

1. Define a collection C of subsets of \mathbb{R} by

$$C := \{A \subseteq \mathbb{R} : \text{either } A \text{ is countable or } A^c \text{ is countable}\}$$

show that $\sigma(C) \neq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, i.e., the Borel field σ -field is Not generated by subsets of \mathbb{R} that are countable.

answer:

First let's show that C is a σ -field;

- \mathbb{R} belongs to C because $\mathbb{R}^c = \emptyset$
- A belong to C , meaning A is countable or A^c is countable. If A^c is countable then A and A^c are both in C . if A is countable, then we know that $A = (A^c)^c$ is countable, hence A^c is in C . \implies if $A \in C$ then $A^c \in C$.
- let $A_i \in C$, if all A_i are countable then $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in C$. If there exists an A_{n_0} such that A_{n_0} is not countable, then $A_{n_0}^c$ is countable. $(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c \subset A_{n_0}^c$, hence countable. $\implies \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in C$.

we just showed $\sigma(C) = C$, lets take the interval $(0,1)$, $(0,1) \notin C$ because it is not countable and neither its complement, but $(0,1)$ is in $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. Hence, $\sigma(C) \neq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$

2. Let's consider the set $E_n = \{\omega \in \Omega : \mathbb{P}(\{\omega\}) > 0\}$

answer:

Every set has less than n elements, hence finite. Or $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_n$ is the set off elements with positive probability. $(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_n)$ is a finite set because it is the union of finite, countable sets. $\implies \mathbb{P}$ can only assign positive integer to at most countable singletons.

3. Apply a similar method as the one explained in class to solve the problem: if a fair coin is flipped infinitely many times, what is the probability that successive three heads never occur?

- (a) For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Define A_n to be the event that successive 3 heads never occur in the first n flips, and a_n to be the number of sample points in A_n , i.e., a_n is the number of ways of flipping a coin n times without having successive 3 heads in the outcomes. First write down a_1 , a_2 and a_3 . Then argue that

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + a_{n-3}$$

answer:

$a_1 = 2$, either H or T. $a_2 = 4$, HH, HT, TH or TT. $a_3 = 7$, all the possible outcomes except HHH, that's $8 - 1 = 7$.

First let's take a look at a_n . If the first toss is Tails, then we don't want 3 successive Heads in the remaining $n-1$ tosses, but if the first Toss is Heads, then we take a look at the second toss, now if the 2nd toss is Tails, then we don't want any 3 successive Heads in the remaining $n-2$ tosses, but if it is Heads, then the 3rd toss must be tails and then no successive 3 Heads in the remaining $n-3$ tosses.

$$\implies a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + a_{n-3}$$

- (b) Show that for every $n \geq 4$, $a_n < (1.9)^n$, and argue that the probability of never having successive 3 heads when flipping a fair coin infinitely many times is zero.

answer:

For the first part, proof by induction; $Q(n) = a_n < (1.9)^n$.

Base case: For $n = 4$, $a_4 = a_3 + a_2 + a_1 = 7 + 4 + 2 = 13$ or $1.9^4 = 13.03 \implies a_4 < (1.9)^4$.

$$a_5 = 24 < 24.76 \approx (1.9)^5$$

$$a_6 = 44 < 47.04 \approx (1.9)^6$$

Let's assume that indeed $Q(n)$ holds. Let's prove that for $Q(n+1)$.

Induction step: $a_{n+1} = a_n + a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} < (1.9)^n + (1.9)^{n-1} + (1.9)^{n-2}$

$$\rightarrow a_n + a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} < (1.9)^{n+1} \left(\frac{1}{1.9} + \frac{1}{1.9^2} + \frac{1}{1.9^3} \right) \approx 0.95 \times (1.9)^{n+1} < (1.9)^{n+1}$$

$$\text{Hence } a_{n+1} < (1.9)^{n+1}$$

$$\implies a_n < (1.9)^n$$

We know that $\mathbb{P}(A_n) = \frac{a_n}{2^n}$, then $\mathbb{P}(A_n) < \frac{(1.9)^n}{2^n} = \left(\frac{1.9}{2} \right)^n$. When $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$\mathbb{P}(A_n)$ goes to Zero as well, because $\frac{1.9}{2} < 1$

\implies the probability of never having successive 3 heads when flipping a fair coin infinitely many times is zero.

4. Assume that there are n students in a class. Also assume that one year has 365 days, $n \leq 365$

- (a) What is the probability that AT LEAST two students have the same birthday, First determine the exact formula (in terms of n), and then use a calculator/computer to compute the (approximated) numerical value of that probability for $n = 5, n = 23$ and $n = 65$.

answer:

Let the event A_n : At least two people have the same birthday.

$\overline{A_n}$: n people having distinct birthday.

$$\mathbb{P}(A_n) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(\overline{A})$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\overline{A_n}) = \frac{356}{356} \times \frac{364}{356} \times \frac{363}{356} \times \dots \times \frac{365 - n + 1}{365} = \frac{365!}{(365 - n)! \times 365^n}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(A_5) \approx 0.0271$$

$$\mathbb{P}(A_23) \approx 0.507$$

$$\mathbb{P}(A_65) \approx 0.998$$

- (b) What is the probability that at least three students have the same birthday? Leave your answer in the form of an exact formula (in terms of n).

answer:

We can our partition into: Distinct birthdays, 1 pair share a birthday, 2 pairs share a birthday, ... $\frac{n}{2}$ or $(\frac{n-1}{2}; n \text{ odd})$ pairs share a birthday. A: at least 3 people sharing a birthday. B: 2 people share birthday from 1 to $n/2$ pairs. C: Distinct birthdays The probability of k pairs sharing a birthday is:

$$P(B) = \frac{C(n, 2)C(n-2, 2)...C(n-2k+2, 2)P(365-k, n-2k)}{365^n}.$$

$$\text{Hence } \mathbb{P}(A) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(C) \\ = 1 - \frac{P(365, n)}{365^n} - \sum_{n=1}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \frac{C(n, 2)C(n-2, 2)...C(n-2k+2, 2)P(365-k, n-2k)}{365^n}$$

5. Let b,r and c be three positive integers. An urn contains b blue balls and r red balls. One ball is drawn at random from the urn, its color noted, and the ball itself plus c extra balls of the same color are put back into the urn; the process is then repeated.

- (a) Determine the probability that the result of the first three draws are blue, blue, red, i.e., the first two balls are blue and the third is red.

answer:

Let E_1 : first ball is blue.

Let E_2 : second ball is blue.

Let E_3 : third ball is red.

$$\mathbb{P}(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap E_3) = \mathbb{P}(E_1) \times \mathbb{P}(E_2|E_1) \times \mathbb{P}(E_3|E_2 \cap E_1)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(E_1) = \frac{b}{r+b}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(E_2|E_1) = \frac{b+c}{r+b+c}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(E_3|E_1 \cap E_2) = \frac{r}{r+b+2c}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap E_3) = \mathbb{P}(E_1) \times \mathbb{P}(E_2|E_1) \times \mathbb{P}(E_3|E_2 \cap E_1) = \\ \frac{b}{r+b} \times \frac{b+c}{r+b+c} \times \frac{r}{r+b+2c}$$

- (b) Show by induction that the probability of the nth ball drawn being red is $r/(r+b)$.

answer:

$$\text{For } n = 1 \text{ (First Draw), } \mathbb{P}(R_1) = \frac{r}{r+b}$$

Let's assume this holds for $(n-1)$, $\mathbb{P}(R_{n-1}) = \frac{r}{r+b}$.

Let's prove it for $P(R_n)$

$$\mathbb{P}(R_n) = \mathbb{P}(R_n|B_{n-1})\mathbb{P}(B_{n-1}) + \mathbb{P}(R_n|R_{n-1})\mathbb{P}(R_{n-1})$$

$$(\text{Note, } \mathbb{P}(B_{n-1}) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(R_{n-1}) = \frac{r+b-r}{r+b} = \frac{b}{r+b})$$

$$\text{Hence, } \mathbb{P}(R_n) = \left(\frac{r}{r+b+c}\right)\left(\frac{b}{r+b}\right) + \left(\frac{r+c}{r+b+c}\right)\left(\frac{r}{r+b}\right),$$

$$\text{Then } \mathbb{P}(R_n) = \frac{r}{r+b} \times \frac{b+(r+c)}{r+b+c} = \frac{r}{r+b}$$

6. There are n urns marked $1, 2, \dots, n$, and each of n urns contains 4 white and 6 black balls. There is another urn, marked $(n+1)$, containing 5 white and 5 black balls. An urn is chosen at random from the $(n+1)$ urns, and two balls are drawn at random from that urn, both being black. The probability that 5 white and 3 black balls are left in the chosen urn is $1/7$. Determine the value of n .

answer:

let A : The event 2 black balls chosen randomly from a randomly chosen urn.

and B_j : The j th urn is chosen.

We know that $\mathbb{P}(B_{n+1}|A) = 1/7$

We're gonna use Bayes's rule to solve for n . We have 5 white and 3 blacks ball remaining, then the chosen urn is the $(n+1)$ th.

$$\mathbb{P}(B_{n+1}|A) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A|B_{n+1})\mathbb{P}(B_{n+1})}{\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \mathbb{P}(A|B_k)\mathbb{P}(B_k)}$$

$$\text{for } j = 1, \dots, n \text{ urns; } \mathbb{P}(A|B_j) = \frac{C(6, 2)}{C(10, 2)} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(A|B_{n+1}) = \frac{C(5, 2)}{C(10, 2)} = \frac{2}{9}$$

$$\text{So, } \mathbb{P}(B_{n+1}|A) = \frac{\frac{2}{9} \times \frac{1}{n+1}}{\frac{2}{3(n+1)} + \frac{2}{9(n+1)}} = \frac{\frac{2}{9(n+1)}}{\frac{2}{3(n+1)} + \frac{2}{9(n+1)}} = \frac{2}{3n+2}.$$

$$\text{So we have } \frac{2}{3n+2} = \frac{1}{7} \rightarrow 3n+2 = 14 \rightarrow n = 4$$

7. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space where all the singletons are events. Suppose $\{A_n : n \leq N\}$. S is a countable sequence of independent events, i.e., for any $i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_N$ where $i_k \in N$ for $k = 1, \dots, N$, events $A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \dots, A_{i_N}$ are independent. Show that if $\mathbb{P}(A_n) = 1/2$ for all $n \leq N$, then all the singletons are null sets.

answer:

let $\omega \in \Omega$. Any $i \in \mathbb{N}$, ω_i is in A_i or A_i^c . So, let's consider the following Events E_i which are either, A_i or $A_i^c \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(E_i) = 1/2$. We know that A_i are independent for all i . Then the same goes for E_i for all i in \mathbb{N} . Then $\mathbb{P}(\omega) \leq \prod_{i=1}^N \mathbb{P}(E_i) = \frac{1}{2^N}$. Or N is arbitrarily large, Then $\mathbb{P}(\omega) = 0$

8. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space and $\{A_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ a countable sequence of events. Define,

$$A^* = \bigcap_{1 \leq k} \bigcup_{n \geq k} A_n$$

- (a) Show that if $\sum_{n \geq 1} \mathbb{P}(A_n) < \infty$ Then $\mathbb{P}(A^*) = 0$

answer:

Let $B_k = \bigcup_{n \geq k} A_n$. as $k \rightarrow \infty$, $B_k \searrow A^*$, then by continuity from above we get,

$$\mathbb{P}(A^*) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(B_k) \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n \geq k} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = 0$$

because $\sum_{n=1} \mathbb{P}(A_n)$ is finite, A_n must converge to Zero. Then $\mathbb{P}(A^*) = 0$

- (b) Further assume that $\{A_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is a sequence of independent events, Show that if $\sum_{n \geq 1} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \infty$ Then $\mathbb{P}(A^*) = 1$

answer:

We use De Morgan's law :

$$(A^*)^c = \bigcap_{1 \leq k} \bigcup_{n \geq k} A_n^c$$

Let $C_k = \bigcap_{n \geq k} A_n^c$. As $k \rightarrow \infty$, $C_k \nearrow A^*$, So we get :

$$\mathbb{P}((A^*)^c) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(C_k) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{n \geq k} \mathbb{P}(A_n^c) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{n \geq k} (1 - \mathbb{P}(A_n)) \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} e^{-\sum_{n \geq k} \mathbb{P}(A_n)} = e^{-\infty} = 0$$

Then $\mathbb{P}(A^*) = 1 - \mathbb{P}((A^*)^c) = 1 - 0 = 1$.