

proof. Prove by induction.

$n = 2$, it holds \leftarrow by ④, LN p.3-11

$$n = 3, P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3) = P(A_1 \cup A_2) + P(A_3) - P((A_1 \cup A_2) \cap A_3)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(A_1) + P(A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_2)$$

by ④

$$\cong P(A_1 \cap A_3) + P(A_2 \cap A_3) - P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3)$$

$$= P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) - P(A_1 \cap A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_3) - P(A_2 \cap A_3)$$

For $n > 3$, by mathematical induction (exercise)

$$+ P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3)$$

➤ Notes:

- There are $\binom{n}{k}$ summands in σ_k
- In symmetric examples,

Symmetric outcomes (LN p.3-4)

cf.

$$\sigma_k = \binom{n}{k} P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_k)$$

- It can be shown that

for proof.
See textbook. P.44

$$P(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n)$$

$$P(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n)$$

$$P(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n)$$

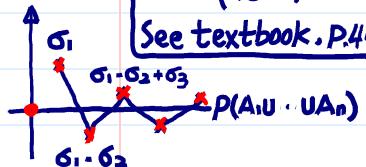
$$\dots$$

3rd proposition in LN p.3-11

$\leq \sigma_1$ 加太多

$\geq \sigma_1 - \sigma_2$ 減太多

$\leq \sigma_1 - \sigma_2 + \sigma_3$ 把太多



...

item

➤ Example (The Matching Problem). $\text{classical prob} = \frac{\#A}{\#\Omega}$

Symmetric outcomes

- Applications: (a) Taste Testing. (b) Gift Exchange.

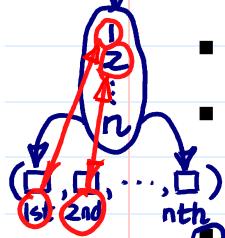
- Let Ω be all permutations $\omega = (i_1, \dots, i_n)$ of $1, 2, \dots, n$.

Thus, $\#\Omega = n!$.

eg. (3, 1, 5, ...)

1st 2nd 3rd

none of them get his/her own gift



Let

event of interest can be difficult to identify

$A_j = \{\omega: i_j = j\}$ and $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$,

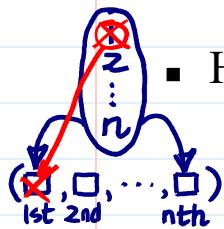
Q: $P(A) = ?$ (What would you expect when n is large?)

at least one person get his/her own gift

- By symmetry,

$$\sigma_k = \binom{n}{k} P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_k),$$

$P(A) \uparrow ?$ to 1?
 $P(A) \downarrow ?$ to 0?
or others?



Here,

$$P(A_1) = \frac{1 \times (n-1)!}{n!} = \frac{1}{n},$$

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2) = \frac{(n-2)!}{n!} = \frac{1}{(n)_2},$$

$\dots = \dots,$

$$P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_k) = \frac{(n-k)!}{n!} = \frac{1}{(n)_k}, \dots$$

for $k = 1, \dots, n$.



So, $\sigma_k = \binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{(n)_k} = \frac{1}{k!}, = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \times \frac{(n-k)!}{n!}$

$$e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} x^k$$

$$P(A) = \sigma_1 - \sigma_2 + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} \sigma_n = \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k+1} \frac{1}{k!}$$

c.f. $P(A) = 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^k \frac{1}{k!} \approx 1 - \frac{1}{e} = 0.632 \Rightarrow P(A^c) \approx e^{-1} = 0.368$

Note: approximation accurate to 3 decimal places if $n \geq 6$.

Proposition: If A_1, A_2, \dots is a partition of Ω , i.e.,

c.f. additivity axiom $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \Omega$,

2. A_1, A_2, \dots are mutually exclusive,

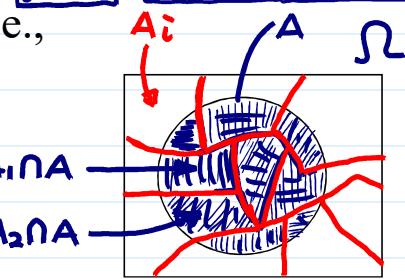
then, for any event $A \subset \Omega$,

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A \cap A_i)$$

proof. $A = A \cap \Omega = A \cap (\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (A \cap A_i)$ mutually exclusive

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

❖ Reading: textbook, Sec 2.4 & 2.5



Probability Measure for Continuous Sample Space

Q: How to define probability in a continuous sample space?

c.f. How to define P. M. for discrete Ω |

uncountably infinite Ω

• Monotone Sequences of sets (LN p.3-7) check Examples in LN p.3-1

➤ Definition: A sequence of events A_1, A_2, \dots is called increasing if

$$A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \dots \subset A_n \subset A_{n+1} \subset \dots \subset \Omega$$

and decreasing if

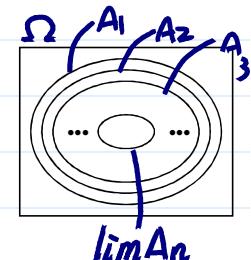
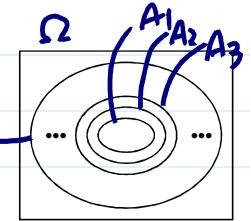
$$A_1 \supset A_2 \supset \dots \supset A_n \supset A_{n+1} \supset \dots \supset \emptyset$$

The limit of an increasing sequence is defined as

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$$

and the limit of an decreasing sequence is

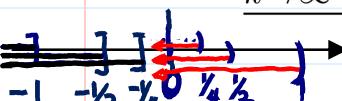
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$$



➤ Example: If $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ and $A_k = (-\infty, 1/k]$, then A_k 's are decreasing

and

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_k = \{\omega : \omega < 1/k \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{Z}_+\} = (-\infty, 0]$$



• Proposition: If A_1, A_2, \dots , is increasing or decreasing, then

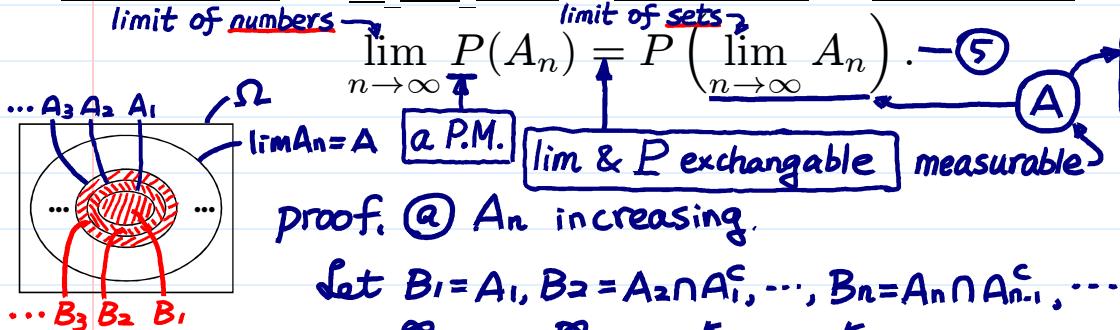
LNP.3-3 DeMorgan's Law

$$\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n \right)^c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n^c$$

$$\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \right)^c = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n^c$$

$$\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \right)^c = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n^c$$

• Proposition: If A_1, A_2, \dots , is increasing or decreasing, then



proof. ① A_n increasing.

Let $B_1 = A_1, B_2 = A_2 \cap A_1^c, \dots, B_n = A_n \cap A_{n-1}^c, \dots$

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n, \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = A_k, B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset \text{ for } i \neq j.$$

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n\right) &= P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) = P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n\right) \stackrel{\text{mutually exclusive}}{=} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(B_n) = \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^K P(B_n) \\ &= \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^K B_n\right) = \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^K A_n\right) = \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} P(A_K) \end{aligned}$$

by Ax3 Additivity

countable sums

② A_n decreasing $\Rightarrow A_n^c$ increasing

$$1 - P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n\right) = P\left(\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n\right)^c\right)$$

$$= P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n^c\right) \stackrel{\text{by ①}}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n^c) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 - P(A_n) = 1 - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n)$$

LNP.3-6 Example (Uniform Spinner): Let $\Omega = (-\pi, \pi]$. Define

Actually, it's enough to define P on any $(a, b]$, where a, b are rational numbers (\because rational numbers is a dense set)

$$P((a, b]) = \frac{b-a}{2\pi}.$$

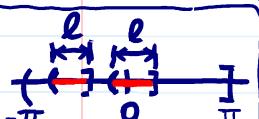
s(x) continuous sample space

for subintervals $(a, b] \subset \Omega$. Then, extend P to other subsets using the 3 axioms. For example, if $-\pi < a < b < \pi$,

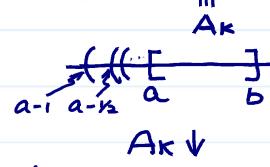
play a similar role like w_1, w_2, \dots in small p for discrete sample space (c.f. how to define P in LNP.3-7)

cumulative distribution function

Note: $[a, b] \neq (a, b)$
 $\Rightarrow P$ not defined on $[a, b]$ under (*)



$$P([a, b]) = P\left(\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} (a - \frac{1}{k}, b]\right) \cap \Omega\right) = P\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \left((a - \frac{1}{k}, b] \cap \Omega\right)\right)$$



基础事件
discrete:
 $\{w_i\}$
continuous:
 $(a, b]$

Some notes

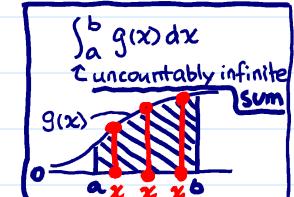
Note: $P([a, b])$ is derived through $P((a, b])$.

$P(\text{height} = 170) = 0$?

$$\square P(\{a\}) = P([a, b] - (a, b]) = P([a, b]) - P((a, b]) = 0.$$

$$\square \text{If } C = \{w_1, w_2, \dots\} \subset \Omega, \text{ then } \frac{b-a}{2\pi} = \frac{b-a}{2\pi}.$$

$$\square P(C) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(\{w_i\}) = 0 + 0 + \dots = 0.$$



discrete sample space

In Ax3. countable unions (LNP.3-6)

The probability of all rational outcomes is zero

a countable (but dense) set.

❖ Reading: textbook, Sec. 2.6

Objective vs. Subjective “Interpretation” of Probability

- Evaluate the following statements

obj → 1. This is a fair coin

subj → 2. It's 90% probable that Shakespeare actually wrote Hamlet

- Q: What do we mean if we say that the probability of rain tomorrow is 40%? how to interpret it?

Objective: Long run relative frequencies

Subjective: Chosen to reflect opinion

an event A

$$P(A) = 0.4$$

$$o(A) = \frac{0.4}{0.6} = \frac{2}{3}$$

- The Objective (Frequency) Interpretation 頻率

➤ Through Experiment: Imagine the experiment repeated N times. For an event A, let

$$N_A = \# \text{ occurrences of } A.$$

Then, $P(A) \equiv \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N_A}{N}$.

frequency

By Law of Large Number (future lecture or course)



➤ Example (Coin Tossing):

	N	100	1000	10000	100000
random	N_H	55	493	5143	50329
frequency	N_H/N	.550 .580	.493 .512	.514 .498	.503 .501

0.5

The result is consistent with $P(H)=0.5$.

* odds of an event (勝敗率, 賠率)

- The Subjective Interpretation

$$o(A) = \frac{P(A)}{P(A^c)} = \frac{P(A)}{1-P(A)} \Rightarrow P(A) = \frac{o(A)}{1+o(A)}$$

➤ Strategy: Assess probabilities by imagining bets $[o(A) \in [0, \infty)]$

$$P(A) \uparrow \Leftrightarrow o(A) \uparrow \Leftrightarrow o(A^c) \downarrow$$

➤ Example: 押 賺

2 : 1 odds on A

$$\text{(Peter) true } o(A) = \frac{P(A)}{P(A^c)} \geq \frac{2}{1}$$

event A

- Peter is willing to give two to one odds that it will rain tomorrow. His subjective probability for rain tomorrow is at least $2/3$

- Paul accepts the bet. His subjective probability for rain tomorrow is at most $2/3$

Bayesian approach

$$\text{(Paul) true } o(A^c) = \frac{P(A^c)}{P(A)} \geq \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow P(A) \leq \frac{2}{3}$$

➤ Probabilities are simply personal measures of how likely we think it is that a certain event will occur degree of personal belief.

e.g. 2 in LNP. 3-19.

This can be applied even when the idea of repeated experiments is not feasible

Summary

→ probability space (機率空間)

- sample space Ω

- collection of events (2^Ω)

- probability measure $P: 2^\Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$

subsets → set operations $\{ \cup, \cap, A^c \}$

rules of set operations

interpretation [objective
subjective]

classical approach

$$P(A) = \frac{\#A}{\#\Omega}$$

define P

inadequacy of classical approach

modern approach

3 Axioms

restrict P
but not define P

Axiom3
Additivity

consequence

$$\text{proposition 1: } P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$$

$$\text{proposition 2: } P(\emptyset) = 0$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$\text{proposition: } P(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = \sigma_1 - \sigma_2 + \dots$$

discrete Ω

1. define a small $P: \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$
on any $w \in \Omega$

$$2. \text{then extend: } P(A) = \sum_{w \in A} P(w)$$

continuous Ω

1. define probability on any
 $(a, b] \subset \Omega, a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$

2. then extend ← monotone
sequence of sets &
 $P(\lim A_n) = \lim P(A_n)$

❖ Reading: textbook, Sec. 2.7