the set of all outcomes of a random experiment. A subset of Ω is called an event

1. Elementary event
   An event with only one outcome

2. Compounded event
   An event that has 2 or more elements

Remark : compounded events can be written as the union of elementary event

Ex :

1. Rolling a dice
   $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4, \omega_5, \omega_6\}$
   $\{\omega_i\}$ is an elementary event (while ω_i is an outcome). There are six elementary event, namely $\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4, \omega_5, \omega_6$

2. Rolling a dice and getting an even number
   A is the even where the number obtained is even.
   $A = \{\omega_2, \omega_4, \omega_6\}$
   A is a compounded event therefore $A = \{\omega_2\} \cup \{\omega_4\} \cup \{\omega_6\}$

1.2.1 Power set of Ω

Let Ω be the set of outcomes for a random experiment. The power set of Ω is the set of all events (i.e. the ste of all subsets of Ω.
Notation : $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$

Ex : Tossing a coin
$\Omega = \{H, T\}$
$\mathcal{P}(\Omega) = \{\varnothing, \{H\}, \{T\}, \Omega\}$

1.2.2 Probability

Def : Let Ω be the set of outcomes corresponding to a random experiment.
Remark : Ω is also called a sample space

A probability P is a function

$$P : \mathcal{P}(\Omega) \to [0, 1]$$

1.2.3 Properties of probabilities

1. $P(\Omega) = 1$

2. If $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n, ...$ is a sequence of pairwise, disjoint events. (i.e. $A_i \cap A_j = \varnothing$ if $i \neq j$) then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n)$$

Remark : In practice, if Ω is finite, $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_n\}$ where n = card(Ω). The cardinality is the number of elements in a set.

Let P be a probability on Ω. Set $P_i = P(\{\omega_i\}$. Then $\sum_{i=1}^{n} P_i = 1$

$$\Omega = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{w_i\} \text{ and } \{w_i\} \cap \{w_j\} = \varnothing \text{ if } i \neq j$$

By 1 and 2

$$1 = P(\Omega) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(\{\omega_i\}) = \sum_{n}^{i=1} P_i$$

Remark : 2. holds if $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ is a finite sequence of pairwise, disjoint set

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

$$\underbrace{A_1, A_2, ..., A_n}_{\mathcal{P}(\Omega)}, \underbrace{A_{n+1}, ...}_{\varnothing}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i) + P(\varnothing) = 1 + 0 = 1$$

Ex : Rolling a dice

$$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4, \omega_5, \omega_6\}$$

The following defines a probability on $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$

$$P(\{\omega_1\} = P(\{\omega_2\} = P(\{\omega_3\} = P(\{\omega_5\} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P(\omega_4\} = \frac{1}{4} \qquad P\{\omega_6\} = \frac{1}{12}$$

Let A be the event where the number obtained when rolling a dice is even. What is P(A).

$$A = \{\omega_2, \omega_4, \omega_6\} = \{\omega_2\} \cup \{\omega_4\} \cup \{\omega_6\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) =& P(\{\omega_2\}) + P(\{\omega_4\}) + P(\{\omega_6\}) \\ =& \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{12} \\ =& \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

2 Session 2

2.1 Properties

1. $P(\varnothing) = 0$
2. $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$
   This is useful when finding P(A) is difficult or complicated.
3. $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

Proof. 1. $P(\varnothing) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega =& \Omega \cup \varnothing \\ \Omega \cap \varnothing =& \varnothing \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 =& P(\Omega) \\ 1 =& P(\Omega \cup \varnothing) \\ 1 =& P(\Omega) + P(\varnothing) \\ 1 =& 1 + P(\varnothing) \\ 0 =& P(\varnothing \end{aligned}$$

2. $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega =& A \cup A^c \\ A \cap A^C =& \varnothing \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 =& P(\Omega) \\ 1 =& P(A \cup A^c) \\ 1 =& P(A) + P(A^c) \\ P(A) =& 1 - P(A^c) \end{aligned}$$

3. $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$
   Remark : Another way to express $A \cup B$ is $(A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A) \cup (A \cap B)$
   We can therefore say that $P(A \cup B) = P(A \setminus B) + P(A \cap B) + P(B \setminus A)$

   Remark : Another way to express $A = (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap B)$
   Remark : $(A \setminus B) \cap (A \cap B) = \varnothing$

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) =& P(A \setminus B) + P(A \cap B) \\ P(B) =& P(B \setminus A) + P(A \cap B) \\ P(A) + P(B) =& P(A \setminus B) + 2 \times P(A \cap B) + P(B \setminus A) \\ P(A) + P(B) =& P(A \cup B) + P(A \cap B) \\ P(A \cup B) =& P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B) \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

2.2 Discrete Probability Space

Let Ω be a sample space. Ω is said to be discrte if Ω is either finite or infinite but countable.

Exemple of a finite sample space
Tossing a coin $\Omega = \{"H", "T", \}$
Example of an infinite but countale sample space

Tossing a coin until you get heads : $\Omega = \{"H", "TH", "TTH", ..., \underbrace{TT...T}_{n-1}H, ...\}$

Remark : If Ω is discrete and infinite it will have the following form

$$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_n, \omega_{n+1}, ...\}$$

To define a probability on $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ we need to choose $P_n = P(\{\omega_n\}), P_n \in (0, 1)$ such that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_N = 1$

Ex : Toss a coin unitl you get H

$$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_n, ...\}$$
$$\omega_n = "\underbrace{TT...T}_{n-1}H" \qquad \text{H appears on the nth term}$$

Suppose that $P(\{\omega_n\}) = C3^{-n}$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C3^{-n} = 1$$
$$C\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 3^{-n} = 1$$
$$C = \frac{1}{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 3^{-n}}$$
$$C = \frac{1}{\frac{\frac{1}{3}}{1-\frac{1}{3}}}$$
$$C = \frac{\frac{2}{3}}{\frac{1}{3}}$$
$$C = 2$$

Let A be the event that H appears on an even number of tries

$$A = \{\omega_2, \omega_4, \omega_6, ..., \omega_{2n}, ...\}$$
$$P(A) = P(2) + P(4) + P(6) + ... + P(2n) + ...$$
$$P(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{2n}$$
$$P(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2 \times 3^{-2n}$$
$$P(A) = 2\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 3^{-2n}$$
$$P(A) = 2\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\frac{1}{9})^n$$
$$P(A) = \frac{2 \times \frac{1}{9}}{1 - \frac{8}{9}}$$
$$P(A) = \frac{\frac{2}{9}}{\frac{8}{9}} = \frac{1}{4}$$

2.3 Equiprobability

Setting : Ω is a finite sample space

$$\Omega = \{\omega_1, ..., \omega_n\} \qquad N = \text{card}(\Omega)$$

Equiprobability assumption is that every elementary event has the same probability namely $\frac{1}{N}$ or $\frac{1}{\text{card}(\Omega)}$

Let A be an event

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= \sum_{\omega_i \in A} P(\omega_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{N}\text{card}(A) \\ &= \frac{\text{card}(A)}{\text{card}(\Omega)} \end{aligned}$$

2.4 Counting tools

2.4.1 Cartesian product

Let Ω_1 and Ω_2 be 2 sample spaces. The cartesian product of Ω_1 and Ω_2 is

$$\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 = \{(\omega_1, \omega_2) | \omega_1 \in \Omega_1 \text{ and } \omega_2 \in \Omega_2\}$$

Ω_1 and Ω_2 are finite

$$\text{card}(\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2) = \text{card}(\Omega_1) \times \text{card}(\Omega_2)$$

Ex : Rolling a fair dice twice such that the sum of the two dices is 10. Fair means the experiment is equiprobable.

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega_1 =& \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4, \omega_5, \omega_6\} \\ \Omega_2 =& \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4, \omega_5, \omega_6\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega =& \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \\ \Omega =& 36 \text{ combinations} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A =& \{(\omega_4, \omega_6), (\omega_5, \omega_5), (\omega_6, \omega_6)\} \\ P(A) =& \frac{\text{card}(A)}{\text{card}(\Omega} \\ P(A) =& \frac{3}{36} = \frac{1}{12} \end{aligned}$$

2.4.2 Permutation

Def : A permutation of r elements chosen from n elements is equivalent to drawing successively without replacement (W.O.R) r elements from a set of n elements. The number of permutation is

$$P_r^n = n \times (n-1) \times (n-2) \times ... \times (n-r+1)$$
$$P_r^n = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

Ex : An urn contains 4 balls (1 red, 1 green, 1 yellow and 1 blue). Draw successively WOR 2 balls from the urn. What's the probability that one of the balls drawn is green.

$$\Omega = \text{set of permutations of two balls chosen out of 4 balls}$$
$$\text{card}(\Omega) = P_2^4 = \frac{4!}{2!} = 12$$
$$A = \text{one of the balls is green}$$
$$A = \{\text{"}GX\text{"}, \text{"}XG\text{"}\} \qquad \text{X = 3 since there are three other colors to choose from (aside from green)}$$
$$\text{card}(A) = 6$$
$$P(A) = \frac{6}{12} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Ex : A monkey is playing with the letters of the word "ALLEE". What is the probability that the two E's will come together.

The number of distinc permutations of the letters in ALLEE is $\frac{5!}{2!2!}$. Let A be the event that the two E s are together.
Possibilites

$$A = \left\{ \begin{array}{lcc} EEXXX & \frac{3!}{2!} = & 3 \\ XEEXX & \frac{3!}{2!} = & 3 \\ XXEEX & \frac{3!}{2!} = & 3 \\ XXXEE & \frac{3!}{2!} = & 3 \end{array} \right\} = 12$$

$$P(A) = \frac{12}{\frac{5!}{2!2!}}$$
$$P(A) = \frac{2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3}{2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 2 \times 5}$$
$$P(A) = \frac{2}{5}$$

2.4.3 Combination

Def : A combination of r elements chosen from n elements is equivalent to drawing simultaneously r elements from a set of n elements. Note that each combination of r element selected from n element yields r! permutation of r elements selected from n elements.

Total number of combination of r elements selected from n

$$C_r^n = \frac{P_r^n}{r!} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

Remark : C_r^n is also the number of subsets with r elements of a set with n elements

Ex : A hand of 5 cards is selected from a deck of 52 cards. What is the probability it will contain at least one jack.

Remark : For problems involving cards, it is assumed there are 52 cards divided in 4 suites. 13 cards per suite.

Let's use A^c and A. Here A is a hand with 1, 2, 3 or 4 jacks. A^c is a hand with no jacks. A^c is easier to determine.

$$P(A) = 1 - P(A^c)$$
$$P(A) = 1 - \frac{C^4 8_5}{C^5 2_5}$$

Properties of combination

1. $C_0^n = 1 = C_n^n$
2. $C_r^n = C_{n-r}^n$
3. $C_r^n = C_r^{n-1} + C_{r-1}^{n-1}$

Proof. Omit for now as it involves graph and I suck at graphs right now lol □

3 Session 3

3.1 Properties of combination

1. $C_0^n = 1 = C_n^n$
2. $C_r^n = C_{n-r}^n$
3. $C_r^n = C_r^{n-1} + C_{r-1}^{n-1}$

3.1.1 Application

1. Pascal Triangle
   The Pascal triangle is a table to find C_r^n without manually computing the whole thing. It's a triangle since $r \leq n$. Using property 3, $C_r^n = C_r^{n-1} + C_{r-1}^{n-1}$ meaning that an entry is the sum of the top and top-left entries right above it.

n /r	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	1	0	-	-	-	-
1	1	1	-	-	-	-
2	1	2	1	-	-	-
3	1	3	3	1	-	-
4	1	4	6	4	1	-
5	1	5	10	10	5	1

2. Binomial Theorem
   $(a+b)^n$ can be expanded using the Pascal Triangle.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} C_k^n a^k b^{n-k}$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}(a+b)^n =& \sum_{k=1}^{b} C_k^n a^k b^{n-k} \\ =& C_0^n a^0 b^n + C_1^n a b^{n-1} + ... + C_{n-1}^n b a^{n-1} + C_n^n a^n\end{aligned}$$

□

Ex : What is the coefficient of x^6 in the expansion of $(2+3x^2)^4$.

x^6 appears in $b^3 a$

$$\begin{aligned}b^3 a =& 2 * 3^3 C_3^4 \\ =& 8 \times 27 \\ =& 216\end{aligned}$$

3.2 Conditional Probability

Let Ω be a sample space and A be an event such that $P(A) \neq 0$ (A is not the null event)

Def : The conditional probability of B given A is

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

Remark

1. $P(A|A) = \frac{P(A \cap A)}{P(A)} = P(A)$
2. If A and B are disjoint, $P(B|A) = 0$
3. The function $B \to P(B|A)$ is a probability on $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$
4. $P(\Omega|A) = \frac{P(A)}{P(A)} = 1$
5. Let B_n be a sequence of pair-wise disjoint events

$$P(\bigcup_n B_n|A) = \sum_n P(B_n|A)$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} P(\bigcup_n B_n|A) =& \frac{P(A \cap (\bigcup_n B_n))}{P(A)} \\ =& \frac{P(\bigcup_n (A \cap B_n))}{P(A)} \end{aligned}$$

$$(A \cap B_n) \cap (A \cap B_m) = A \cap (B_n \cap B_m) = 0$$

If $n \neq m$ which means it's pairwise-disjoint and why we can apply the following

$$\begin{aligned} P(\bigcup_n B_n|A) =& \frac{P(\bigcup_n (A \cap B_n))}{P(A)} \\ =& \sum_n \frac{P(B_n \cap A)}{P(A)} \\ =& \sum_n P(B_n|A) \end{aligned}$$

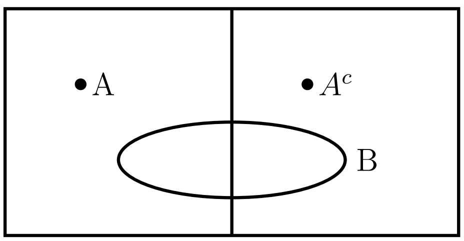
$\square$

Example
a) Rolling a fair dice
A = "Result is 2 or 5"
B = "Result is even

$$\begin{aligned} P(A|B) =& \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \\ =& \frac{\frac{1}{6}}{\frac{1}{2}} \\ =& \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(B|A) =& \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} \\ =& \frac{\frac{1}{6}}{\frac{1}{3}} \\ =& \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

b) Two urns. Urn 1 has 2 red balls and 4 green. Urn 2 has 4 red ball and 6 green. Select a ball from urn 1 and put it in urn 2 then draw a ball from urn 2. What is the probability that the ball selected will be green.



A : Let A be the ball selected from Urn 1 is green
A^c : The ball selected from Urn 1 is not green (hence is red)
B : Ball selected in Urn 2 is green

Reminder

$$\begin{aligned} B \cap \Omega =& B \\ B \cap (A \cup A^c) =& B \\ (B \cap A) \cup (B \cap A^c) =& B \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(B) =& P(B \cap A) + P(B \cap A^c) \\ =& P(B|A) + P(B|A^c) \\ =& \frac{7}{10} \times \frac{4}{6} + \frac{6}{10} \times \frac{2}{6} \\ =& \frac{28}{60} + \frac{12}{60} \\ =& \frac{2}{3} \end{aligned}$$

3.3 Independence

A and B are said to be independent if

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

2. $P(B|A) = P(B)$
3. $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$

Example of independent events
a) Roll a fair dice
A : result is one or two
B : result is even

$$\begin{aligned}
P(A) =& \frac{1}{3} \\
P(B) =& \frac{1}{2} \\
P(A \cap B) =& \frac{1}{6} = P(A)P(B)
\end{aligned}$$

b) Toss a fair coin twice
A : H is the result of the first toss
B : T is the result of the second toss
$\Omega = \{"HH","HT","TH","TT"\}$

$$\begin{aligned}
P(A) =& \frac{1}{2} \\
P(B) =& \frac{1}{2} \\
P(A \cap B) =& \frac{1}{4} = P(A)P(B)
\end{aligned}$$

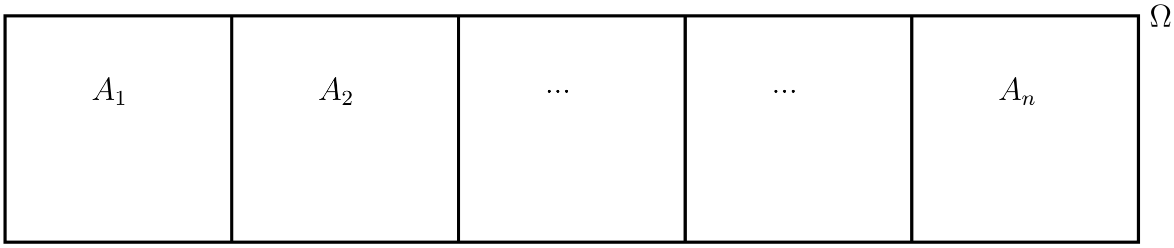
In both instances, A and B are independent

3.4 Bayes Rule

	Success	Failure	Total
Category A	0.3	0.1	0.4
Category B	0.4	0.2	0.6
	0.7	0.3	

$$\begin{aligned}
P(A|S) =& \frac{0.3}{0.7} \\
=& \frac{3}{7} \\
P(B|F) =& \frac{0.2}{0.3} \\
=& \frac{2}{3}
\end{aligned}$$

Setting : Let Ω be sample space and let $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ be a partition of Ω



$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} A_i \cap A_j \neq \varnothing & i \neq j \\ \Omega = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i & \end{array} \right\}$$

Let B be an event. Suppose $P(A_i)$ and $P(B|A_i)$ are known.

Theorem 1. *1.* $P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(B|A_i)P(A)$

2. Let k be fixed (k=1,2, ..., n)

$$\begin{aligned} P(A_k|B) &= \frac{P(B|A_k)P(A_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} P(B|A_i)(P(A_i)} \\ &= \frac{P(A_k \cap B)}{P(B)} \end{aligned}$$

Proof. 1.

$$\begin{aligned} B &= \bigcup_{i-1}^{n} (B \cap A_i) \qquad B \cap A_i \text{each } B \cap A_i \text{ is pairwise-disjoint} \\ P(B) &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(B \cap A_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(B|A_i)P(A_i) \end{aligned}$$

□

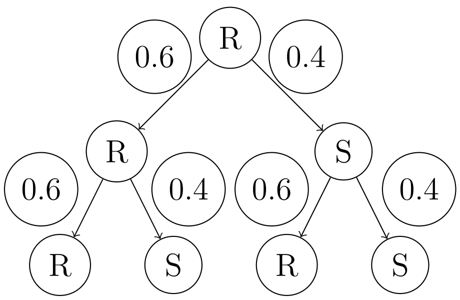
Proof. 2.

$$\begin{aligned} P(A_k|B) &= \frac{P(A_k \cap B)}{P(B)} \\ &= \frac{P(B|A_k)P(A_k)}{P(B)} \end{aligned}$$

□

<u>Remark</u>
$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B)$
or
$P(A \cap B) = P(B|A)P(A)$

Ex : Weather forecast model. Assume weather has two states. It's either raining (R) or sunny (S). If today is R, probability it will be R tomorrow is 0.6. If today is S, probability it will be S tomorrow is 0.7.



1. Monday it was R, what is the probability that Wednesday it will be S
Let A_1 be the event where Tuesday is R
Let A_2 be the event where Tuesday is S
Let B the event where Wednesday is S

$$\begin{aligned}
P(A_1) =& 0.6 \\
P(A_2) =& 0.4 \\
P(B|A_1) =& 0.4 \\
P(B|A_2) =& 0.7 \\
P(B) =& P(B|A_1)P(A_1) + P(B|A_2)P(A_2) \\
P(B) =& 0.52
\end{aligned}$$

2. Monday it was R, you know Wednesday is S. What is the probability that Tuesday was R.

$$\begin{aligned}
P(A_1|B) =& \frac{P(B|A_1)P(A_1)}{P(B)} \\
=& \frac{0.4 \times 0.6}{0.52} \\
=& \frac{6}{13}
\end{aligned}$$

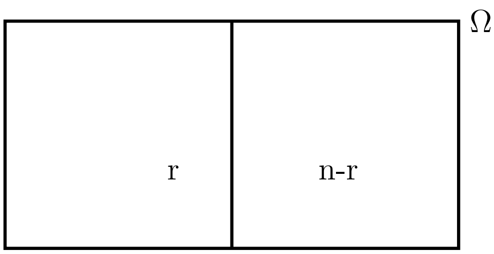
Refer to ex 2.134

	S	F	Total
A	0.8	0.2	0.7
B	0.9	0.1	0.3

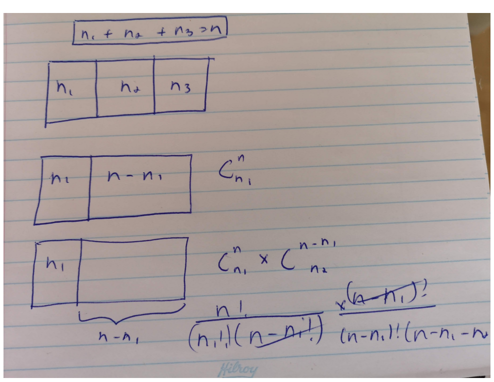
$$
\begin{aligned}
P(A) =& 0.7 \\
P(B) =& 0.3 \\
P(F|A) =& 0.2 \\
P(F|B) =& 0.1 \\
P(A|F) =& \frac{P(A \cap F)}{P(F)} \\
P(A|F) =& \frac{P(F|A)P(A)}{P(F|A)P(A) + P(F|B)P(B)}
\end{aligned}
$$

3.5 Multinomial coefficients

Binomial coefficients are found with C_r^n



It represents the number of possible partitions of Ω into 2 subsets of size r and n-r. Partition of Ω in 3= subsets of size n_1, n_2, n_3. First split it in two.



More generally, the number of partition of n in k subsets of size $n_1, ..., n_k$ is

$$
\begin{pmatrix} n \\ n_1, ..., n_k \end{pmatrix} = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! n_3! ... n_k!}
$$