Section 1.4 Probability Space

Definition

A collection $\mathscr F$ of subsets of Ω is a σ -algebra if (i) $\Omega \in \mathscr{F}$; (ii) $F \in \mathscr{F} \Longrightarrow \overline{F} \in \mathscr{F}$: (iii) if F_n is a countable collection of sets, $n = 1, 2, \cdots$ such that $F_n \in \mathscr{F}$ for all n, then $\bigcup F_n \in \mathscr{F}.$ n

What is the intuition behind a σ -algebra?

If Ω represents the collection of possible outcomes of an experiment, a subset of Ω is called an event. Then, a σ -algebra represents the collection of all possible, interesting events from the viewpoint of a given experiment.

Axiomatic Definition of Probability

Example

Let the experiment be a coin toss (where we blow on the coin if it stands up straight!). Then $\Omega = \{H, T\}$. Let \mathscr{F}_1 = $\{\emptyset, \{H\}, \{T\}, \{H, T\}\}\$ and $\mathscr{F}_2 = \{\emptyset, \{H, T\}\}\$. It is easy to prove that both \mathscr{F}_1 and \mathscr{F}_2 are σ -algebra on Ω .

Now we know that the reason that Bertrand Paradox occurs is σ-algebra on Ω is not uniquely determined.

6 -Algebra: down it probability
\n(i)
$$
A \in \mathcal{F}
$$
 $\overrightarrow{A} = \mathcal{F}$ $\overrightarrow{B} = \mathcal{F}$ $\overrightarrow{B} = \mathcal{F}$ $\overrightarrow{B} = \mathcal{F}$ $\overrightarrow{C} = \mathcal{F}$
\n(ii) $A \in \mathcal{F}$ $\overrightarrow{A} = \mathcal{F}$ $\overrightarrow{B} = \mathcal{F}$ $\overrightarrow{B} = \mathcal{F}$ $\overrightarrow{C} = \mathcal{F}$ $\overrightarrow{D} = \mathcal{F}$ \overrightarrow{A} \overrightarrow{B} \overrightarrow{C} \overrightarrow{A} \overrightarrow{C} \overrightarrow{B}

Axiomatic Definition of Probability

Definition

Let $P(A)(A \in \mathcal{F})$ be a non-negative set function on the σ -algebra $\mathscr{F}.$ P(A) is called the probability measure or **probability of** event A if it satisfies the following three axioms: **Axiom 1.** for every $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $P(A) \geq 0$; Axiom 2. $P(\Omega) = 1$; Axiom 3. (countable additivity) for every infinite sequence of countable disjoint events A_1, A_2, \cdots ,

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

The sets in σ -algebra $\mathscr F$ are called events. $\mathscr F$ is called to be the algebra of events. The triple (Ω, \mathscr{F}, P) is a **probability space** or probability triple.

Theorem

 $P(\emptyset) = 0.$

Proof. Consider the infinite sequence of events A_1, A_2, \cdots such that $A_i = \emptyset$ for $i = 1, 2, \cdots$. In other words, each of the events in the sequence is just the empty set \emptyset . This sequence is a sequence of disjoint events, since $\emptyset \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$. Furthermore, $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \emptyset$. Therefore, it follows from Axiom 3 that

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

This equation states that when the number $P(\emptyset)$ is added repeated in an infinite series, the sum of that series is simply the number $P(\emptyset)$. The only real number with this property ie zero.

Theorem

For every finite sequence of countable disjoint events A_1, A_2, \cdots, A_n . $P(\bigcup^n A_i) = \sum^n P(A_i).$ $i=1$ $i=1$

Proof. Consider the infinite sequence of events A_1, A_2, \cdots , in which A_1, A_2, \cdots, A_n are the *n* given disjoint events and $A_i = \emptyset$ for $i > n$. Then the events in this infinite sequence are disjoint and $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$. Therefore,

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

$$
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_{i}) + 0 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_{i})
$$

holds by Axiom 3.

Theorem

For every event A, $P(\overline{A}) = 1 - P(A)$.

Proof. Since A and \overline{A} are disjoint events and $A \cup \overline{A} = \Omega$, $P(\Omega) = P(A) + P(\overline{A})$. By Axiom 2, we know $P(\Omega) = 1$, then $P(\overline{A}) = 1 - P(A).$ \Box

Theorem

If
$$
A \subset B
$$
, then $P(B - A) = P(B) - P(A)$ and $P(A) \leq P(B)$.

Proof. Since $A \subset B$, the event B can be treated as the union of the two disjoint events A and BA. Therefore, $P(B) = P(A \cup B\overline{A}) = P(A) + P(B\overline{A}),$ i.e.,

$$
P(B - A) = P(B\overline{A}) = P(B) - P(A).
$$

Since $P(B - A) \geq 0$, $P(B) \geq P(A)$.

Theorem

For every event $A, 0 \leqslant P(A) \leqslant 1$.

Proof. It is known from Axiom 1 that $P(A) \ge 0$. Since $A \subset \Omega$ for every event A, Theorem 1.3.4 implies $P(A) \leq P(\Omega) = 1$, by Axiom 2.

Theorem

For every two events A and B,

$$
P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(AB). \tag{1}
$$

Proof. The event $A \cup B$ may be treated as the union of the three events \overline{AB} , \overline{AB} and $\overline{A}B$. Since the three events are disjoint,

$$
P(A \cup B) = P(A\overline{B} \cup AB \cup \overline{A}B) = P(A\overline{B}) + P(AB) + P(\overline{A}B).
$$
 (2)

Furthermore, it can be seen that

$$
P(A\overline{B}) = P(A - AB) = P(A) - P(AB)
$$

and

$$
P(\overline{A}B) = P(B - AB) = P(B) - P(AB).
$$

Then

$$
P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(AB).
$$

Corralary

For every three events A_1, A_2 and A_3 ,

$$
P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3)
$$

\n
$$
- [P(A_1 A_2) + P(A_2 A_3) + P(A_1 A_3)] \quad (3)
$$

\n
$$
+ P(A_1 A_2 A_3).
$$

Corralary

For every n events
$$
A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n
$$
,
\n
$$
P(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) - \sum_{i < j} P(A_i A_j) + \sum_{i < j < k} P(A_i A_j A_k) - \sum_{i < j < k - 1} P(A_i A_j A_k A_l) + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} P(A_1 A_2 \dots A_n).
$$

 (4)

Proof. (i) Let
$$
A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i
$$
. Since $A_n \subset A_{n+1}$, we rewrite A_n
by *n* disjoint events $A_1, A_2 \overline{A_1}, \dots, A_n \overline{A_{n-1}}$:

$$
A_n = A_1 \cup A_2 \overline{A_1} \cup \cdots \cup A_n \overline{A_{n-1}}.
$$

Let $B_n = A_n \overline{A_{n-1}}$, $n = 1, 2, \cdots$. Then

$$
P(A) = P\left(\bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} B_m\right) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P(B_m) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{m=1}^{n} P(B_m).
$$

Thus
$$
\sum_{m=1}^{n} P(B_m) = P(\bigcup_{m=1}^{n} B_m) = P(A_n).
$$
 So

$$
P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P(A_n).
$$

(ii) It can be obtained by defining $B_i = A_i$.

Exercises

Example

Assume A and B are two events such that $P(A) = 1/3$ and $P(B) = 1/2$. Determine the value of $P(B - A)$ satisfying each of the following conditions. (a) A and B are disjoint; (b) $A \subset B$; (c) $P(AB) = 1/8$.

Solution. Since

$$
P(B) = P(AB) + P(\overline{A}B) = P(AB) + P(B - A),
$$

That is,

$$
P(B - A) = P(B) - P(AB). \tag{7}
$$

(a) Since A and B are disjoint means $AB = \emptyset$, we know

$$
P(B - A) = P(B) - P(AB) = P(B) = 1/2.
$$

(b) If $A \subset B$, then $AB = A$. Thus $P(B - A) = P(B) - P(AB) = P(B) - P(A) = 1/6.$ (c) $P(B - A) = P(B) - P(AB) = 1/2 - 1/8 = 3/8.$

Example

Assume A and B are two events such that $P(B) = b$ and $P(A \cup$ B) = c. (c > b) Determine the value of $P(A\overline{B})$.

Solution. By equations [\(9\)](#page-9-0) and [\(7\)](#page-15-1),

$$
P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(AB)
$$

$$
= P(B) + [P(A) - P(AB)]
$$

$$
= P(B) + P(A - B).
$$

Thus $P(A\overline{B}) = P(A - B) = P(A \cup B) - P(B) = c - b.$

Example

Select an integer from 1 to 1000 at random. Calculate the probability of the event that the integer is not divisible by 6 and 8.

Solution. Let A be the event that the integer is divisible by 6, and B be the event that the integer is divisible by 8. The required probability is

$$
P(\overline{A} \ \overline{B}) = P(\overline{A \cup B}) = 1 - P(A \cup B)
$$

= 1 - [P(A) + P(B) - P(AB)]
= 1 - 166/1000 - 125/1000 + 41/1000 \approx 0.75.

Example

(The matching problem) An absent-minded secretary prepares n letters and envelopes to send to n different people, but then randomly students the letters into the envelopes. A match occurs if a letter is inserted in the proper envelope. Here we shall determine the probability of the event that at least one match occurs.

Exercises

Solution. Let A_i be the event that letter i is placed in the correct envelop $(i = 1, 2, \dots, n)$ (or a person gets his or her own hat) and we shall determine the value of $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i)$ by using equation [\(4\)](#page-11-0). Since

$$
P(A_i) = \frac{(n-1)!}{n!} = \frac{1}{n}, \qquad i = 1, 2, \dots;
$$

\n
$$
P(A_i A_j) = \frac{(n-2)!}{n!} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)}, \qquad 1 \le i < j \le n;
$$

\n
$$
P(A_i A_j A_k) = \frac{(n-3)!}{n!} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)(n-2)}, \qquad 1 \le i < j < k \le n;
$$

\n
$$
\vdots
$$

\n
$$
P(A_1 \cdots A_n) = \frac{1}{n!},
$$

Solution. we have

$$
P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\right) = {n \choose 1} \cdot \frac{1}{n} - {n \choose 2} \cdot \frac{1}{n(n-1)} + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n!}
$$

= $1 - \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n!}.$

 \Box

This probability has the following interesting features. As $n \to \infty$, the value of $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i)$ approaches the following limit:

$$
1-\frac{1}{2!}+\frac{1}{3!}-\frac{1}{4!}+\cdots.
$$

It is shown in books on elementary calculus that the sum of the infinite series on the right side of this equation is $1 - (1/e)$, where $e = 2.71828 \cdots$. Hence, $1 - (1 - 1/e) = 0.63212 \cdots$. It follows that for large value of n , the probability that at least one letter will be placed in the correct envelope is approximately 0.63212.

The value of $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i)$ converges to the limit very rapidly. In fact, for $n = 7$ the exact value $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{7} A_i)$ and the limiting value 0.63212 agree to four decimal places. Hence, regardless of whether seven letters are placed at random in seven or seven million letters are placed at random in seven million envelopes, the probability that at least one letter will be replaced in the correct envelope is 0.63212.

Exercises

• Definition

- **Axiom 1**. for every $A \in \mathcal{F}, P(A) \geq 0$;
- Axiom 2. $P(\Omega) = 1$;
- **Axiom 3.** (countable additivity)
- Properties
	- $P(\emptyset) = 0$.
	- For disjoint events A_1, A_2, \cdots, A_n ,

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

- For every event A, $P(\overline{A}) = 1 P(A)$.
- If $A \subset B$, then $P(B A) = P(B) P(A)$ and $P(A) \leq P(B)$.
- For every event $A, 0 \leqslant P(A) \leqslant 1$.
- For every two events A and B ,

$$
P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(AB).
$$
 (9)

Thank you for your patience!