EEL 5544 Noise in Linear Systems Lecture 2a

SET OPERATIONS

- Want to determine probabilities of events (combinations of outcomes)
- Each event is a set \Rightarrow need operations on sets:
	- 1. $A \subset B$ (read "A is a subset of B"):

DEFN The *subset operator* \subset is defined for two sets A and B by

$$
A \subset B \text{ if } x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B
$$

Note that $A = B$ is included in $A \subset B$

 $A = B$ if and only if $A \subset B$ and $B \subset A$ (useful for proofs)

2. $A \cup B$ (read "A union B" or "A or B")

DEFN The *union* of A and B is a set defined by

 $A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$

3. $A \cap B$ (read "A intersect B" or "A and B")

DEFN The *intersection* of A and B is defined by

$$
A \cap B = AB = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}
$$

4. A^c or \overline{A} (read "A complement")

DEFN The *complement* of a set A in a sample space Ω is defined by

$$
A^c = \{x \mid x \in \Omega \text{ and } x \notin A\}
$$

- Use Venn diagrams to convince yourself of:
	- 1. $(A \cap B) \subset A$ and $(A \cap B) \subset B$
	- 2. $(\overline{A}) = A$
	- 3. $A \subset B \Rightarrow \overline{B} \subset \overline{A}$
	- 4. $A \cup \overline{A} = \Omega$
	- 5. $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ (DeMorgan's Law 1)
	- 6. $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$ (DeMorgan's Law 2)
- One of the most important relations for sets is when sets are mutually exclusive

• This is very important, so I will emphasize it again: mutually exclusive is a \equiv

SAMPLE SPACES

- Given the following experiment descriptions, write a mathematical expression for the sample space. Compare and contrast the experiments and sample spaces.
	- 1. Roll a fair 6-sided die and note the number on the top face.
	- 2. Roll a fair 6-sided die and determine whether the number on the top face is even or odd.

3. Toss a coin 3 times and note the sequence of outcomes.

4. Toss a coin 3 times and note the number of heads.

5. Roll a fair die 3 times and note the number of even results.

6. Roll a fair 6-sided die 3 times and note the number of sixes.

7. Simultaneously toss a quarter and a dime and note the outcomes?

- 8. Simultaneously toss two identical quarters and note the outcomes?
- 9. Pick a number at random between zero and one, inclusive.
- 10. Measure the lifetime of a computer chip.

MORE ON EVENTS

- Recall that an event A is a subset of the sample space Ω
- The set of all events is the $\qquad \qquad$, denoted $\mathcal F$ or $\mathcal A$
- EX: Flipping a coin

The possible events are:

- Heads occurs
- Tails occurs
- Heads or Tails occurs
- Neither Heads nor Tails occurs
- Thus, the event class can be written as

• EX: Rolling a 6-sided die

There are many possible events, such as:

- 1. The number 3 occurs
- 2. An even number occurs
- 3. No number occurs
- 4. Any number occurs

• *Express the events listed in the example above in set notation.*

1. 2. 3. 4.

MORE ON EQUALLY-LIKELY OUTCOMES

IN DISCRETE SAMPLE SPACES

Consider the following examples:

A. A coin is tossed 3 times and the sequence of H and T is noted. $\Omega_3 = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, \ldots, TTT\}$

Assuming equally likely outcomes,

$$
P(a_i) = \frac{1}{|\Omega_3|} = \frac{1}{8}
$$
 for any outcome a_i

Let A_2 = exactly 2 heads occurs in 3 tosses. Then

Note that for equally likely outcomes in general, if an event E consists of K outcomes (i.e., $E = \{o_1, o_2, \ldots, o_K\}$ and $|E| = K$), then

B. Suppose a coin is tossed 3 times, but only the number of heads is noted $\Omega = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$

Assuming equally likely outcomes,

$$
P(a_i) = \frac{1}{|\Omega|} = \frac{1}{4}
$$
 for any outcome a_i

Then

EXTENSION OF EQUALLY LIKELY OUTCOMES

TO CONTINUOUS SAMPLE SPACES

- Cannot directly apply our notion of equally-likely outcomes to continuous sample spaces because any continuous sample space has an infinite number of outcomes
- Thus, if each outcome has some positive probability of occurring $p > 0$, the total probability would be $\infty p = \infty$
- Our previous work on equally likely outcomes indicates that the probability of each outcome should be $1/\Omega = 0$, but this seems to suggest that the probability of every event is 0.
- In fact, assigning 0 probability to the outcomes does **NOT** necessarily imply that the probability of every event is 0.
- Let's use our previous approach of using cardinality to define the probability of an event. Consider the continuous sets which are simplest to measure cardinality on: the intervals

DEFN For a sample space Ω that is an interval, $\Omega = [A, B]$, a probability measure P has equally likely outcomes on Ω if for any a and b such that $A \le a \le b \le B$,

 $P([a, b]) =$

- Note that $P(c) = 0$ for any $c \in [A, B]$.
- For a typical continuous sample space, the prob. of any particular outcome is zero.

Interpretation: Suppose we choose random numbers in $[A, B]$ until we see all the outcomes in that range at least once.

How many trials will it take? ∞

• Seeing a number a finite number of times in an infinite number of trials \Rightarrow Relative freq. = 0 *(Does not mean that outcome does not ever occur, only that it occurs very infrequently.)*