

Probability Theory and Combinatorics

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## Agenda for Today

- Repetition from last time
- Bayesian probability calculations and total probability
- Bernoulli trials
- Combinatorics
- An experiment

# **Basic Probability**

Probability theory tells us what is in the sample given nature

Basic Axions:

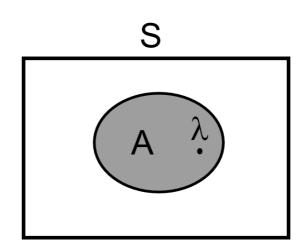
Axion 1:  $0 \le Pr(A) \le 1$ 

Axion 2: Pr(S) = 1

S: Sample space

A: Event

λ: Sample point

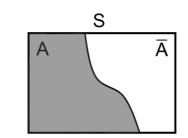


 Often (but not always) we use the relative frequency:

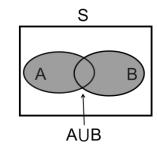
$$\Pr(A) = \frac{N_A}{N}$$

# **Basic Probability**

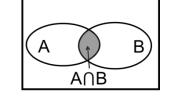
• Complement:  $Pr(A) = 1 - Pr(\bar{A})$ 



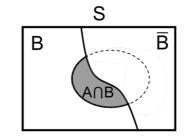
• Union:  $Pr(A \cup B) = Pr(A) + Pr(B) - Pr(A \cap B)$ 



• Joint:  $Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A|B) \cdot Pr(B) = Pr(B|A) \cdot Pr(A)$ 



• Conditional: Pr(A|B)



#### Bayes Rule and Independence

Bayes Rule:

$$Pr(A|B) = \frac{Pr(A \cap B)}{Pr(B)} = \frac{Pr(B|A) \cdot Pr(A)}{Pr(B)}$$

A and B independent:

$$Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A) \cdot Pr(B)$$

$$Pr(B|A) = Pr(B)$$
 and  $Pr(A|B) = Pr(A)$ 

## **Total Probability**

We sometime call it the marginal

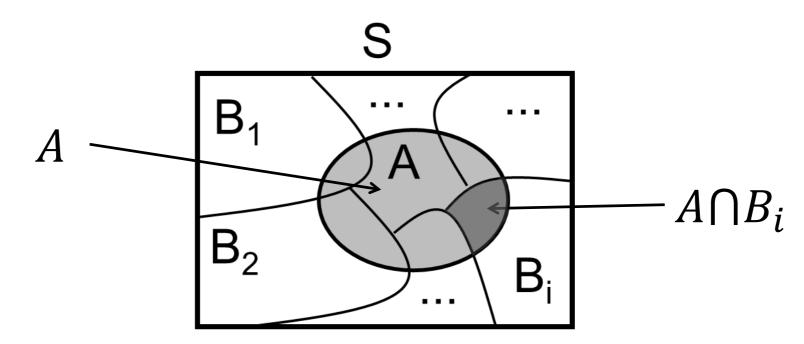
Pr(A) of an event is the total probability of that event.

$$Pr(A) = Pr(A \cap B) + Pr(A \cap \overline{B})$$
$$= Pr(A|B) \cdot Pr(B) + Pr(A|\overline{B}) \cdot Pr(\overline{B})$$

## **Total Probability**

We sometime call it the marginal

Pr(A) of an event is the total probability of that event.



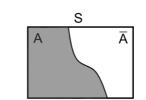
$$Pr(A) = Pr(A \cap B_1) + Pr(A \cap B_2) + \dots + Pr(A \cap B_i) + \dots$$
  
=  $Pr(A|B_1) \cdot Pr(B_1) + Pr(A|B_2) \cdot Pr(B_2) + \dots$ 

where the  $B_i$ 's are mutually exclusive  $(B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset \text{ for } i \neq j)$ and  $S = B_1 \cup B_2 \cup ... \cup B_i \cup ...$ 

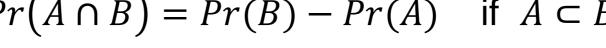
# Summary of Probability

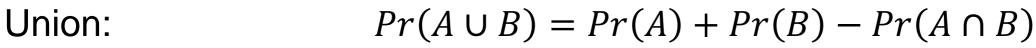
 $Pr(A) = \frac{N_A}{N_S}$ Relative frequency:

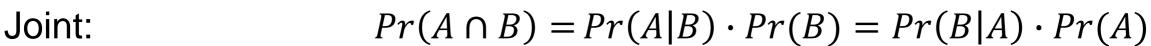
 $Pr(\bar{A}) = 1 - Pr(A)$ Complement:

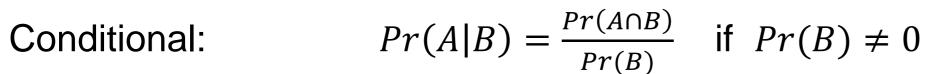


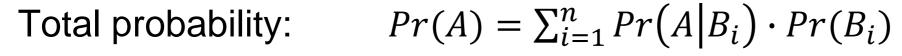
 $Pr(\bar{A} \cap B) = Pr(B) - Pr(A)$  if  $A \subset B$ **Exclusive:** 



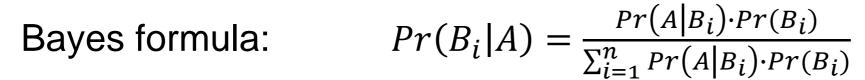




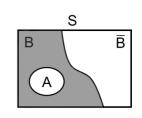


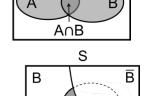


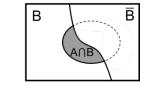




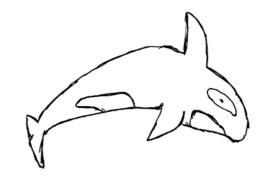
 $Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A) \cdot Pr(B)$ Independence:







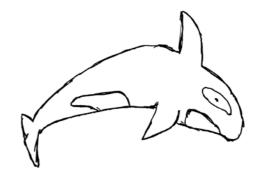




- In a conversation effort, we look for dead orcas when we are visiting an ocean.
- Given (conditioned) that we have selected an ocean to examine, how many males and females orcas will we observe?

Gender\ location	Atlantic (A <sub>1</sub> )	Antartica (A <sub>2</sub> )	Pacific (A <sub>3</sub> )	Seaworld (A <sub>4</sub> )
Female (B)	2	7	11	9
Male (B)	8	3	1	19
Total	10	10	12	28

## Orca Example (Cont'd)



The probability selecting an ocean is identical.

Event A<sub>1</sub>: Atlantic

Event A<sub>2</sub>: Antartica

Event A<sub>3</sub>: Pacific

Event A₄: Seaworld

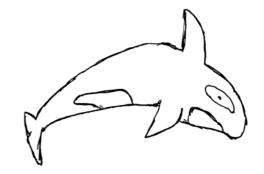
S			
A <sub>1</sub>	$A_2$		
$A_3$	$A_4$		

$$Pr(A_1) = Pr(A_2) = Pr(A_3) = Pr(A_4) = \frac{1}{4}$$
  
 $Pr(A_1) + Pr(A_2) + Pr(A_3) + Pr(A_4) = 1$ 

The events  $A_1 - A_4$  are mutually exclusive.

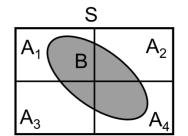


#### Orca Example Total Probability



The event B, that the orca is a male, can then be written as:

$$B = (B \cap A_1) \cup (B \cap A_2) \cup (B \cap A_3) \cup (B \cap A_4)$$



• The total probability of a found killer whale, being a male, since event  $A_1 - A_4$  are mutually exclusive (sum rule):

$$Pr(B) = Pr(B \cap A_1) + Pr(B \cap A_2) + Pr(B \cap A_3) + Pr(B \cap A_4)$$

We rewrite with Bayes rule:

$$Pr(B) = Pr(A_1) Pr(B|A_1) + Pr(A_2) Pr(B|A_2) + Pr(A_3) Pr(B|A_3) + Pr(A_4) Pr(B|A_4)$$





#### Total Probability:

$$Pr(B) = Pr(A_1) Pr(B|A_1) + Pr(A_2) Pr(B|A_2)$$
  
  $+ Pr(A_3) Pr(B|A_3) + Pr(A_4) Pr(B|A_4)$ 

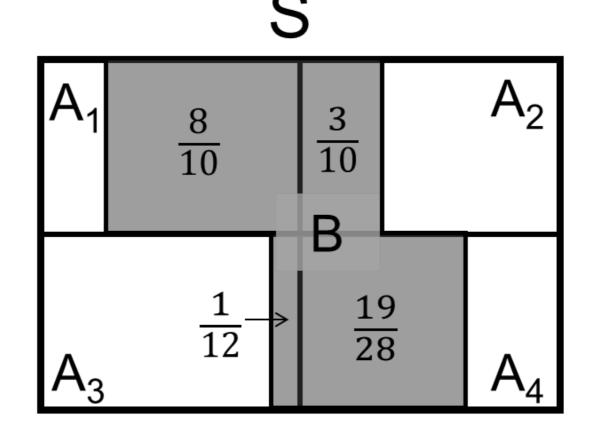
Gender\ location	Atlantic (A₁)	Antartica (A <sub>2</sub> )	Pacific (A <sub>3</sub> )	Seaworld (A <sub>4</sub> )
Female (B)	2	7	11	9
Male (B)	8	3	1	19
Total	10	10	12	28

$$Pr(B) = \frac{8}{10} \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{10} \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{12} \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \frac{19}{28} \cdot \frac{1}{4} = 0,465$$



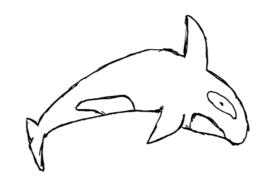


We can also use a Graphical approach with Venn diagrams.



 The total probability of B is given by the marked area divided by the area of S.

# Orca Example



 If an orca found is a male, what is the probability of us being in the Antartica?

$$Pr(A_2|B)$$

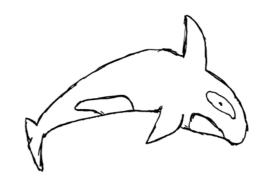
We use Bayes rule:

$$Pr(A_2|B) = \frac{Pr(A_2 \cap B)}{Pr(B)} = \frac{Pr(B|A_2)Pr(A_2)}{Pr(B)}$$

• 
$$Pr(B) = 0.47$$
;  $Pr(A_2) = 0.25$ ;  $Pr(B|A_2) = 0.3$ 

$$Pr(A_2|B) = \frac{Pr(B|A_2)Pr(A_2)}{Pr(B)} = \frac{0.3 \cdot 0.25}{0.47} = 0.16$$

# Orca Example

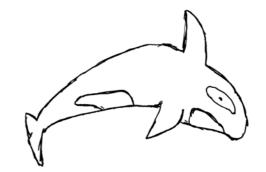


- Is locations of the found orca independent of gender?
- How would you test it?

Gender\ location	Atlantic (A <sub>1</sub> )	Antartica (A <sub>2</sub> )	Pacific (A <sub>3</sub> )	Seaworld (A <sub>4</sub> )
Female (B)	2	7	11	9
Male (B)	8	3	1	19
Total	10	10	12	28

$$Pr(A_2 \mid \bar{B}) = \frac{Pr(\bar{B} \mid A_2)Pr(A_2)}{Pr(\bar{B})} = \frac{0.7 \cdot 0.25}{1 - 0.47} = 0.33 \neq 0.16 = Pr(A_2 \mid B)$$

# Orca Example Conclusion



 Prior: What is the probability of us being in the Antartica?

$$Pr(A_2) = 0.25$$

 Likelihood: A tacked orca is found dead in Antartica, what is the probability of it being male?

$$Pr(B|A_2) = 0.3$$

 Posterior: A tacked orca whale is found dead and is a male, what is the probability of us being in Antartica?

$$Pr(A_2|B) = 0.16$$





- In a conversation effort, we pick up dead orcas from different oceans.
- The dead orcas are marked with the ocean and collected in the same container.
- A dead orca is randomly picked from the container:
   What is the probability that the orca is a male?

Gender\ location	Atlantic (A <sub>1</sub> )	Antartica (A <sub>2</sub> )	Pacific (A <sub>3</sub> )	Seaworld (A <sub>4</sub> )
Female (B)	2	7	11	9
Male (B)	8	3	1	19
Total	10	10	12	28





#### Total Probability:

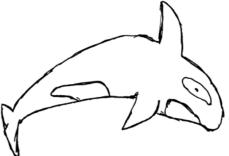
$$Pr(B) = Pr(A_1) Pr(B|A_1) + Pr(A_2) Pr(B|A_2)$$
$$+ Pr(A_3) Pr(B|A_3) + Pr(A_4) Pr(B|A_4)$$

	S	
$A_1$		$A_2$
	T B -	
$A_3$		$A_4$

Gender\ location	Atlantic (A <sub>1</sub> )	Antartica (A <sub>2</sub> )	Pacific (A <sub>3</sub> )	Seaworld (A <sub>4</sub> )	Total
Female (B)	2	7	11	9	29
Male (B)	8	3	1	19	31
Total	10	10	12	28	60

$$Pr(B) = \frac{10}{60} \cdot \frac{8}{10} + \frac{10}{60} \cdot \frac{3}{10} + \frac{12}{60} \cdot \frac{1}{12} + \frac{28}{60} \cdot \frac{19}{28} = \frac{8+3+1+19}{60} = \frac{31}{60} = 0,517$$





 If an orca found is a male, what is the probability that it is from the Antartica?

$$Pr(A_2|B)$$

We use Bayes rule:

$$Pr(A_2|B) = \frac{Pr(A_2 \cap B)}{Pr(B)} = \frac{Pr(B|A_2)Pr(A_2)}{Pr(B)}$$

• Pr(B) = 0.517;  $Pr(A_2) = 0.167$ ;  $Pr(B|A_2) = 0.3$ 

$$Pr(A_2|B) = \frac{Pr(B|A_2)Pr(A_2)}{Pr(B)} = \frac{0.3 \cdot 0.167}{0.517} = \frac{3}{31} = 0.097$$

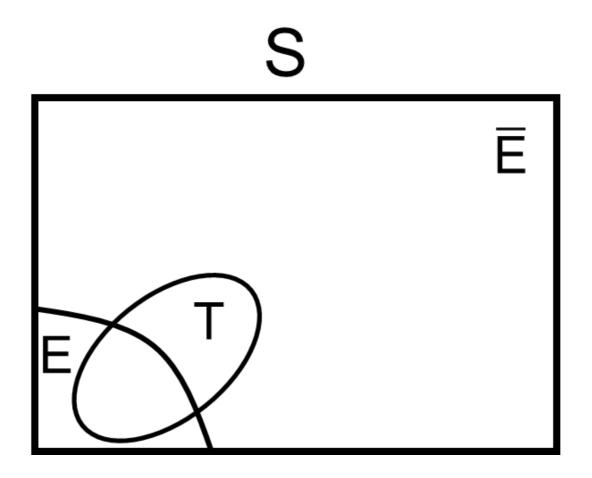
# Tests and Types of Errors

We can classify testing with two outcomes as:

Given	Disease (True)	No disease (False)
Positive test	Sensitivity	Type I Error
Negative test	Type II Error	Specificity

#### Example: Ebola Test

- Event E: Patient are infectious with Ebola.
- Event T: The Ebola test is positive.



## Example: Ebola Test

 Prior: What are the probability of a patient having Ebola?

 Likelihood: What are the probability of a positive test given infectious with Ebola? Or of a negative test given not infectious with Ebola?

$$Pr(T|E)$$
 Sensitivity  $Pr(ar{T}|ar{E})$  Specificity

 Posterior: What are the probability of being infectious given that a test is positive?

## Example: Ebola Test — Total Probability

 Prior: What are the probability of a patient having ebola?

$$Pr(E) = 0.01$$
  $Pr(\bar{E}) = 1 - 0.01 = 0.99$ 

Likelihood: What are the probabilities of the tests?

$$Pr(T|E)=0,9$$
 Sensitivity  $Pr(\bar{T}|\bar{E})=0,8$  Specificity

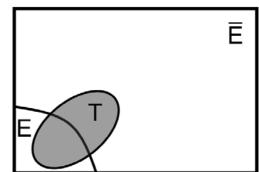
 Complement: What are the probability of a patient having a positive test without being infectious?

$$Pr(T|\bar{E}) = 1 - Pr(\bar{T}|\bar{E}) = 0, 2$$

## Example: Ebola Test — Total Probability

 Total Probability with the Sum Rule: What are the probability of a patient having a positive test?

$$Pr(T) = Pr(T \cap E) + Pr(T \cap \bar{E})$$



The Product Rule: We can with Bayes rule find

$$Pr(T) = Pr(T|E) Pr(E) + Pr(T|\overline{E}) Pr(\overline{E})$$
  
= 0,9 \cdot 0,01 + 0,2 \cdot 0.99  
= 0,207

#### Ebola Example — Posterior

We have: We now know the probabilities:

$$P(E)=0,01$$
 Prior  $P(T)=0,207$  Total probability  $P(T|E)=0,9$  Likelihood

 Product Rule: What are the probability of being infectious given that a test is positive?

$$Pr(E|T) = \frac{Pr(T|E)Pr(E)}{Pr(T)} = \frac{0.9 \cdot 0.01}{0.207} = 0.043$$

## Ebola Example — Posterior

What are the probability of being infectious given that a test is positive?

$$Pr(E|T) = \frac{Pr(T|E)Pr(E)}{Pr(T)} = \frac{0.9 \cdot 0.01}{0.207} = 0.043$$

What are the probability of <u>not</u> being infectious given that a test is positive?

$$Pr(\bar{E} \mid T) = 1 - Pr(E|T) = 0.957$$

What are the probability of <u>not</u> being infectious given a negative test?

$$Pr(\bar{E}|\bar{T}) = \frac{Pr(\bar{T}|\bar{E})Pr(\bar{E})}{Pr(\bar{T})} = \frac{0.8 \cdot 0.99}{0.793} = 0.999$$

What are the probability of being infectious given that a test is negative?

$$Pr(\mathbf{E} \mid \overline{T}) = 1 - Pr(\overline{E} \mid \overline{T}) = 0.001$$

## Ebola Example — Conclusion

 If the test is negative, it is allmost certain (99,9%) that you're not being infectious:

$$Pr(\bar{E}|\bar{T}) = 0.999$$

 If the test is positive, there is still only a small risk (4,3%) that you actually are being infectious:

$$Pr(E|T) = 0.043$$

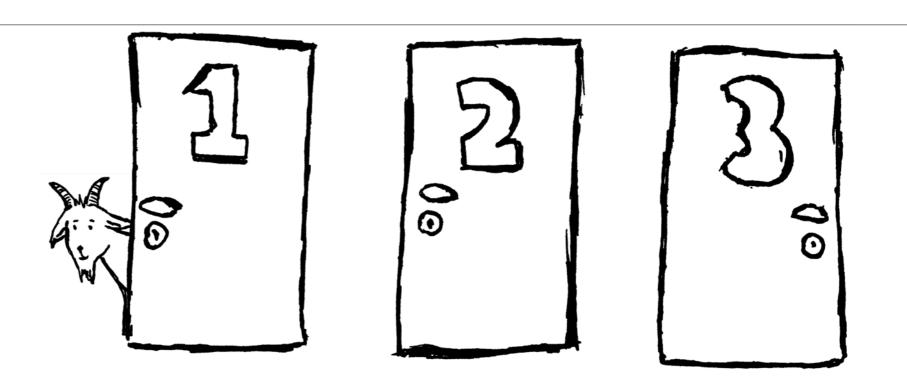
# Monty Hall Dilemma



- We have three doors
- Behind two of the doors is a goat
- Behind one door is a million dollars (\$)
- What is the chance of guessing behind which door the money is?

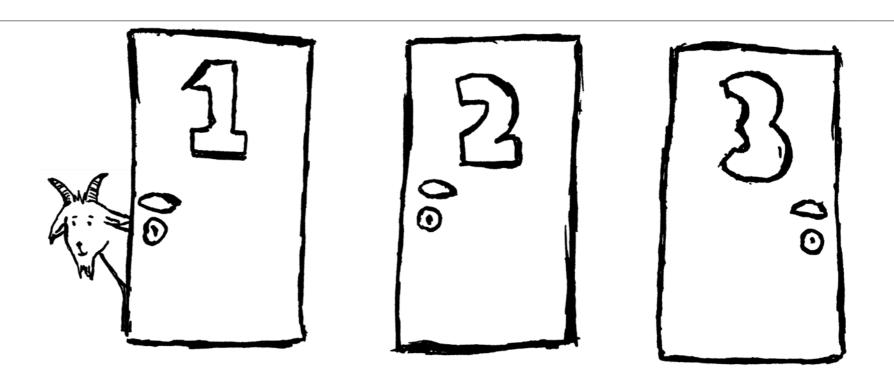
$$Pr(\$|1) = Pr(\$|2) = Pr(\$|3) = \frac{1}{3}$$

## Monty Hall Dilemma cont'd



- We make a selection of a door, say door 2, without open it.
- The quizmaster eliminates one of the doors (\$), which we did not select, based on his knowledge on the goat situation, say door 1.
- We can now reselect between door 2 and 3.
- What are the probabilities of the money being behind the two doors? Should we switch door?

## Monty Hall Dilemma cont'd



 What are the probabilities of the money being behind the two doors? Should we switch door?

#### The Binomial Distribution

We have n repeated trials.

- Bernoulli trial
- Each trial has two possible outcomes
  - Success probability p
  - Failure probability q=1-p
- What is the probability of having k successes out of n trials?
- We write this question as:

$$Pr_n(k) = \frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!} p^k q^{n-k} = \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}$$

• Faculty:  $n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$ 0! = 1

#### Bernoulli Trial

**Definition**: The binomial coefficient is defined as:

$$\binom{n}{k} := \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

Number of ways to select k objects out of a collection of n objects

**Example**: Out of 10 children, what is the probability that exactly 2 are girls?

$$Pr_n(k) = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} p^k q^{n-k}$$

$$= \frac{10!}{2!(10-2)!} (0,5)^2 (1-0,5)^{10-2} = 0,044$$

#### Combinatorics

- Take an object from a collection of n objects.
- Repeat the test k times.

#### **Types of Experiments:**

- With or without replacement
- Ordered or unordered

#### **Example:**

What is the probability that if I have two children that the oldest is a girl and the youngest is a boy?

- Ordered.
- With replacement.

## Ordered with Replacement

- Take an object from a collection of n objects.
- Put it back each time.
- Repeat the test k times.
- The sequence of the objects matters.
- The number of combinations is:  $n^k$ 
  - Each trial has n possible outcomes
  - All the trials are independent

## Ordered without Replacement

- Take an object from a collection of n objects.
- Do not put it back each time.
- Repeat the test k times.
- The sequence of the objects matters.
- The number of combinations is:

$$_{n}P_{k} = P_{k}^{n} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} = n \cdot (n-1) \dots (n-k+1)$$

The 1st trial has n possible outcomes, the 2nd trial has n-1 possible outcomes, ..., the k'th trial has n-k+1 possible outcomes

#### Unordered without Replacement

- Take an object from a collection of n objects.
- Do not put it back each time.
- Repeat the test k times.
- The sequence of the objects do not matter.
- The number of combinations is:

$$\binom{n}{k} := \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

The k ordered draws can be shuffled in k! different ways (sequences)

#### Unordered with Replacement

- Take an object from a collection of n objects.
- Put it back each time.
- Repeat the test k times.
- The sequence of the objects do not matter.
- The number of combinations is:

$$\binom{n+k-1}{k} = \frac{(n+k-1)!}{k! (n-1)!}$$

Each time we draw an object, we should replace an object (except for the last draw). This correspond to we start with n+k-1 object and draw k objects unordered without replacement.

## **Summary of Combinatorics**

 We can summarise the number of possible outcomes of k trials, sampled from a set of n objects.

		Replacement		
		With	Without	
Sam-	Ordered	$n^k$	$P_k^n = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$	
pling	Unordered	$\binom{n+k-1}{k} = \frac{(n+k-1)!}{k! (n-1)!}$	$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!}$	

## Experiment: Birthday Example

- k=35 students
- n=365 (number of days in the year)
- What are the probability that at least two have birthday on the same day (E)?

All have different Ordered sampling without replacement (k unique birthsdays in n days)

Complement rule

$$\Pr(E) = 1 - \Pr(\bar{E}) = 1 - \frac{\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}}{n^k} = 1 - \frac{\frac{365!}{(365-35)!}}{365^{35}} > 80\%$$

Ordered sampling with replacement (all possible combinations of k students birthdays in n days)

- k=50 students: Pr(E)>97%
- k=75 students: Pr(E) > 99,97%

# Words and Concepts to Know

Type I Error Prior Binomial coefficient Sampling Unordered Replacement Specificity Likelihood Combinatorics Bernoulli Trial Sensitivity Posterior Ordered Binomial distribution Type II Error