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For now, we take $\mathcal{F} = 2^\Omega$ (power set of Ω)

Probability axioms

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$$\text{A1 } P(A) \geq 0, \forall A \in \mathcal{F}$$

$$\text{A2 } P(\Omega) = 1$$

$$\text{A3 If } A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \forall i \neq j \text{ then } P(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$$

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

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- ▶ This is the usual familiar formula: number of favourable outcomes by total number of outcomes.
- ▶ Thus, ‘equally likely’ is one way of specifying the probability function (in case of finite Ω).
- ▶ An obvious point worth remembering: specifying P for singleton events fixes it for all other events.

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- ▶ This is how we normally define a probability measure on countably infinite Ω .
- ▶ This can be done for finite Ω too.

Example: countably infinite Ω

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- ▶ A (reasonable) probability assignment is:

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where p is the probability of head and $0 < p < 1$.
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- ▶ Easy to see we have $q_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} q_i = 1$.

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(There are many issues that need more attention here).

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- ▶ We can take $\Omega = \{(x, y) : 0 < x < y < 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$.
- ▶ For the pieces to make a triangle, sum of lengths of any two should be more than the third.

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- So the event of interest is:

$$A = \{(x, y) : y > 0.5; x < 0.5; y < x + 0.5\}$$

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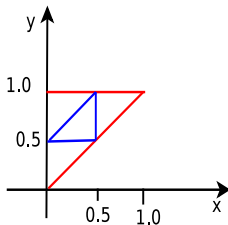
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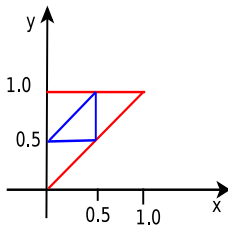


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- We can visualize it as follows
- The required probability is area of A divided by area of Ω which gives the answer as 0.25

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 - ▶ $P : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a probability (measure) that assigns a number between 0 and 1 to every event (satisfying the three axioms).

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- ▶ Let B be an event with $P(B) > 0$. We define conditional probability, conditioned on B , of any event, A , as

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- ▶ Once we understand conditional probability is a new probability assignment, we go back to the 'standard notation'

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- ▶ It is not as if we talk about conditional probability only for subsets of B . Conditional probability is also with respect to the original probability space. Every element of \mathcal{F} has conditional probability defined.

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- ▶ There are probabilistic methods to capture causation (but far beyond the scope of this course!)

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- ▶ This is a very useful in many situations. (“arguing by cases”)

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An urn contains r red balls and b black balls. We draw a ball at random, note its color, and put back that ball along with c balls of the same color. We keep repeating this process. Let R_n (B_n) denote the event of drawing a red (black) ball at the n^{th} draw. We want to calculate the probabilities of all these events.

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- ▶ These different cases are important in understanding the role of false positives rate.

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 - ▶ The knowledge we need is $P(T_+|D)$, $P(T_+|D^c)$ which can be determined through experiment or modelling of channel.

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- ▶ Independence is an important (often confusing!) concept.

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Similarly we can show for others.

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- ▶ We always have an underlying probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)
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- ▶ Hence whether or not two events are independent is a matter of ‘calculation’

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- ▶ For example, in the previous problem, once we saw that F and C are independent, we can conclude M and C are also independent (because in this example we are taking $F^c = M$).

- ▶ Consider the random experiment of tossing two fair coins (or tossing a coin twice).

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- ▶ Hence, in multiple tosses, assuming all outcomes are equally likely implies outcome of one toss is independent of another.

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- ▶ If we assume tosses are independent then we can assign probabilities easily.

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 (We will look at it more formally when we consider multiple random variables).

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- ▶ This is often used, at an intuitive level, to justify assumption of independence.

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- ▶ But, $P(E_1 E_2 E_3) = 0.25 \neq (0.5)^3$