

Lecture 2,  
Tuesday, August 27

# Introduction to Probability

## Set Theory: Algebra (without proof)

- Algebraic Laws

– commutativity:

$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$

$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

– associativity:

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

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

– distributive law:

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

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

– DeMorgan's laws:

$$\begin{aligned} x \in (A \cup B)^c &\Leftrightarrow x \notin A \text{ \& \& } x \notin B & \boxed{(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c} \\ &\Leftrightarrow x \in A^c \text{ \& } x \in B^c & (A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c \\ &\Leftrightarrow x \in A^c \cap B^c \\ \Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (A \cup B)^c \subset A^c \cap B^c \\ A^c \cap B^c \subset (A \cup B)^c \end{array} \right. \end{aligned}$$

# Introduction to Probability

Set Theory: Algebra (without proof), cont'd

- Extending the previous set laws:

Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  be sets defined on a sample space  $S$ .

The previous set results (last slide) can be generalized to finite unions  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ , countably infinite unions  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ , and unions  $\bigcup_{b \in \Gamma} A_b$  over a possibly continuous index set  $\Gamma$  and similarly defined intersections.

eg. define sets for real numbers  $A_i = [i, i+1)$ ,  $\forall i \geq 1$ .

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \rightarrow \{x: x \in A_i \text{ for some } i \geq 1\} = [1, \infty)$$

Define  $B_i := (0, \frac{1}{i})$ ,  $i \geq 1$ .

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \{x: x \in B_i, \forall i, \text{ for any } i\} \\ \rightarrow \{x: 0 < x < \frac{1}{i}, \forall i\} = \emptyset$$

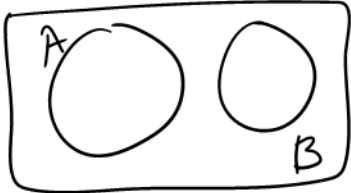
$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = (0, 1) \quad (\text{check!})$$

# Introduction to Probability

## Set Theory: Partitions

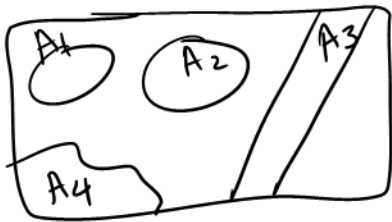
*Definitions:* Disjoint sets and partitions

- events  $A$  and  $B$  are **disjoint** (mutually exclusive) if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$



- For a sequence  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  of events, we say  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are **pairwise disjoint** if

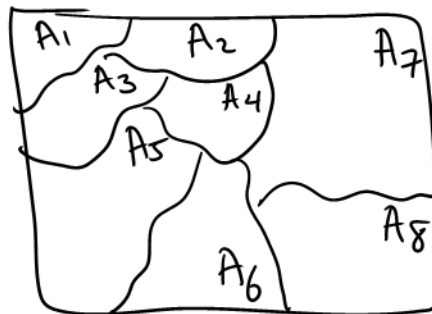
$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \quad \text{for all } i \neq j$$



- $A_1, A_2, \dots$  is a **partition** of  $S$  if the  $A_i$ 's are pairwise <sup>disjoint</sup> ~~joint~~ and ~~exhaust~~  $S$ , that is

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = S \quad \& \quad A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \quad \text{for all } i \neq j$$

ex:



# Introduction to Probability

Thinking about probability

- Want to assign probabilities to events  $A \subset S$  *sample space*
- Interpretations of probability
  - limiting relative frequency
  - subjective belief
- For now, we'll ignore interpretation issues & focus on probability as a *set function* (no interpretation necessary)

ASIDE

$$P: (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, p) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

- A technical difficulty: It is not generally possible to assign probabilities to every possible subset of  $S$ .

In other words, when one develops rules or ways of assigning probabilities to sets, technically one has to be careful to work with special collections of sets (or events), called  $\sigma$ -algebras or Borel fields.

Aside from a brief description (next), we will not concern ourselves with the theory involved (measure theory or measure-theoretic probability, STAT 642).

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

subset/event: all outcomes where the result is a prime number,  
and if you concatenate the outcome with the next highest  
number, the result is divisible by 3.

→ 2: Next number 3 →  $23 \div 3 \rightarrow$  leaves a remainder, so do not include  
3: Next number 4 →  $34 \div 3 \rightarrow$  " " " " "  
→ 5: Next number 6 →  $56 \div 3 \rightarrow$  " " " " "

ASIDE  
STAT 641

# Introduction to Probability

## Borel fields

- *Definition:* A collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of subsets of  $S$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra or Borel field if it satisfies

- 1.  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{B}$ .
- 2. If  $A \in \mathcal{B}$ , then  $A^c \in \mathcal{B}$ .
- 3. If a sequence of sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{B}$ , then  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{B}$ .

- Want to assign a probability to each set  $A \in \mathcal{B}$  (in a logically consistent way)

- For a given  $S$ , there can be many possible Borel fields.

Suppose  $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$  then here are three Borel fields associated with  $S$

- $\mathcal{B}_1 = \{\emptyset, S\}$  (trivial Borel field)
- $\mathcal{B}_2 = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{d, c\}, \{b, c, d\}, \{a, c, d\}, S\}$   
(Borel field “generated” by  $\{a\}$  and  $\{b\}$ )
- $\mathcal{B}_3 = \{\text{all possible subsets of } S\}$

- For probability applications, choose  $\mathcal{B}$  to contain all sets of practical interest
  1. for countable  $S$ : take  $\mathcal{B}$  to contain all possible subsets
  2. for uncountable  $S$ : take  $\mathcal{B}$  to contain intervals and everything derived from intervals (i.e., the Borel field “generated” by intervals)

# Introduction to Probability

Historical side note on Borel fields & measure theory

- Probability was inspired by studies of gambling in the 1700's (e.g., Laplace, 1800's), but wasn't considered a branch of mathematics at first
  - In 1920's, the *time waiting paradox* **threatened** the notion of “probability”
    - Problem: A person shows up a bus-stop at 9am and inter-arrival times between buses are random, independent, and on average 1 hour. How long does the person have to wait on average?
    - By *the standards of probability logic at that time*, there were two correct (but contradictory) answers: 30 minutes & 1 hour.
  - This was a big existential dilemma... did “probability” have *any* foundation?
  - Kolmogorov (1930's) rescued by probability theory by formulating it based upon ideas of “measure theory” → STAT 641  
i.e., probability is a measuring device (a function) on special sets of events (Borel fields)
- This gave a mathematical legitimacy and new clarity/rigor to probability, in ways that we take for granted.
- To re-iterate, we don't evoke measure theory and simply skip technical ideas like Borel fields. But, studying these later (e.g., STAT 642) can improve your understanding of probability and statistics (e.g., expand probability models)

# Introduction to Probability

Axiomatic definition of probability (due to Kolmogorov)

- A probability function is a function  $P$  defined on a Borel field  $\mathcal{B}$  of the sample space  $S$  that satisfies:

- Axiom 1 { 1.  $P(A) \geq 0$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{B}$
- Axiom 2 { 2.  $P(S) = 1$
- Axiom 3 { 3. If  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{B}$  are *pairwise disjoint* then

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

- Any function satisfying the above is a legitimate probability function.



# Introduction to Probability

Axiomatic definition of probability, (cont'd)

- More than one probability function can be defined on a sample space  $S$

Eg. Rain "R" or not rain "NR" over next 2 days.

	Model	Model
$P(RR)$	$1/4$	$0$
$P(NR)$	$1/4$	$3/5$
$P(RN)$	$1/4$	$0$
$P(NN)$	$1/4$	$2/5$

$S = \{RR, RN, NR, NN\}$

- How should we decide which  $P$  to use?
  - physical considerations (e.g., model failure probabilities in engineering)
  - mathematical considerations (e.g., central limit theorem)
  - plausible assumptions (e.g., observations are dependent or independent)

# Introduction to Probability

## Properties of probability functions

**Theorem 1.2.8.** If  $P$  is a probability function and  $A$  is any set in  $\mathcal{B}$ , then

(a)  $P(\emptyset) = 0$   $P(\emptyset) = 1 - P(\emptyset^c) = 1 - P(S) = 1 - 1 = 0$

(b)  $P(A) \leq 1$

$\leq P(A^c) = 1 - P(A) \Rightarrow \boxed{P(A) \leq 1}$

✓ (c)  $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$

*Proof of (c) (parts a, b follow from c and the axioms)*

$S = A \cup A^c$ ,  $\overset{\text{axiom 2}}{1} = P(S) = P(A \cup A^c) \overset{\text{axiom 3}}{=} P(A) + P(A^c)$

disjoint

$\boxed{1 = P(A) + P(A^c)}$

**Theorem 1.2.9.** If  $P$  is a probability function and  $A, B$  are sets in  $\mathcal{B}$ , then

✓ (a)  $\underline{P(B \cap A^c) = P(B) - P(B \cap A)}$

(b)  $\underline{P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)}$

(c) if  $A \subset B$ , then  $P(A) \leq P(B)$

*Proof of (a) (parts b, c follow from a)*

(a)  $B = (B \cap A) \cup (B \cap A^c)$   $\Rightarrow P(B) \overset{\text{axiom 3}}{=} P(B \cap A) + P(B \cap A^c)$

disjoint

$\Rightarrow P(B \cap A^c) = P(B) - P(B \cap A)$

(b)  $A \cup B = A \cup (B \cap A^c)$   $\Rightarrow P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B \cap A^c)$

disjoint

$\overset{\text{axiom 2}}{\downarrow}$

Part (a)  $P(A) + P(B) - P(B \cap A)$

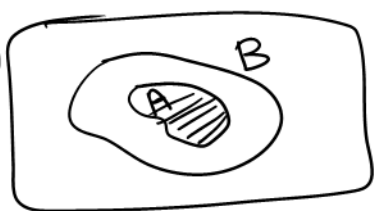
$A \cup (B \cap A^c) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup A^c)$

$\downarrow$

$S$

©  $A \subset B \Rightarrow P(A) \leq P(B)$   
 $B = A \cup (B \cap A^c) \Rightarrow P(B) = P(A) + P(B \cap A^c) \geq 0$

**Introduction to Probability**  
 Properties of probability functions (cont'd)



$P(B) \geq P(A)$

Bonferroni's Inequality:

**Theorem 1.2.11.** If  $P$  is a probability function, then

- (a)  $P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A \cap C_i)$  for any partition  $C_1, C_2, \dots \in \mathcal{B}$  (i.e., disjoint  $C_i$ 's &  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} C_i = S$ )
- (b)  $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$  for any sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{B}$

*Proof of (b)*

**Principle of Inclusion-Exclusion:** For any sets  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) &= \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k-1} \left( \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_k \leq n} P(A_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k}) \right) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) - \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} P(A_i \cap A_j) + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

This generalizes  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$  and is proven by induction.