

This week: 1.1 - 1.3; Counting Principles (multiplication principle, permutations, combinations etc.)

Ch 1. Events and probabilities

Def. Event is something that happens as a result of random circumstances (as a result of an experiment, trial with uncertain outcome)

Def. Result of an experiment is called outcome.

Def. The set of all outcomes is called sample space, denoted Ω .

Events can be regarded as subsets of Ω .

- { Examples. 1. Fair die is rolled
2. Fair coin is tossed until the 1st H shows up.
3. γ leaves for work "randomly" between 7 and 7:10 am

Consider two versions of Example 1:

Example 1.2) Fair die is rolled: $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

some events: $A = \{3\}$, $B = \text{"multiple of 3"} = \{3, 6\}$.

All outcomes are equally likely:

$$P(1) = \dots = P(6) = \frac{1}{6}, \quad P(B) = \frac{\#B}{\#\Omega} = \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Meaning of $P(B) = \frac{1}{3}$: If die is rolled many times,

1.1 . . . 1 4 11. 1 11 . . . 1 1 . . .

Then in about $\frac{1}{3}$ of all scores will be 3 or 6.

Example 1.b) I leave the room, roll a fair die, come back and tell you that B happened (score is multiple of 3): for you, $\Omega = B = \{3, 6\}$, $P(3) = P(6) = \frac{1}{2} = P(A)$.

Both, 1.a) and 1.b) are cases of

"Standard", classical setting:

1. $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N\}$ is finite and all outcomes equally likely: $P(\omega_1) = \dots = P(\omega_N) = \frac{1}{N}$.
 2. For any event $A \subset \Omega$,
$$P(A) = \frac{\# A}{\# \Omega}.$$

Infinite sample space

Example 2. Fair coin is tossed until H shows up:

$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots\}$, where $\omega_1 = H_1$, $\omega_2 = T_1 H_2$, \dots ,

$\omega_k = T_1 \dots T_{k-1} H_k$, \dots , and maybe $\omega_0 = T_1 T_2 \dots$.

$P(\omega_1) = P(H_1) = \frac{1}{2}$, $P(\omega_2) = P(T_1 H_2) = \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2^2}$ ← because

in two tosses, $H_1 T_2$, $H_1 H_2$, $T_1 H_2$, $T_1 T_2$ are equally likely, \dots , $P(\omega_k) = \frac{1}{2^k} = 2^{-k}$, $k = 1, 2, \dots$

In this case, any $A \subset \Omega$ is an event,

$P(A) = \sum_{\omega_i \in A} P(\omega_i)$. We will see $P(\omega_0) = 0$.

Example 3. J leaves for work randomly between 7 and 7:10 am ("equally likely" at any time moment between 7 and 7:10): $\Omega = (0, 10)$.

Some events:

$A = "J \text{ leaves between } 7:05 \text{ and } 7:10" = (5, 10)$,

$$P(A) = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{10} = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{|A|}{10}$$

$B = "J \text{ leaves between } 7:06 \text{ and } 7:09" = (6, 9)$,

$$P(B) = \frac{9-6}{10} = \frac{3}{10} = \frac{|B|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{|B|}{10}, \quad |A|, |B| \text{ are lengths}$$

of A, B . In general,

if $C = "J \text{ departs between } 0 < a < b < 10" = (a, b)$,

$$P(C) = \frac{b-a}{10} = \frac{|C|}{|\Omega|} \quad (1)$$

Question Does (1) make sense for any $C \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$, the set of all subsets of Ω ? Recall $\emptyset \subset \Omega, \Omega \subset \Omega$

Answer. NOT all $C \subset \Omega = (0, 10)$ have length:

$$P(C) = \frac{|C|}{10} \text{ makes sense only for } C \in \mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{P}(\Omega),$$

where \mathcal{F} is a certain σ -field of Ω -subsets.

It is known $\mathcal{F} \neq \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$, \mathcal{F} consists only of those Ω -subsets whose length can be measured.