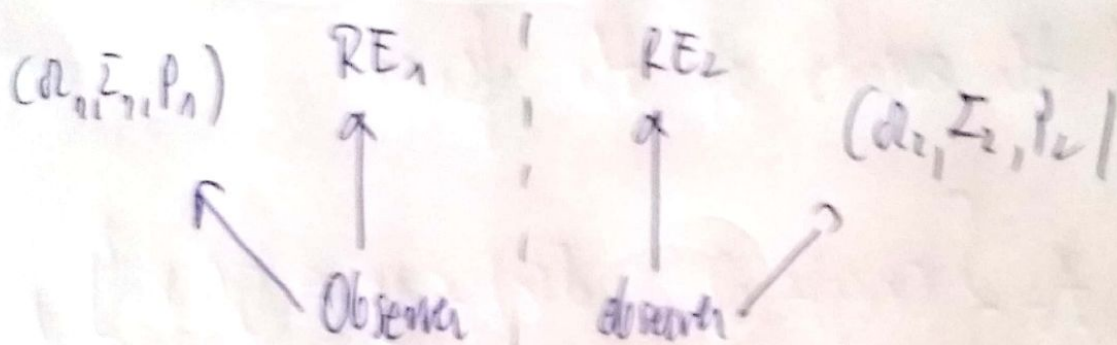


ERASMUS B4 course  
winter 2020/2021  
FPM&H, November 05

Subject: KPM and its examples — continuous

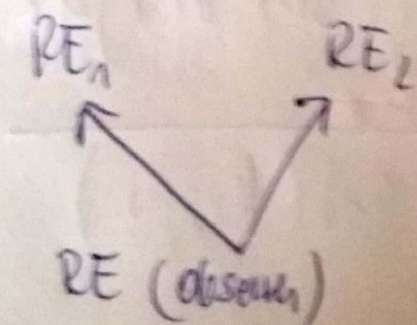
The case of PRODUCT KPM

Suppose that we observe separately two RE:  $RE_1$  &  $RE_2$



So, we have two KPM corresponding to these observations:  
 $(\alpha_1, \zeta_1, p_1)$  &  $(\alpha_2, \zeta_2, p_2)$ .

Let's look at these observations differently — namely,  
as for an unique random experiment:



Then, we have the new RE with KPM  $(\alpha, \zeta, p)$

Since  $\mathcal{R} \bar{E}$  follows from  $\mathcal{R} \bar{E}_1, \mathcal{R} \bar{E}_2$ , the KPM  $(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{Z}, \mathcal{P})$  should also follow from  $(\mathcal{O}_1, \mathcal{Z}_1, \mathcal{P}_1), (\mathcal{O}_2, \mathcal{Z}_2, \mathcal{P}_2)$  as well.

Now to describe  $(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{Z}, \mathcal{P})$ .

The solution comes from the concept of PRODUCT KPM as follows:

$$\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \text{ (cartesian product),}$$

$$\text{so } \omega \in \Omega \Leftrightarrow \omega = (\omega_1, \omega_2), \omega_j \in \Omega_j, j=1,2.$$

$$\bar{\mathcal{Z}} = \bar{\mathcal{Z}}_1 \otimes \bar{\mathcal{Z}}_2, \text{ it means } \mathcal{H}$$

$\bar{\mathcal{Z}}$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra contained

the family  $\{A_1 \times A_2, A_j \in \bar{\mathcal{Z}}_j, j=1,2\}$ .

In particular every subset

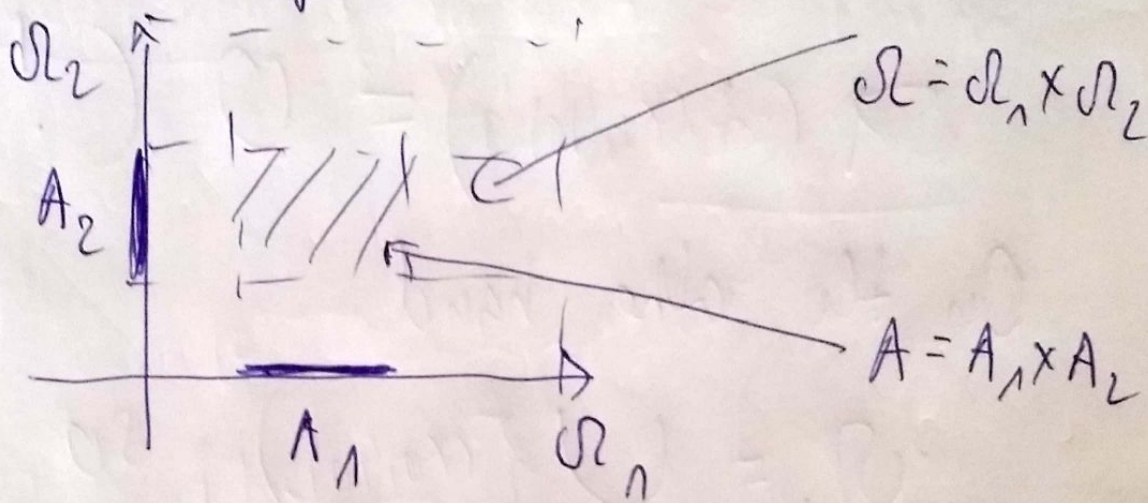
$A_1 \times A_2 \subset \Omega \text{ ( } A_j \in \bar{\mathcal{Z}}_j \text{ )}$  is an event.

Further,  $A_1 \times A_2$  is called a rectangle.

Then

$$P(A_1 \times A_2) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} P_1(A_1)P_2(A_2).$$

We can give very simple geometrical interpretation of the above facts:



Ex 1. Suppose  $\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$

$$(\Omega_1, \Sigma_1, P_1) = (\Omega_2, \Sigma_2, P_2) = (\Omega_0, \Sigma_0, P_0),$$

where

$$\Omega_0 = \{0, 1\}, \quad \Sigma_0 = \mathcal{P}(\Omega_0),$$

$$P_0(\{1\}) = p \in (0, 1), \quad P_0(\{0\}) = q = 1 - p.$$

Let's take the cartesian product  $(\Omega_0, \Sigma_0, P_0)$  by itself.

Then we obtain:

$$\Omega = \text{Bin}_2 = \{(0, 0), (0, 1), (1, 0), (1, 1)\}$$

$$\Sigma = P(\Omega),$$

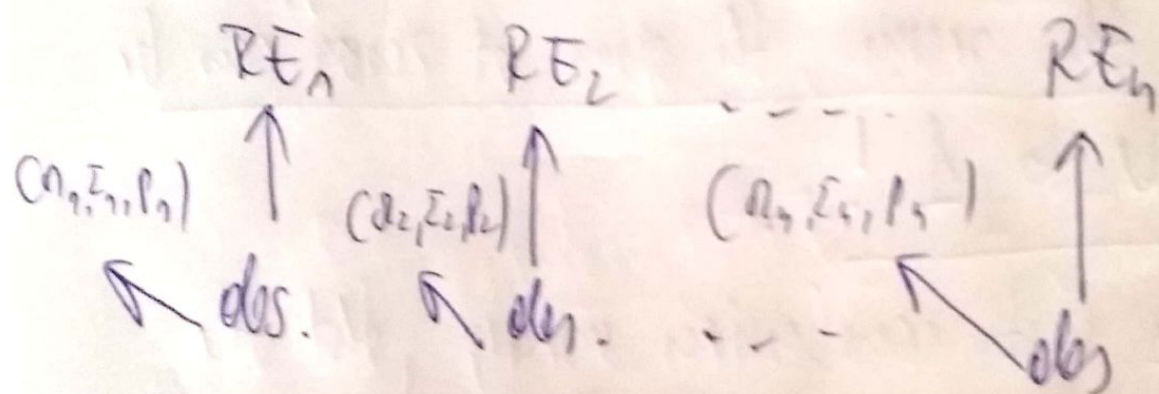
$$P(\{(\omega, 0, 1)\}) = q^2, \quad P(\{(\omega, 1, 1)\}) = P(\{(\omega, 0, 1)\}) = pq,$$

$$P(\{(\omega, 1, 1)\}) = p^2.$$

And generally:

for  $n \geq 2$ , let  $RE_j$   $j=1 \dots n$ , and

$(\Omega_j, \Sigma_j, P_j)$  all given, so we have



By using the concept of PRODUCT KPM we get the new (final result) RE and KPM

$(\Omega, \Sigma, P)$ , where:

$$(i) \quad \Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \times \dots \times \Omega_n, \text{ so}$$

$$\omega \in \Omega \equiv \omega = (\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_n),$$

$$\omega_j \in \Omega_j, \quad j=1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$(ii) \quad \Sigma = \Sigma_1 \otimes \Sigma_2 \otimes \dots \otimes \Sigma_n$$

is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra which contains the family

$$\{A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n, A_j \in \Sigma_j, j=1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

(iii) Then  $A = A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$  is called a n-rectangle

For given  $A$  we have

$$P(A) = P_1(A_1) P_2(A_2) \dots P_n(A_n)$$

TAJKA

Fix  $n=2$ . Prove that the family

$$\{A_1 \times A_2, A_j \in \Sigma_j, j=1, 2\}$$

is not a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

## Example 2

Let's consider Example 1 for the case when  $n \geq 2$ .

Then we have:

$$\Omega = \Omega_0 \times \Omega_0 \times \dots \times \Omega_0 = \Omega_0^n = \text{Bin}_n$$

$$\omega \in \Omega \Leftrightarrow \omega = (\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_n),$$

$$\omega_j \in \Omega_0, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$P(\omega) = p^k (1-p)^{n-k}, \quad \text{where}$$

$$k = \# \{j : \omega_j = 1\}.$$

Conclusion

$B(n, p)$  is an example of PRODUCT KPM.

## TASK 2

For  $n=2$  let's consider:

$$A = A_1 \times \Omega_2, \quad A_1 \in \bar{\Sigma}_1$$

$$B = \Omega_1 \times A_2, \quad A_2 \in \bar{\Sigma}_2$$

Prove that

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$$

What does that mean for  $A, B \in \bar{\Sigma} = \bar{\Sigma}_1 \otimes \bar{\Sigma}_2$ ?

Let's go back to the essence of the KPM.

The case of discrete KPM shows it

for every elementary event  $\omega_i$ ,

$P(\omega_i) > 0$ , and always we have

$$\sum P(\omega_i) = 1$$

where

Is it always like that?

To discuss this problem let's consider the following example of KPM.

Ex 3.

$$\text{For: } \Omega = [a_1, b_1] \times [a_2, b_2],$$

where  $a_1 < b_1$  &  $a_2 < b_2$  are reals

and the events of the form

$$A \ni X = \{ (x, y) \in \Omega : d(x) \leq y \leq g(x) \},$$

where  $d, g: [a_1, b_1] \rightarrow [a_2, b_2]$

are continuous functions, we define

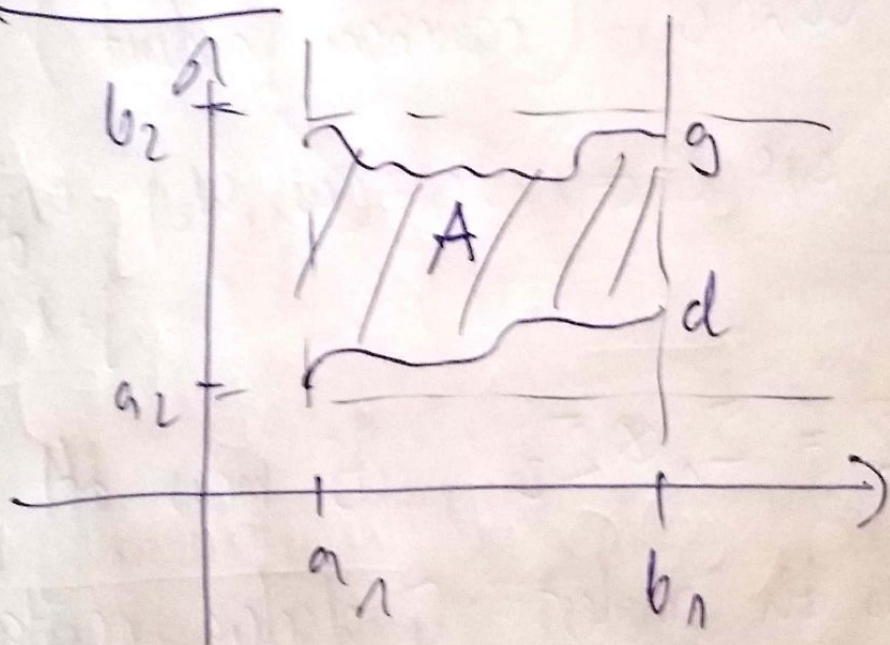
$$P(A) = \frac{\int_{a_1}^{b_1} (g(x) - d(x)) dx}{(b_1 - a_1)(b_2 - a_2)}$$



It can be proved that

$(\Omega, \sigma(\mathcal{A}), \mathbb{P})$ , where  
 $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  - is a  $\sigma$ -algebra generated  
by the family  $\mathcal{A}$  is well defined KPM.

We call this model the geometric model of  
dimension 2.



then every  $A$  given as above is called  
a Borel subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$

Now, let's take an elementary event,  
so the point  $\{(x_0, y_0)\}$ , where  
 $x_0 \in [a_1, b_1]$ ,  $y_0 \in [a_2, b_2]$ .

It can be proved that

$$P(\{(x_0, y_0)\}) = 0 \quad (!)$$

On the other hand

$$\Omega = \bigcup_{\omega = (x_0, y_0) \in \Omega} \{(x_0, y_0)\}, \text{ so}$$

We have

$$1 = P(\Omega) = P\left(\bigcup_{\omega = (x_0, y_0) \in \Omega} \{(x_0, y_0)\}\right) =$$

$$(*) \sum_{\omega = (x_0, y_0) \in \Omega} P(\{(x_0, y_0)\}) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} 0$$

Could the maths stop working?

Next, everything is alright. So how to explain the above phenomenon (x)?

The answer is as follows:

in (x) the operation  $\Sigma$  is performed in the case then the set  $\Omega$  is uncountable

For this reason, "the sum of zeros" can be equal to 1!

The last conclusion means, that the above KPM is totally undiscide.

Such a model is called (CONTINUOUS)

## TASK 3

We choose two numbers  $p, q \in [-1, 1]$ .

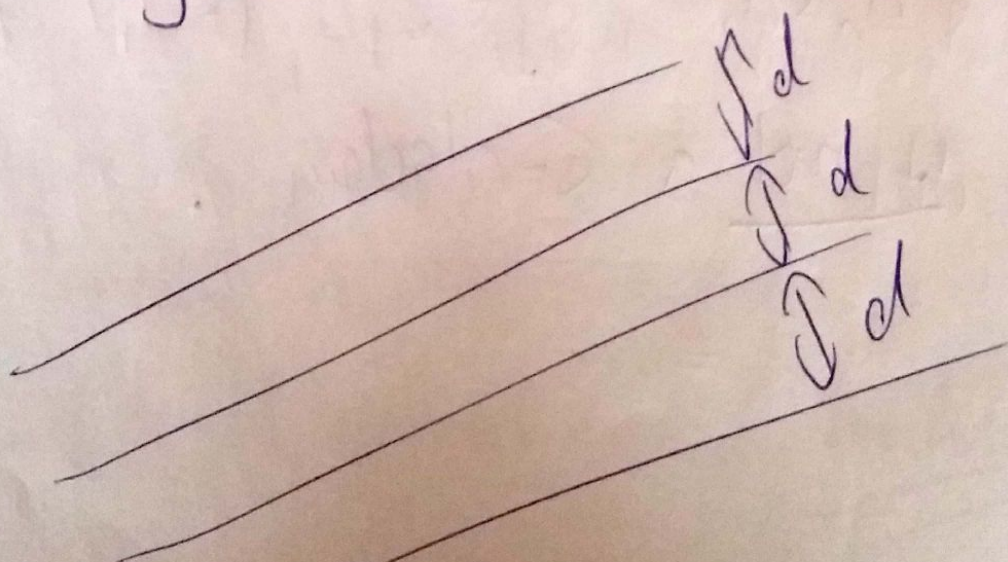
Let's calculate the probability that

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R} \quad x^2 + px + q > p$$

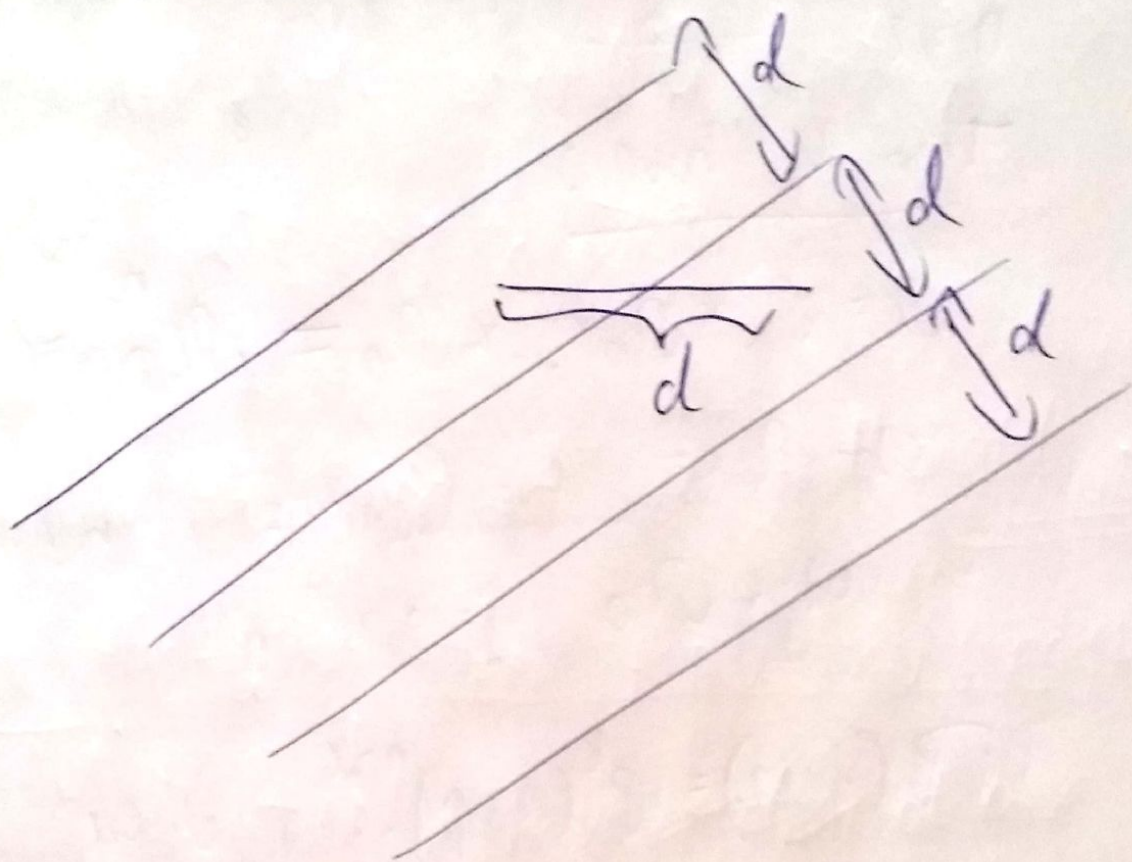
Hint Use the concept of geometrical model.

## TASK 4 (THE PROBLEM OF BUFFON'S NEEDLE)

Let's imagine that we have ~~a plane~~ at our disposal the plane on which parallel lines are drawn, distance from each other by  $d$ .



We have a needle of length  $d$ , which we lower on this plane



Prove that the probability of the event that the lowered needle will cross one of the lines is equal to  $\frac{2}{\pi}$

Consider the case when the length of the needle is equal  $h \geq d$ .

Hint. Use the geometrical 2-d model.