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**PROBABILITIES**  
**CONDITIONAL PROBABILITIES**  
**RANDOM EXPERIMENTS AND**  
**VARIABLES**

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## Abraham de Moivre (1667-1754)

*“Some of the Problems about Chance having a great appearance of Simplicity, the Mind is easily drawn into a belief, that their Solution may be attained by the meer Strength of natural good Sense; which generally proving otherwise and the Mistakes occasioned thereby being not infrequent, ‘tis presumed that a Book of this Kind, which teaches to distinguish Truth from what seems so nearly to resemble it, will be looked upon as a help to good Reasoning.”*

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# OBJECTIVES

- Basics of probabilities. Events space.
- Probabilities rules
- Conditional probabilities. Risks and rates
- Random experiment and random variables

# BASICS OF PROBABILITIES

- Probability
  - a numerical measure of uncertainty
    - Uncertainty about phenomena or event outcomes could be described in terms such as “unlikely”, “possible”, “likely”, “probable”
  - a way of expressing knowledge or belief that an event will occur or has occurred
  - is synonymous with chance or likelihood
  - Is a numerical value of uncertainty associated with the outcome of an uncertain or unpredictable event

# BASICS OF PROBABILITIES

## ■ Experiment:

- = an activity or investigation for which the results are uncertain
  - Tossing a coin
  - Rolling a die
  - Counting failures over time

## ■ Outcome:

- = the result of one execution of the experiment

## ■ Events space = the set of all possible outcomes of an experiment.

- Symbol:  $S$

# BASICS OF PROBABILITIES

- Event spaces:
  - Tossing a coin:
    - Two possible outcomes: head (H) and tails (T)
    - $S = \{H, T\}$
  - Rolling a die:
    - Six possible outcomes: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
    - $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- The event spaces can contain discrete points (such as pass or fail) or continuum points. An event  $E$  is a specified set of possible outcomes in a event space  $S$ :  $E \subset S$ , where  $\subset =$  “subset of”

# BASICS OF PROBABILITIES

- Empty set or null set: a special set without any element. It is denoted by  $\emptyset$ .
- Elementary event: the event that could not be decomposed into smaller parts.
- Compound event: the event that could be decomposed into smaller parts.
  - In practical situations most events are compound events

# BASICS OF PROBABILITIES

- **Reunion (OR):**

- Symbol:  $A \cup B$

- At least one event (A OR B) occurs

- **Intersection (AND):**

- The probability that A and B both occur

- Use the multiplication rule

- Symbol:  $A \cap B$

- the events A and B occur simultaneously

- **Negation:**

- Symbol:  $\text{non}A$



# BASIC OF PROBABILITIES

- Complementary event:
  - A complement of an event  $E$  in a event space  $S$  is the set of all event points in  $S$  that are not in  $E$ .
  - Symbol:  $\bar{E}$  (read E-bar)
- Mutually exclusive events:
  - Two events  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  in a event space  $S$  are said to be mutually exclusive if the event  $E_1 \cap E_2$  contain no outcome in the event space  $S$ .
  - These two events can not happen in the same time.

# BASICS OF PROBABILITIES

- Independent events:
  - Two events  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are said to be statistically independent events if the joint probability of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  equals the product of their marginal probabilities of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ .
- Union: The union of two events  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ , denoted by  $E_1 \cup E_2$ , is defined to be the event that contain all sample points in  $E_1$  or  $E_2$  or both.
- Intersection: The intersection of two events  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ , denoted by  $E_1 \cap E_2$ , is defined to be the event that contain all sample points that are in both  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ .

# BASICS OF PROBABILITIES

- Marginal probability: the probability that an event will occur, regardless of whether other events occurs
  - The probability  $\Pr(R)$  of a car jumping the red line at a given time at a given intersection, regardless of whether a pedestrian is in the crosswalk
- Conditional probability: of event B, given that event A has occurred, denoted by  $\Pr(B|A)$ , is defined by:

$$\Pr(B|A) = \Pr(B \cap A) / \Pr(A) \text{ for } \Pr(A) > 0$$

# BASICS OF PROBABILITIES

## **Subjective probability:**

- Established subjective (empiric) base on previous experience or on studying large populations
- Implies elementary that are not equipossible (equally likely)

## **Objective probability:**

- Equiprobable outcomes
- Geometric probability

## **Formula of calculus:**

- If an A event could be obtained in S tests out of n equiprobable tests, then the  $\Pr(A)$  is given by the number of possible cases
- $\Pr(A) = (\text{no of favorable cases}) / (\text{no of possible cases})$

# BASICS OF PROBABILITIES

- A probability of an event  $A$  is represented by a real number in the range from 0 to 1 and written as  $\Pr(A)$ .
- Probabilities are numbers which describe the likelihoods of random events.

$$\Pr(A) \in [0, 1]$$

- Let  $A$  be an event:
  - $\Pr(A)$  = the probability of event  $A$
  - If  $A$  is certain, then  $\Pr(A) = 1$
  - If  $A$  is impossible, then  $\Pr(A) = 0$

# CHANCES AND ODDS

- Chances are probabilities expressed as percent.
  - Range from 0% to 100%.
  - Ex: a probability of 0.65 is the same as a 65% chance.
- The odds for an event is the probability that the event happens, divided by the probability that the event doesn't happen.
  - Can take any positive value
  - Let A be the event.  $\text{Odds}(A) = \text{Pr}(A)/[1-\text{Pr}(A)]$ , where  $1-\text{Pr}(A) = \text{Pr}(\text{non}A)$
  - Example:  $\text{Pr}(A) = 0.75$ ; a probability of 0.75 is the same as 3-to-1 odds ( $0.75/(1-0.75)=0.75/0.25=3/1$ )

# PROPERTIES OF PROBABILITIES

- Take values between 0 and 1:

$$0 \leq \Pr(A) \leq 1$$

- $\Pr(\text{event space}) = 1$

- The probability that something happens is one minus the probability that it does not:

$$\Pr(A) = 1 - \Pr(\text{non}A)$$

- **Addition Rule**: probability of A **or** B:

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B)$$

when A and B are mutually exclusive

- **Multiplication Rule**: probability of A **and** B:

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

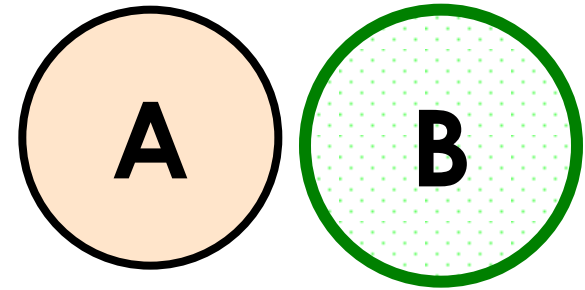
when A and B are independent

# PROBABILITY RULES: ADDITION RULE

- Let A and B be two events:

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

$$\Pr(\text{A or B}) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(\text{A and B})$$



- A and B mutually exclusive:

- $\Pr(A \cap B) = 0$

- $\Pr(\text{A and B}) = 0$

- A = {SBP of mother > 140 mmHg}

- $\Pr(A) = 0.25$

- B = {SBP of father > 140 mmHg}

- $\Pr(B) = 0.15$

- What is the probability that mother or father to have hypertension?

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = 0.25 + 0.15 - 0 = 0.40$$

$$\Pr(\text{A or B}) = 0.25 + 0.15 - 0 = 0.40$$



# PROBABILITY RULES: ADDITION RULE

- In a cafe are at a moment 20 people, 10 like tea, 10 like coffee and 2 like tea and coffee.
- What is probability to random extract from this population one person who like tea or coffee?

$$\Pr(\text{tea} \cup \text{coffee}) = \Pr(\text{tea}) + \Pr(\text{coffee}) - \Pr(\text{tea} \cap \text{coffee})$$

$$\Pr(\text{tea or coffee}) = \Pr(\text{tea}) + \Pr(\text{coffee}) - \Pr(\text{tea and coffee})$$

$$\Pr(\text{tea} \cup \text{coffee}) = 0.50 + 0.50 - 0.10 = 0.90$$

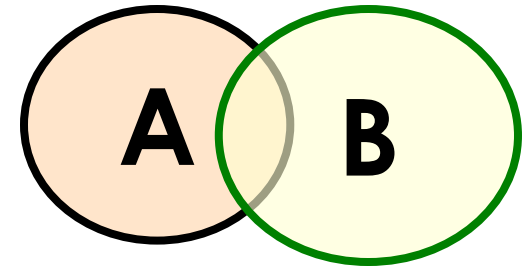
# PROBABILITY RULES: MULTIPLICATION RULE

- Let A and B be two events:

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

$$\Pr(A \text{ and } B) = \Pr(A) \cdot \Pr(B|A)$$

- Independent events:  $\Pr(B|A) = \Pr(B)$



- $A = \{\text{SBP of mother} > 140 \text{ mmHg}\}$

- $\Pr(A) = 0.10$

- $B = \{\text{SBP of father} > 140 \text{ mmHg}\}$

- $\Pr(B) = 0.20$

- $\Pr(A \cap B) = 0.05$ ;  $\Pr(A \text{ and } B) = 0.05$

- The two events are dependent or independent?

$$\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \cdot \Pr(B) - \text{independent events}$$

$$0.05 \neq 0.10 \cdot 0.20 \rightarrow \text{the events are dependent}$$

# BAYES' THEOREM

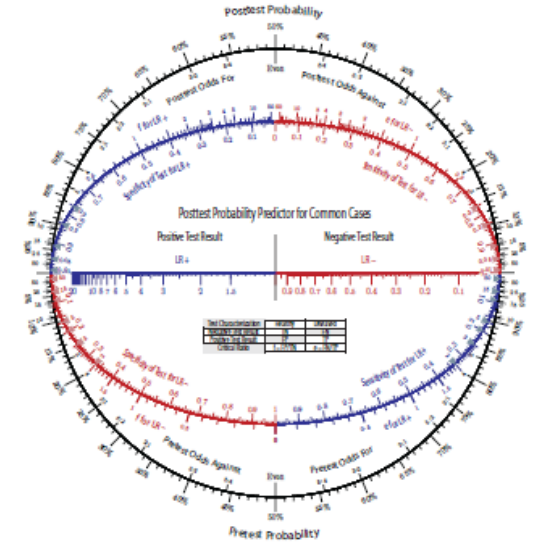
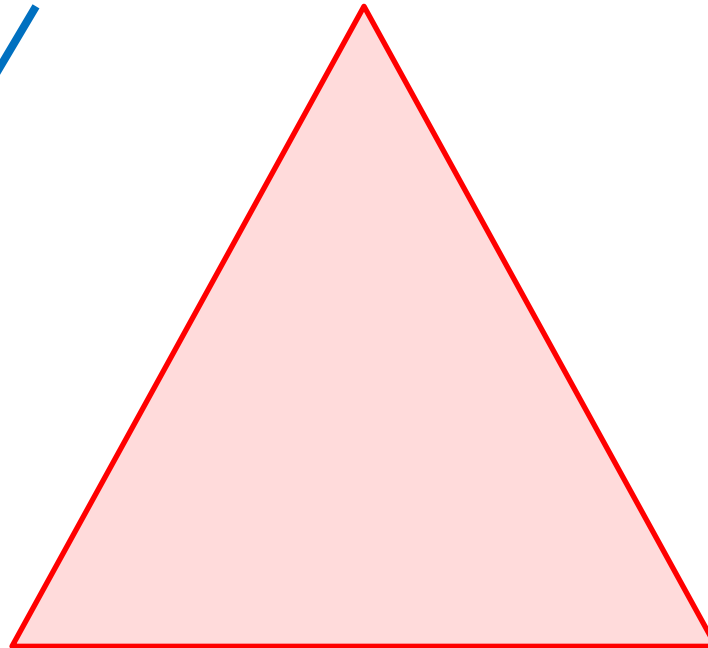
- Bayes' law / Bayes' rule
- Gives the relationship between the probabilities of event A and event B and the conditional probabilities of A given B and B given A:

$$\Pr(A|B) = \frac{\Pr(B|A) \times \Pr(A)}{\Pr(B|A) \times \Pr(A) + \Pr(B|nonA) \times \Pr(nonA)}$$

# BAYES' THEOREM

Diagnosis

It's all about probabilities



Bayer's rule



Nomography (Modern)

Math for updating probabilities

Graphical technique for doing the math

$$Pr_{old} + Test = Pr_{new}$$

the math

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# Bayesian Theorem

- Tests are not events
- Tests detect things that do not exist (false positive) and could miss things that exist (false negative)
- Tests give us test probabilities NOT the real probability
- False positive skew results
- People prefer natural numbers as **100 in 10.000** rather than **1%**
- Even science is a test

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# Bayesian Theorem

- Bayes' theorem finds the actual probability of an event from the results of a test
  - Correct the measurement errors
    - If you know the real probability & the chance of false positive and false negative
  - Relate the actual probability to the measured test probability.
    - Given mammogram test results and known error rates, you can predict the actual chance of having cancer

# Anatomy of a test

- 2% of women have breast cancer
- 70% of mammograms detect breast cancer when it is present → 30% of mammograms miss the diagnosis
- 10% of mammograms incorrectly detect breast cancer when it is **not** present → 90% of mammograms correctly return a negative result

	Breast cancer + (2%)	Breast cancer - (98%)
Mammo +	70	10
Mammo-	30	90

# Anatomy of a test: how to read it!

- 2% of women have breast cancer
- If you already have breast cancer, there is 70% chance that your mammogram will be positive and 30% chance that your test will be negative
- If you do not have breast cancer, there is 10% chance that your mammogram will be positive and 90% chance that your test will be negative

	Breast cancer + (2%)	Breast cancer - (98%)
Mammo +	70	10
Mammo-	30	90



# Anatomy of a test

- Suppose that you have a patient with a positive result. What are her chances to have breast cancer?

	Breast cancer + (2%)	Breast cancer - (98%)
Mammo +	70	10
Mammo-	30	90

- The probability of a **true positive** = the probability to have breast cancer  $\times$  probability that the mammogram to be positive =  $0.02 \times 0.7 = 0.014 \rightarrow 1.4\%$  chance
- The probability of a **false positive** = the probability not to have breast cancer  $\times$  probability that the mammogram to be positive =  $0.98 \times 0.10 = 0.098 \rightarrow 9.8\%$  chance

# Anatomy of a test

	Breast cancer + (2%)	Breast cancer - (98%)
Mammo +	True positive $0.02 * 0.70 = 0.014$	False positive $0.10 * 0.98 = 0.098$
Mammo-	False negative $0.02 * 30 = 0.600$	True negative $0.90 * 0.98 = 0.882$

- What is the chance that your patient to really have cancer if she get a positive mammogram.
  - The chance of an event is the number of ways it could happen given all possible outcomes:
  - Probability = (desired event)/ (all possibilities)
  - Probability =  $0.014 / (0.014 + 0.098) = 0.125$  → the chance that your patient to have breast cancer if the mammogram is positive is 12.5%

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# Anatomy of a test

- → a positive mammogram only means that the individual chance of breast cancer is 12.5%, rather than expected 70%
- → the mammogram gives a false positive 10% of the time → there will be false positives in any given population
- → the problem can be turned into an equation = Bayes' Theorem

# Bayes' Theorem

$$\Pr(A | B) = \frac{\Pr(B | A) \times P(A)}{\Pr(B | A) \times P(A) + \Pr(B | \text{non}A) \times P(\text{non}A)}$$

$$\Pr(A | B) = \frac{\Pr(B | A) \times P(A)}{\Pr(B)}$$

- $P(A|B)$  = probability of having breast cancer (A) given a positive mammogram (B)
- $P(B|A)$  = probability of a positive mammogram (B) given that breast cancer is present (A)
- $P(A)$  = probability of having breast cancer  $\rightarrow P(\text{non}A)$  = probability not to have cancer
- $P(B|\text{non}A)$  = probability of a positive mammogram

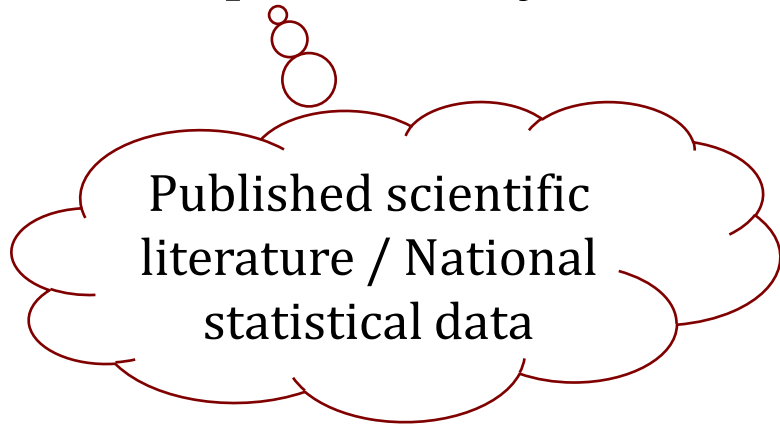
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# Prior vs posterior probability

- Prior probability
  - what you believe before seeing any data
- Posterior probability
  - $P(\text{hypothesis}|\text{data})$  = the probability of a hypothesis given the data
  - depends on prior probability & observed data

# Bayesian inference

- Prior probability + data  $\rightarrow$  posterior probability



- $P(\text{hypothesis is true} \mid \text{observed data})$

*A good prior helps, a bad prior hurts, but the prior matters less the more data you have!*

# CONDITIONAL PROBABILITIES

- Conditional probability: example
  - (Tuberculin Test+|TBC) is the probability of obtaining a positive tuberculin test to a patient with tuberculosis
- **Pr(B|A)** is not the same things as **Pr(A|B)**

■ Let:

- $A = \{\text{TBC}+\}$
- $B = \{\text{Tuberculin Test}+\}$

	TBC+	TBC-
Test+	15	12
Test-	25	18

- $\text{Pr}(A) = (15+25)/(15+12+25+18) = 0.57$  (prevalence)
- $\text{Pr}(\text{non}A) = (12+18)/(15+12+25+18) = 0.43$
- $\text{Pr}(B|A) =$  probability of a positive tuberculin test to a patient with TBC =  $15/(15+25) = 0.38 =$  **Sensibility (Se)**

# CONDITIONAL PROBABILITIES

- Let:
  - $A = \{\text{TBC}+\}$
  - $B = \{\text{Tuberculin Test}+\}$

	TBC+	TBC-
Test+	15	12
Test-	25	18

- $\Pr(\text{non}B|\text{non}A)$  = probability of obtaining a negative test to a patient without TBC =  $18/(18+12) = 0.60 = \mathbf{\text{Specificity (Sp)}}$
- $\Pr(A|B)$  = probability that a person with TBC to have a positive tuberculin test =  $15/(15+12) = 0.56 = \mathbf{\text{Predictive Positive Value (PPV)}}$



# CONDITIONAL PROBABILITIES

- Let:
  - $A = \{\text{TBC}+\}$
  - $B = \{\text{Tuberculin Test}+\}$

	TBC+	TBC-
Test+	15	12
Test-	25	18

- $\Pr(\text{non}A|\text{non}B)$  = probability that a person without TBC to have a negative tuberculin test =  $18/(18+25) = 0.42 =$   
**Negative Predictive Value (NPV)**
- Positive False Ratio:  $\text{PFR} = \Pr(B|\text{non}A)$
- Negative False Ratio:  $\text{RFN} = \Pr(\text{non}A|B)$

# INDEPENDENT EVENTS: CONDITIONAL PROBABILITIES

- Events A and B are independent if the probability of event B is the same whether or not A has occurred.
- Two events A and B are Independent IF
$$\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \cdot \Pr(B)$$
- If (and only if) A and B are independent, then:
  - $\Pr(B|A) = \Pr(B|\text{non}A) = \Pr(B)$
  - $\Pr(A|B) = \Pr(A|\text{non}B) = \Pr(A)$
- It expressed the independence of the two events: the probability of event B (respectively A) did not depend by the realization of event A (respectively B)
  - Example: if a coin is toss twice the probability to obtain “head” to the second toss is always 0.5 and is not depending if at the first toss we obtained “head” or “tail”.

# RECALL!

## ■ Addition rules:

- $\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B)$
- $\Pr(A \text{ or } B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \text{ and } B)$
- Mutually exclusive events:
  - $\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B)$
  - $\Pr(A \text{ or } B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B)$ :

## ■ Multiplication Rule:

- $\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \cdot \Pr(B|A)$
- $\Pr(A \text{ and } B) = \Pr(A) \cdot \Pr(B|A)$
- Independent events:
  - $\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \cdot \Pr(B)$

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# **RANDOM EXPERIMENT AND RANDOM VARIABLES**

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# RANDOM VARIABLE

- A random variable
  - is a quantification of a probability model that allows to model random data
  - Is a quantity that may take any value of a given range that cannot be predicted exactly but can be described in terms of their probability
    - Discrete: generally assessed by counting
    - Continuous: generally assessed by measurements

# RANDOM VARIABLE

- When throwing a die with 6 faces, let  $X$  be the random variable defined by:

$X$  = the square of the scores shown on the die

What is the expectation of  $X$ ?

## **Solution:**

- $S = \{1, 2^2, 3^2, 4^2, 5^2, 6^2\} = \{1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36\}$
- Each face has a probability of  $1/6$  of occurring, so:

$$E(X) = 1 \cdot 1/6 + 4 \cdot 1/6 + 9 \cdot 1/6 + 16 \cdot 1/6 + 25 \cdot 1/6 + 36 \cdot 1/6 = 91 \cdot 1/6$$

# RANDOM VARIABLES

- Outcome of an experiment  $\rightarrow$  a quantitative or a qualitative data
- A random variable is a function that assign a unique numerical value to each outcome of an experiment along with an associated probability.
  - Discrete random variable corresponds to an experiment that has a finite or countable number of outcomes.
  - A continuous random variable is a random variable for which the set of possible outcomes is continuous

# RANDOM VARIABLES

- Discrete random variable: take a finite discrete value
  - Infinite number of values
    - Number of hospitalization stay:  $X = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n, \dots\}$
    - Number of bacteria:  $X = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n, \dots\}$
  - Finite number of values
    - Number of A blood group in a sample of subjects:  $X = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$
- Continuous random variable: random variable where the data can take infinitely many values
  - Infinite number of values



# DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

- Probability Distribution: symbols

$$\mathbf{X} : \begin{pmatrix} X_1 & X_2 & \dots & X_n \\ \Pr(X_1) & \Pr(X_2) & \dots & \Pr(X_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

- **Property:** the probabilities that appear in distribution of a finite random variable verify the formula:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \Pr(X_i) = 1$$

# DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

- The **mean** of discrete probability distribution (called also expected value) is give by the formula:

$$M(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \cdot \Pr(X_i)$$

- Represents the weighted average of possible values, each value being weighted by its probability of occurrence.

- **Variance:** is a weighted average of the squared deviations in X

$$V(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - M(X))^2 \cdot \Pr(X_i)$$

- **Standard deviation:**

$$\sigma(X) = \sqrt{V(X)} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - M(X))^2 \cdot \Pr(X_i)}$$

# DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

**Example:** Let  $X$  be a random variable represented by the number of otitis episodes in the first two years of life in a community. This random variable has the following distribution:

$$X: \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 0.129 & 0.264 & 0.271 & 0.185 & 0.095 & 0.039 & 0.017 \end{pmatrix}$$

What is the expected number (average) of episodes of otitis during the first two years of life?

# DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

- What is the **expected number (average)** of episodes of otitis during the first two years of life?

$$X: \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 0.129 & 0.264 & 0.271 & 0.185 & 0.095 & 0.039 & 0.017 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $M(X) = 0 \cdot 0.129 + 1 \cdot 0.264 + 2 \cdot 0.271 + 3 \cdot 0.185 + 4 \cdot 0.095 + 5 \cdot 0.039 + 6 \cdot 0.017$
- $M(X) = 0 + 0.264 + 0.542 + 0.555 + 0.38 + 0.195 + 0.102$
- $M(X) = 2.038$

# DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

$X_i$	$\Pr(X_i)$	$X_i * \Pr(X_i)$	$X_i - M(X)$	$(X_i - M(X))^2$	$(X_i - M(X))^2 * \Pr(X_i)$
0	0.129	0	-2.038	4.153	0.536
1	0.264	0.264	-1.038	1.077	0.284
2	0.271	0.542	-0.038	0.001	0.000
3	0.185	0.555	0.962	0.925	0.171
4	0.095	0.38	1.962	3.849	0.366
5	0.039	0.195	2.962	8.773	0.342
6	0.017	0.102	3.962	15.697	0.267
		<b><math>M(X)=2.038</math></b>			<b><math>V(X)=1.967</math></b>
					<b><math>\sigma(X)=1.402</math></b>

# DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

## BY EXAMPLES

- **Bernoulli:** head versus tail (two possible outcomes)
- **Binomial:** number of 'head' obtained by throwing a coin of  $n$  times
- **Poisson:** number of patients consulted in a emergency office in one day

# BERNOULLI DISTRIBUTION

- A random variable whose response are dichotomous is called a Bernoulli random variable
- The experiment has just two possible outcomes (success and failure – dichotomial variable):
  - Gender: boy or girl
  - Results of a test: positive or negative
- Probability of success =  $p$
- Probability of failure =  $1-p$
  
- Mean of  $X$ :  $M(X) = 1 \cdot p + 0 \cdot (1-p)$
- Variance of  $X$ :  $V(X) = p \cdot (1-p)$

<b>X</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>
Pr( $X=x$ )	$p$	$1-p$

# BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

- An experiment is given by repeating a test of  $n$  times ( $n =$  known natural number).
- The possible outcomes of each attempt are two events called success and failure
- Let noted with  $p$  the probability of success and with  $q$  the probability of failure ( $q = 1 - p$ )
- The  $n$  repeated tests are independent
- In a binomial experiment:
  - It consists of a fixed number  $n$  of identical experiments
  - There are only two possible outcomes in each experiments, denoted by S (success) and F (failure)
  - The experiments are independent with the same probability of S (denoted  $p$ )
- ${}_4C_2 = 4$  choose 2 (combination choosing 2 from 4)



# BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

Mean	$M(X) = n \cdot p$
Variance	$V(X) = n \cdot p \cdot q$
Standard deviation	$\sigma(X) = \sqrt{(n \cdot p \cdot q)}$

- The number of successes  $X$  obtained by performing the test  $n$  times is a random variable of  $n$  and  $p$  parameters and is noted as  $Bi(n,p)$
- The random variable  $X$  can take the following values:  $0, 1, 2, \dots, n$
- Probability that  $X$  to be equal with a value  $k$  is given by the formula:  
$$\Pr(X = k) = C_n^k p^k q^{n-k}$$

where:

$$C_n^k = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

# BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

- Suppose that 90% of adults with joint pain report symptomatic relief with a specific medication. If the medication is given to 10 new patients with joint pain, what is the probability that it is effective in exactly 7 subjects?
- Assumptions of the binomial distribution model?
  - The outcome is pain relief (yes or no), and we will consider that the *pain relief* is a success
  - The probability of success for each subject is 0.9 ( $p=0.9$ )
  - The final assumption is that the subjects are independent, and it is reasonable to assume that this is true.
- $\Pr(X=7) = {}_{10}C_7 \cdot 0.9^7 \cdot (1-0.9)^{10-7} = 0.0574 \rightarrow$  there is a 5.74% chance that exactly 7 of 10 patients will report pain relief when the probability that any one reports relief is 90%.

# BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

$$\Pr(X = k) = C_n^k p^k q^{n-k}$$

■ What is the probability to have 2 boys in a family with 5 children if the probability to have a baby-boy for each birth is equal to 0.47 and if the sex of children successive born in the family is considered an independent random variable?

- $p=0.47$
- $q=1-0.47=0.53$
- $n=5$
- $k=2$
- **$\Pr(X=2)=10 \cdot 0.47^2 \cdot 0.53^3$**
- **$\Pr(X=2) = 0.33$**

$$C_5^2 = \frac{5!}{2!(5-2)!} = \frac{5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{2 \cdot 1 \cdot (3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1)} = \frac{120}{12} = 10$$

# POISSON DISTRIBUTION

- Random Poisson variable take a countable infinity of values  $(0,1,2,\dots,k,\dots)$  that is the number of achievements of an event within a given range of time or place
  - number of entries per year in a given hospital
  - white blood cells on smear
  - number of decays of a radioactive substance in a given time  $T$

# POISSON DISTRIBUTION

- POISSON random variable:

- Is characterized by theoretical parameter  $\theta$  (expected average number of achievement for a given event in a given range)

- Symbol:  $Po(\theta)$

- Poisson Distribution:

$$X : \left( \begin{array}{c} k \\ e^{-\theta} \cdot \frac{\theta^k}{k!} \end{array} \right)$$

$$\Pr(X = k) = \frac{e^{-\theta} \cdot \theta^k}{k!}$$

- Mean of expected values:  $M(X) = \theta$

- Variance:  $V(X) = \theta$

# POISSON DISTRIBUTION

- The mortality rate for specific viral pathology is 7 per 1000 cases. What is the probability that in a group of 400 people this pathology to cause 5 deaths?
- $n=400$
- $p=7/1000=0.007$
- $\theta=n \cdot p=400 \cdot 0.007=2.8$
- $e=2.718281828=2.72$

$$\Pr(X=5) = (2.72^{-2.8} \cdot 2.8^5) / (5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1) = 10.45 / 120$$

$$\Pr(X=5) = 0.09$$

# RECALL

- Random variables could be discrete or continuous.
- For random variables we have:
  - Discrete probability distributions
  - Continuous probability distribution
- It is possible to compute the expected values (means), variations and standard deviation for discrete and random variables.

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# Thank you!

