

# Mathematics for Informatics 4a

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Lecture 2  
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## The story of the film so far...

Our first goal in this course is to formalise assertions such as

“the chance of  $A$  is  $p$ ”,

where

- the event  $A$  is a subset of the set of outcomes of some experiment, and
- $p$  is some measure of the likelihood of event  $A$  occurring, by which we mean that the outcome of the experiment belongs to  $A$ .

The set of outcomes is denoted  $\Omega$  and the possible events define a  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{F}$  of subsets of  $\Omega$ ; that is, a family of subsets which contains  $\emptyset$  and  $\Omega$  and is closed under complementation, countable union and countable intersection.

## Probability as relative frequency

Imagine repeating an experiment  $N$  times.

We let  $N(A)$  denote the number of times that the event  $A$  occurs. Clearly,  $0 \leq N(A) \leq N$ . If the following limit exists

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N(A)}{N} = \mathbb{P}(A),$$

the number  $\mathbb{P}(A)$  obeys  $0 \leq \mathbb{P}(A) \leq 1$  and is called the **probability** of  $A$  occurring.

Since  $N(\Omega) = N$ , we have  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ .

If  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ ,  $N(A \cup B) = N(A) + N(B)$ , whence

$\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B)$ . By induction, if  $A_i$  is a finite family of pairwise disjoint events,

$$\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_1) + \mathbb{P}(A_2) + \dots + \mathbb{P}(A_n).$$

As usual, it is (theoretically) convenient to extend this to countable families.

## Probability measures

### Definition

A **probability measure** on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  is a function  $\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  satisfying

- $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$
- if  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots$  are such that  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i \neq j$ , then

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

The triple  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  is called a **probability space**.

### Remark

Since  $\Omega = A \cup A^c$  is a disjoint union,  $\mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(A^c) = 1$ . In particular,  $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$ .

## Bernoulli trials

### Definition

A **Bernoulli trial** is any trial with only two outcomes.

### Example

Tossing a coin is a Bernoulli trial:  $\Omega = \{H, T\}$ .

Let us call the two outcomes generically “success” (S) and “failure” (F), so that  $\Omega = \{S, F\}$ . Then we have

$$\mathbb{P}(\{S\}) = p \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{P}(\{F\}) = q .$$

Since  $\Omega = \{S\} \cup \{F\}$  is a disjoint union, it follows that  $q = 1 - p$ .

### Notation

We will often drop the  $\{ \}$  when talking about events consisting of a single outcome and will write  $\mathbb{P}(S) = p$  and  $\mathbb{P}(F) = 1 - p$ .

## Fair coins and fair dice

Tossing a coin has  $\Omega = \{H, T\}$ . Let  $\mathbb{P}(H) = p$  and  $\mathbb{P}(T) = 1 - p$ . The coin is **fair** if  $p = \frac{1}{2}$ , so that both H and T are equally probable.

Similarly, a **fair** die is one where every outcome has the same probability. Since there are six outcomes, each one has probability  $\frac{1}{6}$ :

$$\mathbb{P}(\square) = \mathbb{P}(\square) = \mathbb{P}(\square) = \mathbb{P}(\square) = \mathbb{P}(\square) = \mathbb{P}(\square) = \frac{1}{6} .$$

Fair coins and fair dice are examples of “uniform probability spaces”: those whose outcomes are all equally likely.

## Uniform probability measures

Suppose that  $\Omega$  is a finite set of cardinality  $|\Omega|$ , and suppose that every outcome is equally likely:  $\mathbb{P}(\omega) = p$  for all  $\omega \in \Omega$ .

Since  $\Omega = \bigcup_{\omega \in \Omega} \omega$  is a disjoint union, we have

$$1 = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{\omega \in \Omega} \omega\right) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mathbb{P}(\omega) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p = p|\Omega| ,$$

whence  $p = 1/|\Omega|$ .

Now let  $A \subseteq \Omega$  be an event:

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{\omega \in A} \omega\right) = \sum_{\omega \in A} \mathbb{P}(\omega) = \sum_{\omega \in A} \frac{1}{|\Omega|} = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}$$

### Example

You draw a number at random from  $\{1, 2, \dots, 30\}$ . What is the probability of the following events:

- ①  $A =$  the number drawn is even
- ②  $B =$  the number drawn is divisible by 3
- ③  $C =$  the number drawn is less than 12

There are 30 possible outcomes, all equally likely (“at random”).

- ①  $A = \{2, 4, 6, \dots, 30\}$ , so  $|A| = 15$  and hence  $\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{15}{30} = \frac{1}{2}$ .
- ②  $B = \{3, 6, 9, \dots, 30\}$ , so  $|B| = 10$  and hence  $\mathbb{P}(B) = \frac{10}{30} = \frac{1}{3}$ .
- ③  $C = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 11\}$ , so  $|C| = 11$  and hence  $\mathbb{P}(C) = \frac{11}{30}$ .

## Example

Three fair dice are rolled and their scores added.  
Which is more likely: a 9 or a 10?

There are  $6^3$  possible outcomes, all equally likely.

$$6 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$6 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$3 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$3 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$6 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$1 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$6 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$6 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$3 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$6 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$3 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$3 \times \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \end{array}$$

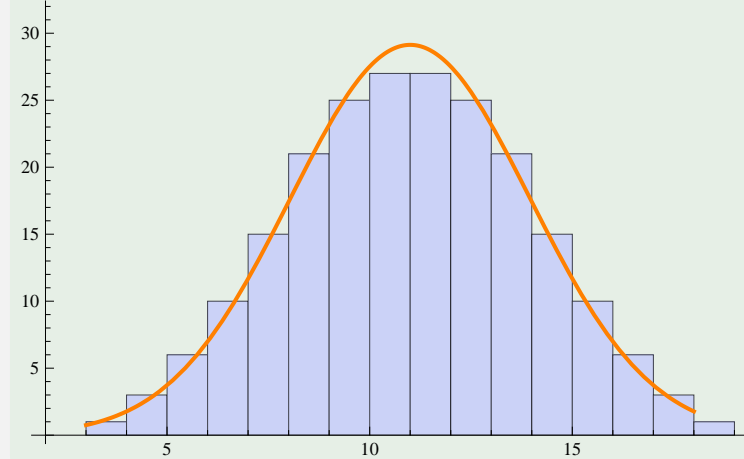
$$\mathbb{P}(9) = 25/6^3$$

Therefore  $\mathbb{P}(10) > \mathbb{P}(9)$ .

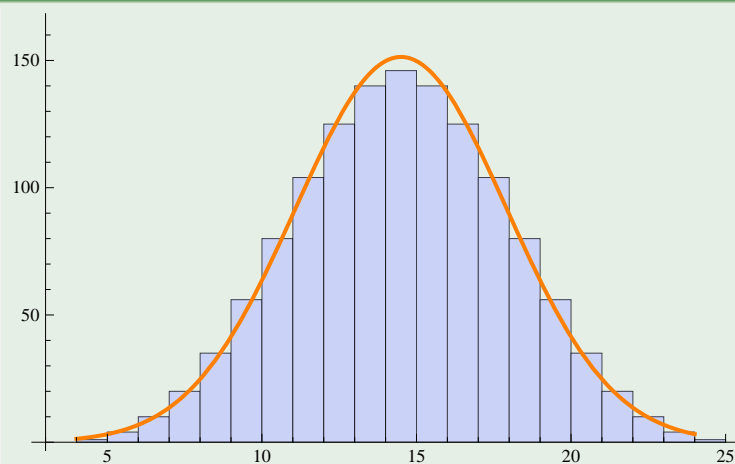
$$\mathbb{P}(10) = 27/6^3$$

## Example (Continued)

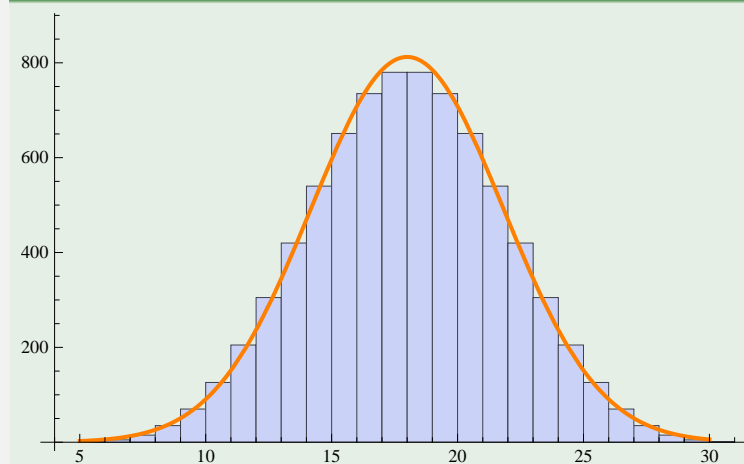
We could have answered this without enumeration. The average score of rolling three dice is  $10\frac{1}{2}$ . Since 10 is closer than 9 to the average,  $\mathbb{P}(10) \geq \mathbb{P}(9)$  as a consequence of the “central limit theorem”.



## Example (Continued)



## Example (Continued)



### Example (Alice and Bob's game)

Alice and Bob toss a fair coin in turn and the winner is the first one to get H. Suppose that Alice goes first and consider the three events:

- $A$  = Alice wins
- $B$  = Bob wins
- $C$  = nobody wins

Let  $\omega_i$  be the outcome  $\underbrace{TT \cdots T}_{i-1}H$ . Then  $A = \{\omega_1, \omega_3, \omega_5, \dots\}$

and  $B = \{\omega_2, \omega_4, \omega_6, \dots\}$ . There is a further possible outcome  $\omega_\infty$ , corresponding to the unending game  $TTT \cdots$  in which nobody wins. Hence  $C = \{\omega_\infty\}$ . The (countably infinite) sample space is  $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_\infty\}$ , which is the disjoint union  $\Omega = A \cup B \cup C$ . Therefore  $\mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) + \mathbb{P}(C) = 1$ .

### Example (continued)

There are  $2^n$  possible outcomes of tossing the coin  $n$  times, all equally likely. Hence  $\mathbb{P}(\omega_n) = 1/2^n$ . Therefore since  $A = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \{\omega_{2n+1}\}$  is a disjoint union,

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(\omega_{2n+1}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^{-2n-1} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4^n} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1 - \frac{1}{4}} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Similarly, since  $B = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{\omega_{2n}\}$  is also a disjoint union,

$$\mathbb{P}(B) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(\omega_{2n}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-2n} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4^n} = \frac{\frac{1}{4}}{1 - \frac{1}{4}} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

Finally, since  $\mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) = 1$ , we see that  $\mathbb{P}(C) = 0$ .

### Warning

Although  $\mathbb{P}(C) = 0$ , the event  $C$  is **not** impossible.

## Basic properties of probability measures

### Theorem

- 1  $\mathbb{P}(A^c) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(A)$
- 2 if  $B \supseteq A$  then  $\mathbb{P}(B) \geq \mathbb{P}(A)$

### Proof.

- 1  $\Omega = A \cup A^c$  is a disjoint union, whence

$$1 = \mathbb{P}(\Omega) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(A^c).$$

- 2 Write  $B$  as the disjoint union  $B = (B \setminus A) \cup A$ , whence

$$\mathbb{P}(B) = \mathbb{P}(B \setminus A) + \mathbb{P}(A) \geq \mathbb{P}(A).$$

□

### Example (The Birthday problem)

*What is the probability that among  $n$  people chosen at random, there are at least 2 people sharing the same birthday?*

Let  $A_n$  be the event where at least two people in  $n$  share the same birthday. Then  $A_n^c$  is the event that no two people in  $n$  share the same birthday and  $\mathbb{P}(A_n) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(A_n^c)$ .

There are  $365^n$  possible outcomes to the birthdays of  $n$  people and  $365 \times 364 \times \cdots \times (365 - n + 1)$  possible outcomes consisting of  $n$  different birthdays, hence

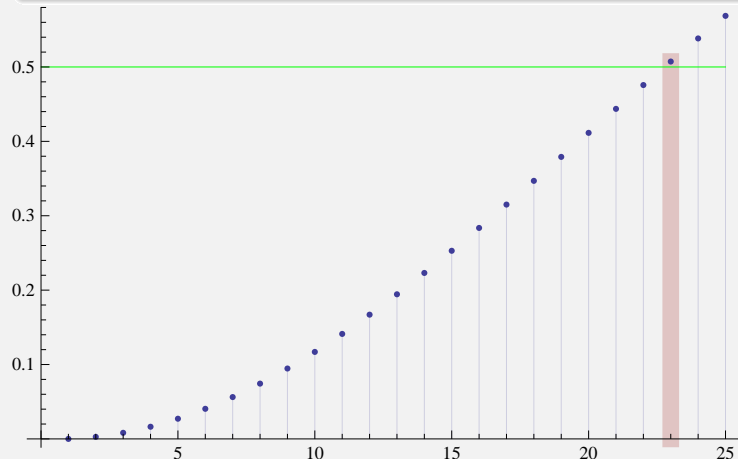
$$\mathbb{P}(A_n^c) = \frac{365 \times 364 \times \cdots \times (365 - n + 1)}{365^n} = \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{365}\right)$$

and

$$\mathbb{P}(A_n) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{365}\right).$$

### Example (continued)

For which value of  $n$  is the chance of two people sharing the same birthday better than evens?



Answer: **23 (!)**

## Inclusion-exclusion rule

### Theorem

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

### Proof.

- $A = (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap B)$  whence  $\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A \setminus B) + \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$
- $B = (B \setminus A) \cup (A \cap B)$  whence  $\mathbb{P}(B) = \mathbb{P}(B \setminus A) + \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$
- $A \cup B = (A \triangle B) \cup (A \cap B)$  whence

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(A \cup B) &= \mathbb{P}(A \triangle B) + \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(A \setminus B) + \mathbb{P}(B \setminus A) + \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(A) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) + \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) \end{aligned}$$

□

### Example

Historical meteorological records for a certain seaside location show that on New Year's day there is a 30% chance of rain, 40% chance of being windy and 20% chance of both rain and wind. What is the chance of it being dry? dry and windy? wet or windy?

- $\mathbb{P}(\text{dry}) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(\text{wet}) = 1 - \frac{3}{10} = \frac{7}{10}$
- $\mathbb{P}(\text{dry and windy}) = \mathbb{P}(\text{windy but not wet}) = \mathbb{P}(\text{windy}) - \mathbb{P}(\text{wet and windy}) = \frac{4}{10} - \frac{2}{10} = \frac{2}{10}$
- $\mathbb{P}(\text{wet or windy}) = \mathbb{P}(\text{wet}) + \mathbb{P}(\text{windy}) - \mathbb{P}(\text{wet and windy}) = \frac{3}{10} + \frac{4}{10} - \frac{2}{10} = \frac{5}{10} = \frac{1}{2}$

## Boole's inequality

### Theorem

$$\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \leq \mathbb{P}(A_1) + \mathbb{P}(A_2) + \dots + \mathbb{P}(A_n)$$

### Proof.

$A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n = (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_{n-1}) \cup A_n$ , and by the inclusion-exclusion rule,

$$\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \leq \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_{n-1}) + \mathbb{P}(A_n)$$

But now  $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_{n-1} = (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_{n-2}) \cup A_{n-1}$ , so that

$$\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \leq \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_{n-2}) + \mathbb{P}(A_{n-1}) + \mathbb{P}(A_n)$$

et cetera. □

## General inclusion-exclusion rule

### Theorem

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A_i) - \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \mathbb{P}(A_i \cap A_j) + \sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq n} \mathbb{P}(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) - \cdots + (-1)^{n+1} \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right)$$

### Proof.

Use induction from the simple inclusion-exclusion rule.  $\square$

## Continuity

### Theorem

- 1 Let  $A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq A_3 \subseteq \cdots$  and let  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} A_i$ .  
Then  $\mathbb{P}(A) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$ .
- 2 Let  $B_1 \supseteq B_2 \supseteq B_3 \supseteq \cdots$  and let  $B = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} B_i$ .  
Then  $\mathbb{P}(B) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(B_i)$ .

### Proof.

- 1  $A = A_1 \cup (A_2 \setminus A_1) \cup (A_3 \setminus A_2) \cup \cdots$  is a disjoint union:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(A) &= \mathbb{P}(A_1) + \mathbb{P}(A_2 \setminus A_1) + \mathbb{P}(A_3 \setminus A_2) + \cdots \\ &= \mathbb{P}(A_1) + (\mathbb{P}(A_2) - \mathbb{P}(A_1)) + (\mathbb{P}(A_3) - \mathbb{P}(A_2)) + \cdots \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n). \end{aligned}$$

- 2 Take complements of the previous proof.  $\square$

## Summary

Every experiment has an associated **probability space**  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , where

- $\Omega$  is the sample space (set of all outcomes),
- $\mathcal{F}$  is the  $\sigma$ -field of events, and
- $\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is a probability measure:
  - normalised so that  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$
  - countably additive over disjoint unions

Probability spaces with  $\Omega$  finite and  $\mathbb{P}$  uniformly distributed (“all outcomes equally likely”) are particularly amenable to counting techniques from combinatorial analysis.