

lec1 : Basics of Probability

Papoulis & Pillai

Probability is used to model uncertainty we see in nature.
Roll a die, you can't be certain about the outcome.

A random experiment has uncertain outcomes and we want to know how likely it is to ^(observe) see a particular event.

Probability theory provides you a mathematical framework to analyze these random experiments.

Approaches to Probability

Kolmogorov
Axioms based

② Classic Definition.

A is an event and probability of event A , $P(A) = \frac{\# \text{ outcomes that favour } A}{\text{Total number of outcomes that are possible.}}$

Example: Roll two dice, find the probability that sum of the numbers is 9.

③ Total number of outcomes
 $= 11.$

$(1,1)$ $(6,6)$
 $2, 3, \dots, 12$

outcomes that favour sum being 9 = 1

Probability. $\frac{1}{11}.$

④ Outcomes is actual two tuple that indicates the die outcome

$(1,1) (1,2) \dots (1,6)$

Suggested reading

Bertrand's Paradox

Probability that a randomly chosen chord has size $> r$

of possible

outcomes = 36

favourable

outcomes = 4.

(2,1)

:

(6,1)

-

(6,6)

(3,6)

(6,3)

(4,5)

(5,4)

The probability = $\frac{4}{36} = \frac{1}{9}$

(b) Relative frequency approach.

Repeat an experiment n number of times and define n_A to be the # times you observed event A .

$$P(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n_A}{n}.$$

Drawbacks to this approach

① have to run this experiment infinite # of times.

(c) Axiomatic approach to probability.

Probability model is defined through a probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

Sample Space

Event Space

Probability metric or function.

Quick basics on sets:

A Set is a collection of objects that are referred to as elements.

$\forall x \in S$

x is an element of S .

$$S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$$

$$|S| = n.$$

\leftarrow cardinality of a set i.e., total number of elements in it.

Then :

If cardinality is finite $\rightarrow S$ is a finite set

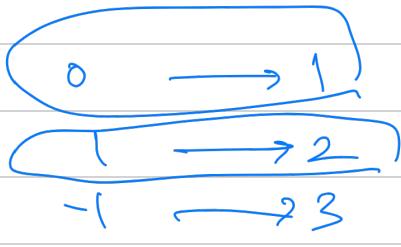
S is a countably infinite if it can be mapped using a one-to-one function to the set of natural numbers $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

Examples :

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \mathbb{Z} = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots\} = \{0, 1, -1, 2, -2, \dots\}$$

$$\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\phi : S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$



$$= 2|i| + 1$$

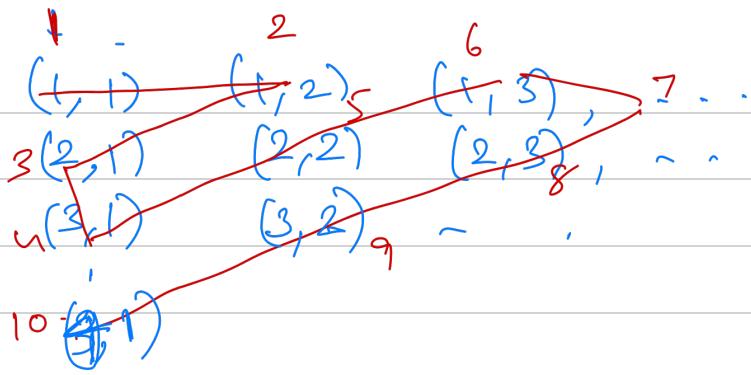
\textcircled{2} Set of even numbers

$$S = \{2, 4, 6, \dots\} = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$$

\textcircled{3} Set of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} .

any number that can be represented in p/q form where

$p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, q \neq 0$
are rational numbers



infinite

If a set is not countable then it is referred to as uncountable.

Example:

Infinite length

① $S = \{0, 1\}^{\infty}$ → Set of binary sequences

Suppose S is countable then

$$S = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$$

\uparrow

$$= \{0, 1\}^{\infty}$$

let $y \in \{0, 1\}^{\infty}$ such that

Example

$x_1 = 00011\dots$
 $x_2 = 01100\dots$
 $x_3 = 01000\dots$
 $x_4 = 01101\dots$
 \vdots
 $y = (0010\dots)$ diagonals flipped.

$$y = (\overline{x_{11}} \ \overline{x_{22}} \ \overline{x_{33}} \ \overline{x_{44}} \ \dots)$$

$$\overline{x_{11}} = x_{11} \oplus 1$$

↓
Cantor's
diagonalization

$y \neq x_n$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Q

$$S = [0, 1] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$$

Suggested Reading for
Principles of uncountable/ countable
sets.
 Mathematical Analysis by Rudin

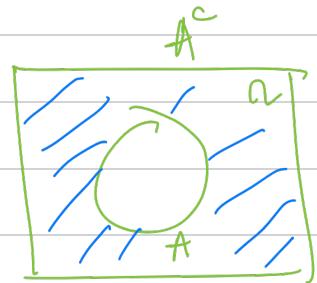
$x_1 = 0. \underline{1}92\dots$
 $x_2 = 0. 2\underline{0}3\dots$
 \vdots
 $0.\underline{\underline{1}}\dots$

can use
similar
proof to
show $[0, 1]$ is
uncountable

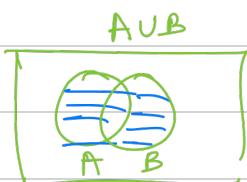
Set operations : let us assume universe to be Ω .

$$A^c = \{x \in \Omega \mid x \notin A\}$$

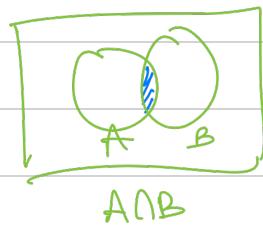
$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c = \{x \in \Omega \mid \exists i \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t } x \in A_i^c\}$$



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



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



$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \{x \in \Omega \mid \forall i \in \mathbb{N}, x \in A_i\}$$

Commutative : $A \cup B = B \cup A$, $A \cap B = B \cap A$.

Distributive :

$$A \vee (B \cap C) = (A \vee B) \cap (A \vee C)$$

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

Associative :

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

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

DeMorgan's laws

$$\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c\right)^c = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$$

$$\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c$$

$$(A^c)^c = A, \quad A \cap A^c = \emptyset, \quad A \cup A^c = \Omega.$$

Probability Space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

Ω : Sample space and it is collection of all possible outcomes of your experiment

$$\times \Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 6\}$$

→ doesn't include all outcomes

Should include all possible outcomes of an experiment

Every outcome is distinct and mutually exclusive

$$\times \Omega = \{1, 2, 2 or 3, 3, 4, 5\}$$

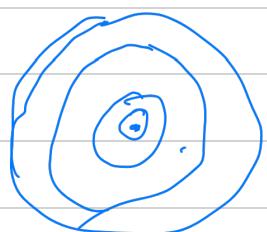
→ not mutually exclusive.

- finite {
①. $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
②. $\Omega = \{(1,1) (1,2) \dots (i,j) \dots (6,6)\}$

- ③. Roll a coin until you see a head.

Countably infinite $\leftarrow \Omega = \{H, TH, TTH, TTTH, \dots\}$.

Uncountable {
④. $\Omega = [0, 1]$
⑤. $\Omega = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\} \quad [0, 1]$



Bi-weekly exam options

Wed	9-10	?	x	5-6	x.
Thu	9-10	x			

BT - till 9:45 pm
free