

## SAMPLE SPACES

### DEFINITION :

The *sample space* is the set of all possible outcomes of an experiment.

**EXAMPLE :** When we *flip a coin* then sample space is

$$\mathcal{S} = \{ H , T \} ,$$

where

$H$  denotes that the coin lands "Heads up"

and

$T$  denotes that the coin lands "Tails up".

For a "*fair coin*" we expect H and T to have the same "*chance*" of occurring, *i.e.*, if we flip the coin many times then about 50 % of the outcomes will be  $H$ .

We say that the *probability* of H to occur is 0.5 (or 50 %).

The probability of  $T$  to occur is then also 0.5.

**EXAMPLE :**

When we *roll a fair die* then the sample space is

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

The probability the die lands with  $k$  up is  $\frac{1}{6}$  , ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, 6$ ).

When we roll it 1200 times we expect a 5 up about 200 times.

The probability the die lands with an *even number* up is

$$\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2} .$$

**EXAMPLE :**

When we toss a coin 3 times and record the results in the *sequence* that they occur, then the sample space is

$$\mathcal{S} = \{ HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT \}.$$

Elements of  $\mathcal{S}$  are "*vectors*", "*sequences*", or "*ordered outcomes*".

We may expect each of the 8 outcomes to be equally likely.

Thus the probability of the sequence  $HTT$  is  $\frac{1}{8}$ .

The probability of a sequence to contain precisely two Heads is

$$\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{3}{8}.$$

**EXAMPLE :** When we toss a coin 3 times and record the results without paying attention to the order in which they occur, *e.g.*, if we only record the number of Heads, then the sample space is

$$\mathcal{S} = \left\{ \{H, H, H\}, \{H, H, T\}, \{H, T, T\}, \{T, T, T\} \right\}.$$

The outcomes in  $\mathcal{S}$  are now *sets*; *i.e.*, order is not important.

Recall that the ordered outcomes are

$$\{ HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT \}.$$

Note that

$\{H, H, H\}$	corresponds to	<i>one</i>	of the ordered outcomes,
$\{H, H, T\}$	„	<i>three</i>	„
$\{H, T, T\}$	„	<i>three</i>	„
$\{T, T, T\}$	„	<i>one</i>	„

Thus  $\{H, H, H\}$  and  $\{T, T, T\}$  each occur with probability  $\frac{1}{8}$ , while  $\{H, H, T\}$  and  $\{H, T, T\}$  each occur with probability  $\frac{3}{8}$ .

## Events

In Probability Theory subsets of the sample space are called *events*.

**EXAMPLE :** The set of basic outcomes of rolling a die *once* is

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

so the subset  $E = \{ 2 , 4 , 6 \}$  is an example of an event.

If a die is rolled *once* and it lands with a 2 *or* a 4 *or* a 6 up then we say that the event  $E$  has *occurred*.

We have already seen that the probability that  $E$  occurs is

$$P(E) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2} .$$

## The Algebra of Events

Since events are *sets*, namely, subsets of the sample space  $\mathcal{S}$ , we can do the usual *set operations* :

If  $E$  and  $F$  are events then we can form

$E^c$	the <i>complement</i> of $E$
$E \cup F$	the <i>union</i> of $E$ and $F$
$EF$	the <i>intersection</i> of $E$ and $F$

We write  $E \subset F$  if  $E$  is a *subset* of  $F$ .

**REMARK** : In Probability Theory we use

$E^c$  instead of  $\bar{E}$  ,

$EF$  instead of  $E \cap F$  ,

$E \subset F$  instead of  $E \subseteq F$  .

If the sample space  $\mathcal{S}$  is *finite* then we typically allow any subset of  $\mathcal{S}$  to be an event.

**EXAMPLE** : If we randomly draw *one character* from a box containing the characters  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ , then the sample space is

$$\mathcal{S} = \{a, b, c\},$$

and there are 8 possible events, namely, those in the set of events

$$\mathcal{E} = \left\{ \{\}, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\} \right\}.$$

If the outcomes  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ , are equally likely to occur, then

$$P(\{\}) = 0, \quad P(\{a\}) = \frac{1}{3}, \quad P(\{b\}) = \frac{1}{3}, \quad P(\{c\}) = \frac{1}{3},$$

$$P(\{a, b\}) = \frac{2}{3}, \quad P(\{a, c\}) = \frac{2}{3}, \quad P(\{b, c\}) = \frac{2}{3}, \quad P(\{a, b, c\}) = 1.$$

For example,  $P(\{a, b\})$  is the probability the character is an  $a$  *or* a  $b$ .

We always assume that the set  $\mathcal{E}$  of allowable events *includes the complements, unions, and intersections* of its events.

**EXAMPLE** : If the sample space is

$$\mathcal{S} = \{a, b, c, d\},$$

and we start with the events

$$\mathcal{E}_0 = \left\{ \{a\}, \{c, d\} \right\},$$

then this set of events needs to be extended to (at least)

$$\mathcal{E} = \left\{ \{\}, \{a\}, \{c, d\}, \{b, c, d\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c, d\}, \{b\}, \{a, b, c, d\} \right\}.$$

**EXERCISE** : Verify  $\mathcal{E}$  includes complements, unions, intersections.



## Axioms of Probability

A *probability function*  $P$  assigns a real number (the *probability* of  $E$ ) to every event  $E$  in a sample space  $\mathcal{S}$ .

$P(\cdot)$  must satisfy the following basic properties :

- $0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$  ,
- $P(\mathcal{S}) = 1$  ,
- For any *disjoint events*  $E_i$  ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , we have

$$P(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_n) = P(E_1) + P(E_2) + \dots + P(E_n) .$$

## Further Properties

### PROPERTY 1 :

$$P(E \cup E^c) = P(E) + P(E^c) = 1. \quad (\text{Why ?})$$

Thus

$$P(E^c) = 1 - P(E).$$

### EXAMPLE :

What is the probability of at least one "H" in *four tosses* of a coin?

**SOLUTION :** The sample space  $\mathcal{S}$  will have 16 outcomes. (Which?)

$$P(\text{at least one H}) = 1 - P(\text{no H}) = 1 - \frac{1}{16} = \frac{15}{16}.$$

**PROPERTY 2 :**

$$P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) - P(EF) .$$

**PROOF** (using the third axiom) :

$$\begin{aligned} P(E \cup F) &= P(EF) + P(EF^c) + P(E^cF) \\ &= [P(EF) + P(EF^c)] + [P(EF) + P(E^cF)] - P(EF) \\ &= P(E) + P(F) - P(EF) . \quad (\text{Why ?}) \end{aligned}$$

**NOTE :**

- Draw a Venn diagram with  $E$  and  $F$  to see this !
- The formula is similar to the one for the number of elements :

$$n(E \cup F) = n(E) + n(F) - n(EF) .$$

So far our sample spaces  $\mathcal{S}$  have been *finite*.

$\mathcal{S}$  can also be *countably infinite*, e.g., the set  $\mathbb{Z}$  of all integers.

$\mathcal{S}$  can also be *uncountable*, e.g., the set  $\mathbb{R}$  of all real numbers.

**EXAMPLE** : Record the low temperature in Montreal on January 8 in each of a large number of years.

We can take  $\mathcal{S}$  to be the set of *all real numbers*, i.e.,  $\mathcal{S} = \mathbb{R}$ .

(Are there are other choices of  $\mathcal{S}$  ?)

What probability would you expect for the following *events* to have?

(a)  $P(\{\pi\})$

(b)  $P(\{x : -\pi < x < \pi\})$

(How does this differ from finite sample spaces?)

We will encounter such infinite sample spaces many times  $\dots$