

For any (finite) sample space  $S$  with  $A \subseteq S$ ,  $B \subseteq S$ , the following relations are apparent:

$$① A = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap B^c)$$

$$② B = (A \cap B) \cup (A^c \cap B)$$

$$③ (A \cup B) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap B^c) \cup (A^c \cap B)$$

Notes: if  $A \subseteq B$ , <sup>RHS of</sup>  ~~$A \cap B$~~  becomes, then  $A \cap B = A$   
 $A \cap B^c = \emptyset$   
 So RHS of ① becomes  $A \cup \emptyset = A$ .

if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$  then  $A \cap B^c = A$ ,  $A^c \cap B = B$

and RHS of ③ becomes  $\emptyset \cup A \cup B$ .

### "AXIOMATIC" PROPERTIES of CLASSICAL PROB.

The following 3 properties are easily checked in any classical prob scenario:

A1)  $P(A) \geq 0$  for all events  $A \subseteq S$  (even  $\emptyset$ )

A2)  $P(S) = 1$

A3) If  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ ,  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

as are the following

\* for  $A \subseteq B$ ,  $P(A) \leq P(B)$

\*  $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$

\*  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ .

(the more mathematically inclined might be able to see that the last 3 can be ~~deduced~~ deduced using just  $(A1)$ ,  $(A2)$  and  $(A3)$  and properties of events (i.e. not relying on the special defin of  $P(\cdot)$ ) other than it obeys  $A1, A2, A3$  (see Tutorial)).

## The Multiplication Principle

To compute "classical" probabilities we simply need to be able to count how many outcomes make up any event of interest (and in the sample space of course).

However, in only moderately complicated examples this can become rather difficult for certain events.

lec 3- p3

In our "urn example with (positive) dependence"  
- also called a Polya Urn Model. - we were able  
to exhaustively list all outcomes and thus  
compute any desired probability. We can, however,  
develop methods for use when exhaustive  
listing is not feasible.

The process for generating outcomes in  
that example had a certain special form, namely  
- it is made up of several stages  
- a varying no. choices are available at each stage  
- the actual choices avail. at each stage depend  
on choices made at earlier stages BUT  
- the number of choices avail. at each stage is  
the same regardless of the past.

lec 3- p4

at stage 1: 2 choices

at stage 2: if 1st choice "1", choices are 1, 2, 3

... .. "2", choices are 1, 2, 4  
but in EITHER CASE, there are 3 choices.

at stage 3: if 1st 2 choices are (1,1), choices are 1, 2, 3, 5  
... .. (1,2), ... .. 1, 2, 3, 4  
etc

in ANY CASE, 4 choices

In such a process, if (regardless of earlier choices)  
there are  $n_j$  choices at step  $j$ , ( $j=1, 2, \dots, k$ )  
then the total no. choices in  $k$  steps is the product

$$n_1 n_2 \dots n_k$$

Thus in lec 2's example,  $n_1=2$ ,  $n_2=3$ ,  $n_3=4$ ,

So total no. choices is  $2 \times 3 \times 4 = 24$

We can also apply this "multiplication principle" in more creative ways to count ways of "constructing" outcomes in various events

the idea is to write down a systematic, multi-step procedure for constructing outcomes and see if we can apply the mult. principle.

E.g. consider the event  $C =$  "Exactly 1 wh/odd" in the Polya Urn example.

Each such outcome has a single wh (ie. 1) and 2 Blacks (either  $(2,2)$  or  $(2,4)$ ) in some order. So a way of constructing such an outcome is:

1) Choose which of  $(2,2)$  or  $(2,4)$  it has (2 choices)

2) Pick a position for the 1 (3 choices)

~~No cho~~  
These completely determine the outcome.

## Lec 3- p6

there are thus  $2 \times 3 = 6$  different outcomes  
(as we saw using an exhaustive listing) in  $C$ .

We have thus determined  $P(C) = \frac{6}{24} = \frac{1}{4}$   
purely using the mult. principle (and some  
creative thought). The nice thing is that  
this method can be easily extended to  
large-scale problems, while exhaustive listing  
cannot (See Tutorial 1).