

Counting Methods and Conditional Probability

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COUNTING METHODS

Permutations

Combinations

Permutation

- Definition: an ordering of a collection of objects
- Counting – How many ways can we arrange n objects?

n	Objects	Ordered
2	A, B	AB, BA
3	A, B, C	ABC, ACB, BAC, BCA, CAB, CBA
4+	A, B, C, D, ...	?

Permutation

- How many ways can we order 4 items (A,B,C,D)?
 - 4 ways to pick the 1st item
 - 3 ways to pick the 2nd item
 - 2 ways to pick the 3rd item
 - 1 way to pick the 4th item
- By the Fundamental Principle of Counting, there are
4 x 3 x 2 x 1 = 24 ways
- This pattern generalizes – the number of permutations of n objects is
 $n(n-1)(n-2) \dots (3)(2)(1) = n!$, or “n factorial”

Example – Permutations of Subsets

- There are eight people running in a 400 meter race
- They are competing for three medals (gold, silver, and bronze)
- How many ways can the three medalists be chosen and ordered on the podium?



Example Continued

- By the Fundamental Principle of Counting, the number of ways 3 medalists can be ordered on the podium is

$$\underline{8} \times \underline{7} \times \underline{6} = 336$$

- In general, the number of permutations of k objects chosen from a group of n objects is

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+1)(n-k)(n-k-1) \cdots (3)(2)(1)}{(n-k)(n-k-1) \cdots (3)(2)(1)} \\ &= \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \end{aligned}$$

Combination

- Each distinct group of objects that can be selected **without regard to order**
- Previous example – say we are only interested in whether a runner makes the podium or not (place doesn't matter)
 - The following outcomes are all equivalent
ABC, ACB, BAC, BCA, CAB, CBA
 - Likewise, there will be 6 possible permutations for any group of 3 runners making the podium

Combination

- We already know that the number of permutations of k objects chosen from n is $n!/(n-k)!$
- Also, the number of permutations of k objects is $k!$
- Therefore, the number of **combinations** of k objects chosen from n is

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

“n choose k”

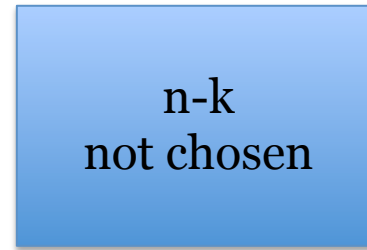
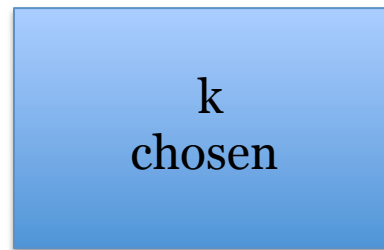
Example 2.14

- At a certain event, 30 people attend, and 5 will be chosen at random to receive door prizes. The prizes are all the same, so the order in which the people are chosen does not matter.
- How many different groups of 5 people can be chosen?

$$\begin{aligned}\binom{30}{5} &= \frac{30!}{5!25!} \\ &= \frac{(30)(29)(28)(27)(26)}{(5)(4)(3)(2)(1)} \\ &= 142,506\end{aligned}$$

Combination – Multiple Subsets

- Choosing a combination of k objects from n divides the n objects into 2 subsets:



- We can also divide the n objects into multiple subsets

Example

Consider the task of dividing the class of 144 students into 6 discussion groups of 24 each

Choose a combination of 24 students

Choose 24 students from the remaining 120

Choose 24 students from the remaining 96

Choose 24 students from the remaining 72

Choose 24 students from the remaining 48

Number of Ways of Performing the Operation

$$\binom{144}{24} = \frac{144!}{24!120!}$$

$$\binom{120}{24} = \frac{120!}{24!96!}$$

$$\binom{96}{24} = \frac{96!}{24!72!}$$

$$\binom{72}{24} = \frac{72!}{24!48!}$$

$$\binom{48}{24} = \frac{48!}{24!24!}$$

Example Continued

- By the Fundamental Principle of Counting, multiply these numbers to get the total number of combinations:

$$\binom{144}{24} \binom{120}{24} \binom{96}{24} \binom{72}{24} \binom{48}{24} = \frac{144!}{24!24!24!24!24!} = 9.7 \times 10^{106}$$

- Generalization: The number of ways of dividing a group of n objects into groups of k_1, \dots, k_r objects, where $k_1 + \dots + k_r = n$ is

$$\frac{n!}{k_1! \cdots k_r!}$$

CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY

Conditional probability

Independence

Total probability

Bayes rule

Unconditional vs Conditional

- Sample space – ALL possible outcomes
- If we know that an outcome comes from a certain part of the sample space, we can discuss probability of an event **conditioning** on that part of the sample space
- Without restriction to any part of the sample space, then the probability would be **unconditional**

Example 2.6

TABLE 2.1 Sample space containing 1000 aluminum rods

Length	Diameter		
	Too Thin	OK	Too Thick
Too Short	10	3	5
OK	38	900	4
Too Long	2	25	13

Unconditional Probability

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{Diameter OK}) &= 928/1000 \\ &= 0.928 \end{aligned}$$

TABLE 2.2 Reduced sample space containing 942 aluminum rods that meet the length specification

Length	Diameter		
	Too Thin	OK	Too Thick
Too Short	—	—	—
OK	38	900	4
Too Long	—	—	—

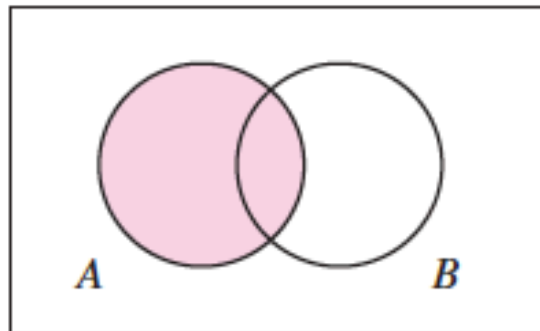
Conditional Probability

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{Diameter OK} | \text{Length OK}) &= 900/942 \\ &= 0.955 \end{aligned}$$

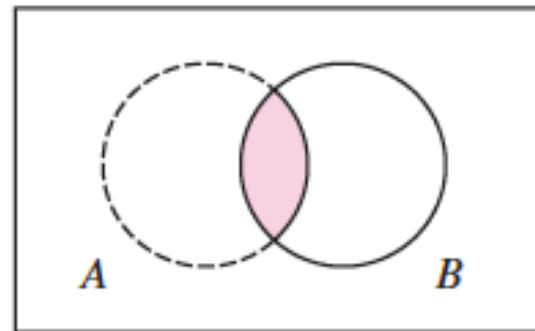
Conditional Probability Definition

Let A and B be events with $P(B) \neq 0$. The conditional probability of A given B is

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



Unconditional probability of A . Ignores any information about B



Conditional probability of A **given** B occurred. Only consider the part of A that overlaps with B

Example

- Suppose that there is a 60% chance of snow (S), a 20% chance of high winds (W), and a 15% chance of snow *and* high winds together.
- What is the probability of high winds **given** that it is snowing?

We want to find $P(W|S) = P(W \cap S) / P(S)$

We know $P(W \cap S) = 0.15$, and

$$P(S) = 0.60$$

So $P(W|S) = 0.15 / 0.60 = 0.25$

- What is the probability of snow **given** that there are high winds?

Independent Events

- Sometimes the knowledge that event B has occurred does NOT change the probability that event A occurs, i.e.

$$\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \text{Unconditional} \\ \text{Probability} \\ \hline \end{array} = \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \text{Conditional} \\ \text{Probability} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

- In this case, events A and B are **independent**

Example 2.20

TABLE 2.1 Sample space containing 1000 aluminum rods

Length	Diameter		
	Too Thin	OK	Too Thick
Too Short	10	3	5
OK	38	900	4
Too Long	2	25	13

Compare $P(\text{Too long})$ and $P(\text{Too long} | \text{Too thin})$

$$P(\text{Too long}) = (2+25+13)/1000 = 40/1000 = 0.04$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{Too long} | \text{Too thin}) &= P(\text{Too long} \cap \text{Too thin})/P(\text{Too thin}) \\ &= (2/1000)/(50/1000) \\ &= 0.04 \end{aligned}$$

Independence

- Two events A and B are **B independent** if $P(A) \neq 0$, $P(B) \neq 0$, and $P(B|A) = P(B)$ or $P(A|B) = P(A)$
- Generalize to n events: Events A_1, \dots, A_n are independent if the probability of each remains the same no matter which of the others occur

The Multiplication Rule

- If events A and B both have positive probability, then we can rearrange the definition of conditional probability

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

- If A and B are independent, then

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

- Generalize to multiple events: If Events A_1, \dots, A_n are independent, then

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A_1)P(A_2)\dots P(A_n)$$

Example

A certain type of light bulb has a probability of being defective of 0.02. In a random sample of 10 bulbs, what is the probability that all are functioning? Assume they are independent.

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Let L_i , $i = 1, \dots, 10$ be the event that bulb i is functioning

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{All 10 function}) &= P(L_1 \cap L_2 \cap \dots \cap L_{10}) \\ &= P(L_1) P(L_2) \dots P(L_{10}) \\ &= (1-0.02)^{10} \\ &= (0.98)^{10} \\ &= 0.817 \end{aligned}$$

Law of Total Probability

- If A_1, \dots, A_n are mutually exclusive and exhaustive events, then for any event B
$$P(B) = P(B \cap A_1) + \dots + P(B \cap A_n)$$
- A set of events is **exhaustive** if their union covers the entire sample space
example: A and A^c are mutually exclusive and exhaustive

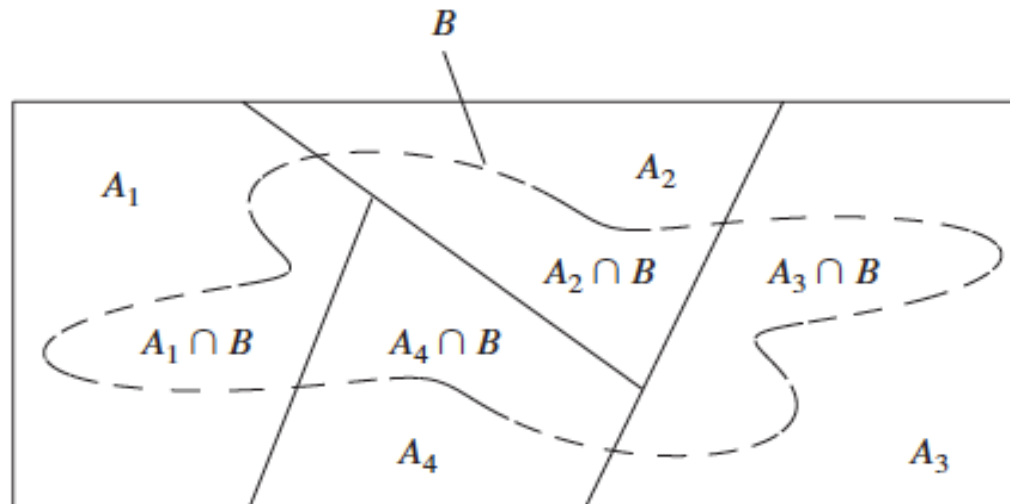


FIGURE 2.6 The mutually exclusive and exhaustive events A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4 divide the event B into mutually exclusive subsets.

Example

Experiment: throw 1 dice and toss 1 coin

$$S = \{(1,T), (2,T), (3,T), (4,T), (5,T), (6,T), \\ (1,H), (2,H), (3,H), (4,H), (5,H), (6,H)\}$$

The following events are **mutually exclusive** and **exhaustive**:

$$A_1 = \text{Odd number and Tails} = \{(1,T), (3,T), (5,T)\}$$

$$A_2 = \text{Number} > 2 \text{ and Heads} = \{(3,H), (4,H), (5,H), (6,H)\}$$

$$A_3 = \text{Roll a 2} = \{(2,T), (2,H)\}$$

$$A_4 = \text{Roll a 1 and Heads} = \{(1,H)\}$$

$$A_5 = \text{Even number} > 3 \text{ and Tails} = \{(4,T), (6,T)\}$$

Then for an event B in the same sample space,

$$P(B) = P(B \cap A_1) + P(B \cap A_2) + P(B \cap A_3) + P(B \cap A_4) + P(B \cap A_5)$$

Bayes' Rule

- Let A_1, \dots, A_n be mutually exclusive and exhaustive events with $P(A_i) \neq 0$ for each A_i . Then for any event B with $P(B) \neq 0$

$$P(A_k | B) = \frac{P(B | A_k)P(A_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(B | A_i)P(A_i)}$$

- Special case for two events ($A_1=A$ and $A_2=A^c$)

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(B | A)P(A)}{P(B | A)P(A) + P(B | A^c)P(A^c)}$$

Snow/Wind Example

- Recall our previous setup: there is a 60% chance of snow (S), and we found that $P(W|S)=0.25$. Suppose $P(W|S^c)=0.125$.
- Using Bayes rule, find the probability of snow **given** that there are high winds

$$\begin{aligned}P(S|W) &= P(W|S)P(S) / [P(W|S)P(S) + P(W|S^c)P(S^c)] \\ &= (0.25)(0.6) / [(0.25)(0.6) + 0.125(1 - 0.6)] \\ &= 0.75\end{aligned}$$

Example 2.26

- The proportion of people in a given community with a certain disease is 0.005 (0.5%).
- There is a test available to diagnose the disease
- If a person has the disease, the probability that the test will produce a (true) positive signal is 0.99
- If a person does not have the disease, the probability that the test will produce a (false) positive signal is 0.01

Example 2.26 Continued

If a person tests positive, what is the probability that the person actually has the disease?

Example 2.26 Continued

If a person tests positive, what is the probability that the person actually has the disease?

Given $P(D)=0.005$, $P(+ | D)=0.99$, and $P(+ | D^c)=0.01$

Using Bayes rule,

$$\begin{aligned}P(D | +) &= \frac{P(+ | D)P(D)}{P(+ | D)P(D) + P(+ | D^c)P(D^c)} \\ &= (0.99)(0.005) / [(0.99)(0.005) + (0.01)(0.995)] \\ &= 0.332\end{aligned}$$

Example 2.26 Continued

If a person tests negative, what is the probability that the person actually has the disease?

Example 2.26 Continued

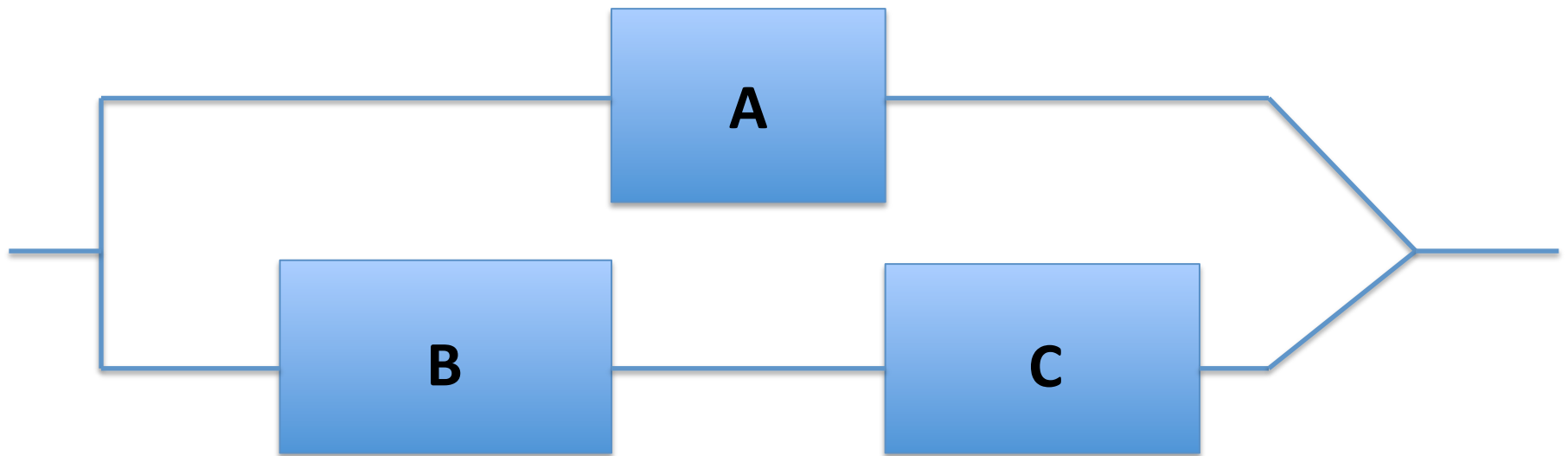
If a person tests negative, what is the probability that the person actually has the disease?

Given $P(D)=0.005$, $P(+ | D)=0.99$, and $P(+ | D^c)=0.01$

Using Bayes rule,

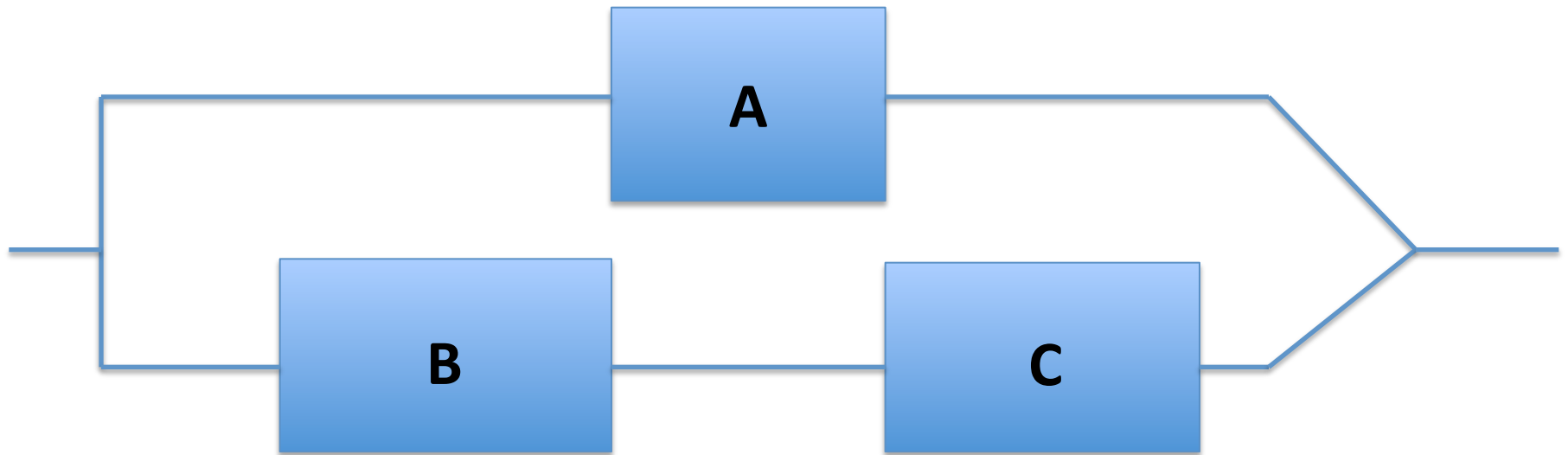
$$\begin{aligned}P(D | -) &= \frac{P(- | D)P(D)}{P(- | D)P(D) + P(- | D^c)P(D^c)} \\ &= (0.01)(0.005) / [(0.01)(0.005) + (0.99)(0.995)] \\ &= 0.00005\end{aligned}$$

Example – Reliability Analysis



- A system contains independent components A, B, and C, connected as above
- The system functions if either path functions (or both)
- The probabilities of failure are A: 0.02, B: 0.05, C: 0.01
- Find the probability that the system functions

Example – Reliability Analysis



$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{System Functions}) &= P(\{A \text{ functions}\} \text{ or } \{B \text{ and } C \text{ function}\}) \\ &= P(A \cup (B \cap C)) && \text{use } P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B) \\ &= P(A) + P(B \cap C) - P(A \cap B \cap C) && \text{use independence} \\ &= 0.98 + (0.95)(0.99) - (0.98)(0.95)(0.99) \\ &\approx 0.9988 \end{aligned}$$

Next

- Random variables (2.4)
 - Continuous and Discrete
 - Probability Distributions
 - Mean and Variance of a RV