## **Chapter 3 – Probability**

An *experiment* is a procedure by which an observation or measurement is obtained. An execution is called a *trial*. The observation or measurement obtained is called the *outcome* of the trial. A *random experiment* is one where the outcomes depend upon chance. The set of all possible outcomes of an experiment is called the *outcome set* or *sample space*, and denoted *S*.

## A. Examples of dichotomous experiments include

- (1) flipping a two-sided coin,  $S = \{H,T\}$ ;
- (2) drawing one card from a deck of cards (13 ★'s, 13 ★'s, 13 ∀'s, 13 ♦'s,) and looking for a ♦, S = { ♦, not ♦};
- (3) rolling a die and looking for a '5' or '6', **S** = {'5' or '6', not};
- (4) choosing a uniform random number from the interval I = [0,1]and noting whether or not it is in the sub-interval  $I_S = [\frac{1}{2},\frac{3}{4}],$  $S = \{in I_S, not in I_S\}$
- B. <u>Example</u> of a *discrete experiment* draw n = 3 cards from a deck of cards (with replacement) and count the number of diamonds.
- C. <u>Example</u> of a *continuous experiment* choose a uniform random number in the interval [0,1] and report the number.

Note the interesting difference between the random variables discussed in Example 3.1 (p.81) – Geiger counts so  $S = \{0, 1, 2 \dots\}$  – and Example 3.2 (p.82) – the time between Geiger clicks so  $S = (0, \infty)$ .

If *event* E = a '5' or '6' in A-3 above, then the probability of E is  $Pr{E} = 2/6 = 1/3$ ,

since there are 2 *favorable outcomes* out of 6 *possible outcomes*.

Similarly, for example B above (cf. Ex. 3.17 on pp.85-6), $\pi = \frac{1}{4}$ and			
Pr(0) = Pr(FFF)	$=(1-\pi)^3$	= 0.421875	
Pr(1) = Pr(SFF,FSF,FFS)	$=3\pi(1-\pi)^2$	= 0.421875	
Pr(2) = Pr(SSF,SFS,FSS)	$=3\pi^2(1-\pi)$	= 0.140625	
Pr(3) = Pr(SSS)	$=\pi^3$	= 0.015625	

These results are based on *Theoretical Probability* (p.83), to which we can add *Empirical Probability* (p.86), Simulation or *Monte Carlo* results (p.88), and *Subjective Probability* (p.89).

**Basic Probability Rules** include – For events E and F,

- 1.  $0 \le \Pr(E) \le 1$ ,  $\Pr(\phi) = 0$ ,  $\Pr(S) = 1$ , and  $\Pr(\text{not } E) = 1$ - $\Pr(E)$ .
- 2. If  $E \subset F$ , then  $Pr(E) \leq Pr(F)$ .
- 3. <u>The Addition Rule</u>:  $Pr(E \cup F) = Pr(E) + Pr(F) Pr(E \cap F)$  with extensions (p.96);  $\cup = union = 'or' and \cap = intersection = 'and'.$
- 4. <u>The Multiplication Rule</u>: Pr(E ∩ F) = Pr(E) × Pr(F | E) = Pr(F) × Pr(E | F) where Pr(F | E) is the *conditional probability* of event F given E has occurred.
- 5. E and F are *independent* if Pr(E | F) = Pr(E) or equivalently if Pr(F | E) = Pr(F); for independent events, the multiplication rule is therefore Pr(E ∩ F) = Pr(E) × Pr(F).
- 6. E and F are *disjoint* if  $Pr(E \cap F) = 0$ .

**Examples:** In a deck of playing cards, draw one card, and let  $E = \{get a diamond\} = \{2\diamond, 3\diamond, 4\diamond, 5\diamond, 6\diamond, 7\diamond, 8\diamond, 9\diamond, 10\diamond, J\diamond, Q\diamond, K\diamond, A\diamond\}, F = \{get a picture card\} = \{J\&, J\&, J\&, J\lor, Q\&, Q\&, Q\heartsuit, Q\diamond, K\&, K\&, K\heartsuit, K\diamond\}, and G = \{get a black card\}.$  Then,

- $Pr(E) = \frac{1}{4}$  and  $Pr(F) = \frac{12}{52} = \frac{3}{13}$ , each between 0 and 1
- $Pr{\text{`not G'}} = Pr{\text{red card}} = \frac{1}{2}$
- **E**  $\subset$  'not **G**' illustrates #2 above, and indeed  $\frac{1}{4} \leq \frac{1}{2}$
- $Pr(E \cap F) = Pr(J, Q, K) = 3/52$  (so E and F are not disjoint)
- By #3 above, Pr(E ∪ F) = Pr(♦ or picture card) = 13/52 + 12/52 - 3/52 = 22/52 = 11/26
- E and F are independent here since Pr(F | E) = Pr(F) since
   'F | E' is getting a picture card given the card is a diamond
- E and G are disjoint (since diamonds are not black) and cannot be independent since Pr(E ∩ G) = 0. Also, Pr(E ∪ G) = Pr(E) + Pr(G) = 1/4 + 1/2 = 3/4

*Tree Diagrams* are very helpful to calculate compound probabilities. Consider drawing 2 cards <u>*without replacement*</u> from a deck of cards and recording whether or not the card is a diamond. ( $D_1 = draw 1$ .)

$$| \underbrace{D_2 = Y}{(p = 12/51)} \quad Probability = (13/52)*(12/51)$$

$$| \underbrace{D_1 = Y}{(p = 13/52)} |$$

$$| \underbrace{D_2 = N}{(p = 39/51)} \quad Probability = (13/52)*(39/51)$$

$$| \underbrace{D_1 = N}{(p = 13/51)} |$$

$$| \underbrace{D_2 = Y}{(p = 13/51)} \quad Probability = (39/52)*(13/51)$$

$$| \underbrace{D_2 = N}{(p = 38/51)} \quad Probability = (39/52)*(38/51)$$

Note that these probabilities differ from the respective (Binomial) probabilities we would get if this selection was done <u>with replacement</u>: (13/52)\*(13/52), (13/52)\*(39/52), (39/52)\*(13/52), and (39/52)\*(39/52).

Number of $\blacklozenge$ in n = 2	Probability without	Probability with
draws	replacement	replacement
0	0.5588	0.5625
1	2*0.1912 = 0.3824	2*0.1875 = 0.3750
2	0.0588	0.0625

<u>Bayes' Method</u> (pp.107-111) is an indispensable tool to help us reverse the order in conditional probabilities. In the above Tree, suppose that in the first branch of the Tree, we list the <u>Prevalence</u> (top branch) or otherwise (lower branch) of a disease. In the second branch, we give the respective probabilities (for those with and without the disease) of a Test (for the disease) giving a positive result. The <u>Sensitivity</u> of the Test is the probability of a positive test result given that a chosen individual has the disease; the <u>Specificity</u> of the Test is the probability of a negative test result given that a chosen individual does not have the disease. Bayes Rule is used to find  $PV^+ =$  $Pr\{disease|positive\}$ , the probability that an individual who tests positive actually has the disease. Indeed,

**PV**<sup>+</sup> = **Pr**{disease|positive} = **Pr**{ disease and positive } / **Pr**{positive}

Let  $\pi = \Pr\{\text{disease}\}, \pi_1 = \text{the Sensitivity, and } \pi_2 = 1$  - the Specificity, then

$$\mathbf{PV}^{+} = \frac{\pi \times \pi_{1}}{(\pi \times \pi_{1}) + [(1-\pi) \times \pi_{2}]} = \frac{1}{1+\theta \frac{1-\pi}{\pi}}, \text{ where } \theta = \pi_{2}/\pi_{1}.$$

An extension to multiple branches is given on pp. 110-111.

**Example** (Mammography) from p.109 – Prevalence of BC (breast cancer) in this population is assumed to be known and reported to be  $\pi = 0.0004$ . The Sensitivity ( $\pi_1$ ) and Specificity (1 -  $\pi_2$ ) for a particular BC test are reported to be 0.80 and 0.90 respectively. PV<sup>+</sup>, the probability that a woman who tests positive actually has BC, is then calculated to be

$$\mathbf{PV}^{+} = \frac{(0.0004) \times (0.80)}{(0.0004) \times (0.80) + (0.9996) \times (0.10)} = \mathbf{0.003191065}.$$

Note here how different are the following:

- (1) the probability that a woman who tests positive actually having BC (0.32%),
- (2) the probability that a randomly selected woman having BC (0.04%), and
- (3) the probability that a woman who has BC testing positive (80%).