

# MA 779 ~ Probability Theory I.

## Unit 1 - Sets and Probability space

Introduction to set theory. Goal is to measure probabilities of sets of possible outcomes.

Set is collection of objects.

e.g.  $A = \{3, 7, 8\}$

$A = \{\text{blue, green, red}\}$

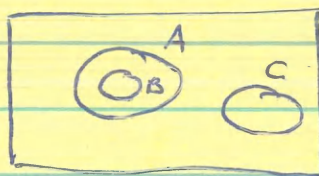
$A = \{\text{even integers}\}$ ,  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

$A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$

Notation : Capital letters for sets, lowercase letters for elements of sets

$3 \notin \{5, 7, 8\}$ ,  $5 \in \{5, 7, 8\}$

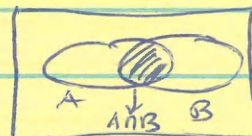
Venn diagram



$B \subseteq A$ ,  $A \cap C = \emptyset$ ,  $A \cap B = B$ ,  $A \cup B = A$   
 $\hookrightarrow$  empty set

$A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$

$A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$



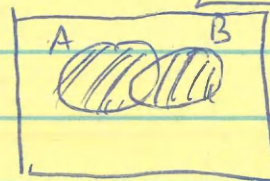
$A^c = \{x : x \notin A\}$

$A \setminus B = \{x \in A : x \notin B\} = A \cap B^c$



$A \Delta B = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A)$

$\hookrightarrow$  symmetric difference





$A = B$  if and only if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$   
 i.e. if  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$  AND if  $x \in B$  then  $x \in A$

Finite Union: Given sets  $A_1, \dots, A_N$

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^N A_i = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \dots \cup A_N$$

Finite Intersection:  $\bigcap_{i=1}^N A_i = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_N$

Countable Union:  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \{x : x \in A_i \text{ for at least one } i\}$

Countable Intersection:  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \{x : x \in A_i \text{ for all } i\}$

example: • If  $A_n = [\frac{1}{n}, 7 - \frac{1}{n}]$   $n \in \mathbb{N}$   
 then  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = (0, 7)$

• If  $B_n = (-\frac{1}{n}, 7 - \frac{1}{n})$   
 then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n = [0, 3]$

Increasing sets: A collection of sets  $\{A_i\}$  is said to be increasing if  $A_i \subseteq A_{i+1} \forall i$   
 Define  $\lim A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$

Decreasing sets: A collection of sets  $\{A_i\}$  is said to be decreasing if  $A_i \supseteq A_{i+1} \forall i$   
 Define then  $\lim A_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$



$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \liminf A_i &= \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m \right) = \left\{ x : \exists n \text{ s.t. } \forall m \geq n, x \in A_m \right\} \\ &= \text{"belongs in all sets eventually"} \\ &= \text{"belongs to all but a finite number of } A_n \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m$  is increasing set in  $n$ .

$$\bullet \limsup A_i = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \bigcap_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m \right) = \left\{ x : x \in A_i \text{ infinitely many times} \right\}$$

Note that  $\bigcap_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m$  is decreasing set in  $n$ .

**Remark**  $\liminf A_i \subseteq \limsup A_i$ .

**Definition** If  $\liminf A_i = \limsup A_i$  then set  $\lim A_i = \liminf A_i = \limsup A_i$

**Example** :  $A_{2n} = \left[ \frac{1}{n}, 7 - \frac{1}{n} \right]$   
 $A_{2n+1} = \left( -\frac{1}{n}, 7 + \frac{1}{n} \right)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \liminf A_n &= (0, 3) \\ \limsup A_n &= [0, 3] \end{aligned}$$

**Remark**  $\liminf$  and  $\limsup$  operations for sets is not the same as corresponding  $\liminf$  and  $\limsup$  operations for numbers.



DeMorgan's laws

$$\left( \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \right)^c = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^c$$

$$\left( \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \right)^c = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^c$$

Proof ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Assume  $x \in \left( \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \right)^c \Rightarrow x \notin \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$

$$\Rightarrow x \notin A_n \text{ for any } n$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A_n^c \text{ for any } n$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^c$$

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Assume  $x \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^c \Rightarrow x \in A_n^c \forall n$

$$\Rightarrow x \notin A_n \forall n$$

$$\Rightarrow x \notin \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in \left( \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \right)^c$$

Similarly for the other statement.

QED

Countable sets: A set  $A$  is countable if  $\exists$  exists a one-to-one mapping  $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$

Example: positive even numbers are countable

$$f(n) = 2n$$

1	2	3	4	5
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
2	4	6	8	10

Example:  $\mathbb{Z}$  integers  $\dots, -5, -4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots$

Example:  $\mathbb{Q}$  rationals

$\frac{1}{1}$	$\frac{2}{1}$	$\frac{3}{1}$	$\frac{4}{1}, \dots$
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{2}{2}$	$\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{4}{2}, \dots$
$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{3}{3}$	$\frac{4}{3}, \dots$
$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{2}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{4}{4}, \dots$



Example of uncountable set :  $\{ \{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} : a_n \in \{0,1\} \}$

Sequences of 0's and 1's

We can prove this by diagonalization. In particular if I assume I have a list, let's say

~~$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & \dots \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots \\ \vdots & & & & & & & & \end{array}$$~~

we can always find something missing from the list

Another example of uncountable set :  $(0,1)$

Definition Power set of  $\mathcal{Q}$  is denoted by  $2^{\mathcal{Q}}$  and is the set of all subsets of  $\mathcal{Q}$

(e.g.) if  $\mathcal{Q} = \{1,2\}$  then  $2^{\mathcal{Q}} = \{\emptyset, \mathcal{Q}, \{1\}, \{2\}\}$   
if  $\mathcal{Q} = \{4,5,6\}$  then  
 $2^{\mathcal{Q}} = \{\emptyset, \mathcal{Q}, \{4\}, \{5\}, \{6\}, \{4,5\}, \{4,6\}, \{5,6\}\}$

Definition An algebra is a set of sets  $A \subset 2^{\mathcal{Q}}$  such that :

(a)  $\mathcal{Q} \in A$

(b) if  $B \in A$  then  $B^c \in A$

(c) if  $B \in A$  and  $C \in A$  then  $(B \cup C) \in A$



Example: If  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{A}$

If  $\mathcal{A} = \{\emptyset, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$  then the algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  is  
 $A = \{\emptyset, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$

Definition  $A \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  is called a  $\sigma$ -algebra if

- (a)  $\emptyset \in A$
- (b) if  $B \in A$  then  $B^c \in A$
- (c) if  $B_n \in A$   $\forall n$  then  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \in A$

Example Let  $\mathcal{A} = (0, 1)$ ,  $A = \{(a, b); 0 \leq a < b \leq 1\}$

This is an example of something that is an algebra but not  $\sigma$ -algebra. This is closed under finite unions and intersection.

Definition A cofinite subset of a set is a subset whose complement is a finite set

Example  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{N}$ ,  $A = \{\text{finite or cofinite sets}\}$

Check: (a)  $\emptyset \in A$  ✓

(b) if  $B \in A$  then  $B^c \in A$  by definition

(c) if  $B, C \in A$  then:

- if  $B, C$  finite  $B \cup C$  finite
- if  $B, C$  cofinite  $B \cup C$  cofinite
- if  $B$  finite,  $C$  cofinite  $\Rightarrow B \cup C$  cofinite  
 $(B \cup C)^c = B^c \cap C^c \subset B^c$  finite

Thus  $A$  is algebra.

However it is not  $\sigma$ -algebra :  $A = \{\text{even numbers}\}$

$$A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{2n\}$$



**Definition**  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\pi$ -system if  $B, C \in \mathcal{A}$  implies  $B \cap C \in \mathcal{A}$

**Definition**  $\mathcal{A}$  is a monotone class if for any increasing family  $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$  where  $A_n \in \mathcal{A}$  then  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ .

and if  $A_n \supseteq A_{n+1}$   $A_n \in \mathcal{A}$  then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ .

**Definition**  $\mathcal{A}$  is called a Dynkin system if  $\Omega \in \mathcal{A}$  and

- $B, C \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $B \subseteq C \Rightarrow C \setminus B \in \mathcal{A}$
- $B_n \in \mathcal{A}$   $n \geq 1$   $B_n \uparrow \Rightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \in \mathcal{A}$ .

**Example** A Dynkin system that is a  $\pi$ -system is also a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

Indeed, the last two conditions in the definition of a Dynkin system together with closure under finite intersections imply closure under finite unions. This then implies closure under countable unions.

**Definition** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ . Then we have that  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) =$  smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra that contains  $\mathcal{A}$   
 $= \bigcap_{\substack{\mathcal{B} \supseteq \mathcal{A} \\ \mathcal{B} \text{ } \sigma\text{-algebra}}} \mathcal{B}$

**Example**  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$   
 $\mathcal{A} = \{\{1\}\}$  (not a  $\sigma$ -algebra)  
 $\hookrightarrow \sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \{\{1\}, \{2, 3, 4\}, \Omega, \emptyset\}$



Example  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ ,  $\mathcal{A} = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{3, 4\}\}$

$$\sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{3, 4\}, \{2, 3, 4\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3, 4\}, \{2\}, \Omega, \emptyset\}$$

Example Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{A} = \{(a, b) : a < b\}$   
 $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  is called Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra

Example (filtrations)

$$\Omega = \{x = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) : x_i \in \{0, 1\}\}$$

infinite sequence of 0's and 1's

$\mathcal{F}_n$  - information after  $n$  flips of a coin

$$\mathcal{F}_1 = \{\{x : x_1 = 1\}, \{x : x_1 = 0\}, \emptyset, \Omega\}$$

$$\mathcal{F}_2 = \sigma(\{\{x : x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1\}, \{x : x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0\}, \{x : x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1\}, \{x : x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0\}, \emptyset, \Omega\})$$

Definition A probability space is a triple

$(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$   
set  $\leftarrow$   $\mathcal{F}$   $\leftarrow$   $\sigma$ -algebra of subsets of  $\Omega$   $\rightarrow$  Probability measure

$P : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  satisfying Kolmogorov axioms:

(i)  $P(A) \in [0, 1] \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{F}$

(ii)  $P(\Omega) = 1$

(iii) Countable additive: If  $\{A_i\}$  such that  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$   
for  $i \neq j$  then  $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$

Remark

(i) If  $A \cap B = \emptyset$  then  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

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

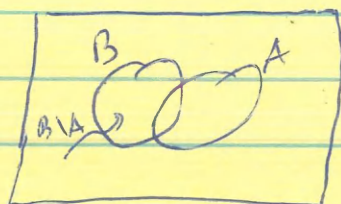
(iii)



$$(iii) P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$$

$$(1 = P(\Omega) = P(A \cup A^c) = P(A) + P(A^c))$$

$$(iv) \text{ Exclusion } P(B|A) = P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$



$$B = (B|A) \cup (A \cap B) \quad (\text{disjoint union})$$

$$P(B) = P(B|A) + P(A \cap B)$$

(v) let  $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ . Then

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

Indeed let  $B_1 = A_1$

$$B_2 = A_2 \setminus B_1$$

$$B_i = A_i \setminus \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{i-1} B_j\right), \quad B_j \text{ - disjoint}$$

Note that  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$

$$\text{So } P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) = P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(B_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(P(A_n) - P\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{n-1} B_j\right)\right)$$

$$\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n)$$

$$(vi) P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$$

$$(vii) \text{ If } A \subseteq B \text{ then } P(A) \leq P(B)$$

Indeed, note that  $B = A \cup (B|A)$  disjoint.

$$\text{So } P(B) = P(A) + P(B|A) \geq 0$$

$$\text{So } P(B) \geq P(A)$$



(vii) (Continuity): If  $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$  then we have that  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n) = P(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n)$

If  $A_n \supseteq A_{n+1}$  then we have that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n) = P(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) = P(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n)$$

$\uparrow$  limit of numbers                       $\uparrow$  limit of sets

Proof Assume  $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$ . Consider the following disjoint collection of sets  $B_n$

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$$

$$B_1 = A_1$$

$$B_2 = A_2 \setminus A_1$$

$$B_3 = A_3 \setminus A_2$$

⋮

$$B_{n+1} = A_{n+1} \setminus A_n$$

$$B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset \text{ if } i \neq j$$

Note that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i = A_n \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$

$$\Rightarrow P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i)$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(B_n) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N P(B_n)$$

$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} P(\bigcup_{n=1}^N B_n) \text{ (finite additivity)}$$

$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} P(A_N)$$



Let us now assume that  $A_n \supset A_{n+1}$ . Then we note that

$$\begin{aligned} \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n &= \left( \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^c \right)^c \Rightarrow P\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) = 1 - P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^c\right) \\ &= 1 - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n^c) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n) \end{aligned}$$

□

(vii) Let  $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ , then we have

$$P(\liminf A_n) \leq \liminf P(A_n) \leq \limsup P(A_n) \leq P(\limsup A_n)$$

$\uparrow$  set                       $\downarrow$  number                       $\downarrow$  number                       $\downarrow$  set

Proof Let  $B_m = \bigcap_{n=m}^{\infty} A_n$  decreasing sets. So we get that

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=m}^{\infty} A_n = \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} B_m$$

So by continuity we have that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(B_n) = P\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n\right) = P(\limsup A_n)$$

By monotonicity property  $A_n \subseteq B_n$ , so we get that

$$\limsup P(A_n) \leq \limsup P(B_n) = P(\limsup A_n)$$

(ix) If  $\lim A_n$  exists then  $\limsup A_n = \liminf A_n$

So we get

$$P(\liminf A_n) = \liminf P(A_n) = \limsup P(A_n) = P(\limsup A_n)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n) = P(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n)$$

□



Example (Countable probability space.)

$$\Omega = \mathbb{N}, \quad \mathcal{F} = 2^\Omega, \quad P(\{k\}) = 2^{-k}, \quad \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^{-k} = 1$$

$$P(\{\text{even}\}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(\{2n\}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-2n} = \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{4}} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Example  $\Omega = [0,1]$   $P((a,b)) = b-a, 0 < a < b$

$\mathcal{F}$  = Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra that contains all open intervals

$$P(\{\frac{1}{3}\}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P((\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{n})) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n} = 0$$

$$1 = P([0,1]) = P(\bigcup_{x \in [0,1]} \{x\}) \neq \sum_x P(\{x\}) = 0$$

If  $A = \{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset [a,b]$  then  $P(A) = 0$ , which follows by  $P(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(\{a_n\}) = 0$

Remark We have that  $P(\underbrace{\mathbb{Q}}_{\text{rational numbers}} \cap [0,1]) = 0$

Condition



## Conditioning and Independence

**Definition** (Conditional probability)

If  $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $P(B) > 0$  then  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$

**Definition** (Independence)

Two events  $A, B$  are independent if  $P(A|B) = P(A)$   
 $P(B|A) = P(B)$

Putting these two definitions together independence also says  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$

**Remark** If  $P(A) = 0$  or  $P(A) = 1$ , then  $A$  is independent of any  $B \in \mathcal{F}$ .

**Properties** If  $A$  and  $B$  are independent, then

- $A$  and  $B^c$  are independent
- $A^c$  and  $B^c$  —||—
- $A^c$  and  $B$  —||—

**Proof** Let us assume that  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$

Then we have that

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cap B^c) &= P(A) - P(A \cap B) \\ &= P(A) - P(A)P(B) \\ &= P(A)(1 - P(B)) \\ &= P(A)P(B^c) \end{aligned}$$

**Definition** The events  $\{A_k, 1 \leq k \leq n\}$  are independent if and only if  $P\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^n A_k\right) = \prod_{k=1}^n P(A_k)$



**Definition** (Pair-wise independence)

Two events  $\{A_i, 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  are pair-wise independent if and only if

$$P(A_i \cap A_j) = P(A_i) P(A_j) \quad \forall \quad 1 \leq i \neq j \leq n.$$

These two last definitions do not go along together very well!

**Example** Flip two coins  $\Omega = \{(0,0), (0,1), (1,0), (1,1)\}$

$$\text{For } x \in \Omega \quad P(\{x\}) = 1/4$$

$$\text{Define } A = \{(0,1), (1,1)\} = \text{"2nd coin tail"}$$

$$B = \{(1,0), (1,1)\} = \text{"1st coin tail"}$$

$$C = \{(0,0), (1,1)\} = \text{"pairs"}$$

Let us first check pairwise independence. Indeed

$$P(A \cap B) = P(\{(1,1)\}) = 1/4 = P(A) \cdot P(B) \quad \checkmark$$

$$P(B \cap C) = P(\{(1,1)\}) = 1/4 = P(B) \cdot P(C) \quad \checkmark$$

$$P(A \cap C) = P(\{(1,1)\}) = 1/4 = P(A) \cdot P(C) \quad \checkmark$$

$$\text{But } P((A \cap B) \cap C) = P(\{(1,1)\}) = 1/4$$

$$\text{whereas } P(A \cap B) = 1/4, P(C) = 1/2 \Rightarrow P(A \cap B) P(C) = 1/8$$

$$\text{Hence } P((A \cap B) \cap C) \neq P(A \cap B) \cdot P(C)$$

So  $C$  is not independent of  $A \cap B$

This means that  $A, B, C$  are pairwise independent but not independent.

**Definition** For a countable family  $\{A_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is independent if every finite subfamily is independent.



If  $\{A_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  are independent then

$$P\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k\right) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^N A_k\right) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{k=1}^N P(A_k)$$

$$= \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} P(A_k)$$

**Definition** (~~Law of total probability~~) (Partition)

A partition  $\{H_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  or  $\{H_i\}_{i=1}^n$  is a ~~partition~~ family such that  $H_i \cap H_j = \emptyset$  if  $i \neq j$   
 i.e. if  $H_i$  and  $H_j$  do not overlap

**Theorem** (Law of total probability)

Assume  $\{H_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  is a partition. Then  $\forall A \in \mathcal{F}$

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A | H_i) P(H_i)$$

**Proof** We can write  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (A \cap H_i)$  (disjoint union)

Recall that  $P(A | H_i) = \frac{P(A \cap H_i)}{P(H_i)}$

$$\Rightarrow P(A \cap H_i) = P(A | H_i) P(H_i)$$

$$\text{So } P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A \cap H_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A | H_i) P(H_i)$$

↳ countable additive

**Example** Roll a six side die. Then flip a coin the number of times shown on die

$$A = \{ \text{total of 3 heads} \} \Rightarrow P(A) = ?$$

Consider the partition  $H_i = \{ \text{die was } i \}$

$$P(A | H_i) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \leq 2 \\ \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^i & \text{if } i \geq 3 \end{cases}$$



Note that  $P(A|H_i) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \leq 2 \\ \binom{i}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^i & \text{if } i \geq 3 \end{cases}$

↳ combination

So we conclude that

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=3}^6 \binom{i}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^i \frac{1}{6} = \sum_{i=3}^6 P(A|H_i) P(H_i)$$