

**Technology Transition Workshop** | *Paul Chamberlain* 

# Probability and Forensic Science

#### **Overview**

- In this presentation we are going to introduce some basic probability concepts
- We will focus only on those ideas you will need to appreciate the fingerprint probability software



- In any forensic science investigation we need to deal with uncertainty
- How likely is it that the recovered trace came from the suggested source?
  - Fibres from a coat
  - Paint on a jacket
  - Hair from an individual



- We need a way of assessing the likelihood of a specific event
- Given the use to which our assessment is being put, it is desirable that our assessment is not wholly based on intuition
- Is there a way in which we can do this?



- Science of statistics refers to two distinct but linked areas of knowledge
  - Counts, analysis of events, etc.
  - Examination of uncertainty
- We are interested in the second of these



- We can define two types of probability
  - Aleatory: deduce from observation of a system
    - Ideal
  - Epistemic: induce from observation of a system
    - Real



- Deduction
  - Conclusion from stated premises: from the general to the specific
- Induction
  - Deriving general principles from facts or instances:
     specific to the general



- Probability is a branch of mathematics and therefore mathematical language is used
- Here we are going to simplify the ideas
  - We will keep the use of mathematical nomenclature and formulae to the minimum



- "First Law of Probability"
  - Probability (Pr) can take any value between 0 and 1
    - Where 1 = certainty
    - Where 0 = impossible



- We can think of probabilities as odds
  - **1/10**
  - **1/1000**
  - **2/3**
- Which is the same as
  - 0.1
  - **0.001**
  - 0.67



- "Second law of probability"
  - The sum of the probabilities of mutually exclusive events equals 1



- Real probabilities are induced by observation
- Realist interpretation is concerned with frequencies and numbers of outcomes



- Let's think about the rolling of a die
- What is the probability of rolling a 6 with one die?
  - **1/6**
- How did we calculate this?



Number of events being considered

**Number of possible events** 



- To calculate this probability we have made an assumption
- We have accepted the die to be fair
- This is unlikely to be the case in the real world
- We have created a simple model



- Of course any assumptions we make will affect our assessment of the probability
- If our assumptions are wrong then our outcome will be wrong



- What about rolling a 6 on each on two fair dice?
  - **1/36**
- How did we arrive at this?
- Did we make any assumptions?



- Multiplied the odds for each event
- Assumed that one die does not influence the other; the events are independent



- How about tossing a coin?
- How likely is it to toss a head with one coin?
  - 1/2
- Again we assume the coin is fair
- We have created a model



- How accurate are models?
- If the coin model is accurate, we would expect to see the distribution of outcomes predicted in the long run
- Comte de Buffon, Karl Pearson and John Kerrich
  - Close to ½ with approximately 4000, 24,000 and 10,000 throws, respectively



- In forensic science we are generally concerned with the likelihood of one specific event
- Is it possible to speak of the probability of a single event?



- Consider our answer to rolling a 6 with a single die
- There is no physical state of affairs which corresponds to a probability of 1/6 for a single event
  - It either happens or it doesn't!



- To quantify a probability for a single event it needs to be conceived of as a product of the mind
- This has been called subjective probability<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>O'Hagan 2004



- Subjective Probability is informed by
  - Empirical observations
  - Beliefs
- We need to be careful of the word subjective because we are not implying that the probability is unfounded



- What is the probability it will rain tomorrow?
- How might we arrive at that decision?
  - Weather today, yesterday, this week, etc.
  - Month
  - Season
  - Last year
  - Etc.



- For each of these factors we can make a statement:
  - If rained yesterday, it always rains in April
  - Etc.



- Given the use of forensic science, this has some limitations
  - How do we get consistency?
  - How do we get reproducibility?
- What if we assign numerical probability to each of these pieces of information?



- A way of doing this is to consider two competing propositions for a particular event and then assess the probability of the observations in each case
- We can then calculate a Likelihood Ratio (LR)



- In forensic science we can frame propositions like these to consider trace evidence:
  - What is the probability of the observations we have made (E) if the prosecution hypothesis (H<sub>p</sub>) is correct and the suspect did leave the trace?
  - What is the probability of the observations we have made (E) if the defense hypothesis (H<sub>d</sub>) is correct and the trace was left by a random other person?



 In mathematical language the Likelihood Ratio (LR) is:

$$LR = \frac{P_r(E | H_p)}{P_r(E | H_d)}$$



- Let's assume that the probability of making one particular observation if the prosecution hypothesis (H<sub>p</sub>) is correct is 0.9
- Therefore, the probability of making the same observation if H<sub>d</sub> is true is 0.1
- What is the LR?



- LR = 9
- A LR which is greater than 1 indicates that the observations are more likely if H<sub>p</sub> is true than H<sub>d</sub>



- Now let's assume that the probability of making one particular observation if the prosecution hypothesis H<sub>p</sub> is correct is 0.5
- Therefore, the probability of making the same observation if H<sub>d</sub> is true is 0.5
- What is the LR?



- LR = 1
  - This means the evidence is of no assistance
  - It is equally likely to make the observations in each case



- Finally, if the probability of the observations in the case of H<sub>p</sub> is 0.2
- And H<sub>d</sub> is 0.8
- What is the LR?



- LR = 0.25
- A LR which is less than 1 indicates that the observations are more likely if H<sub>d</sub> is true than H<sub>p</sub>



- The greater the LR, the greater the support for the prosecution proposition
- If the LR is 1 then the examination is of no assistance
- If the LR is less than 1 then it supports the defense proposition



- We can articulate LR as numbers, through graphs or diagrams, or by relating to a verbal scale
- Each of these approaches has benefits and issues
- In this workshop we will use a verbal scale such as this:



LR	
>106	Extremely strong
10 <sup>5</sup> - 10 <sup>6</sup>	Very Strong
10 <sup>3</sup> - 10 <sup>5</sup>	Strong
10 <sup>2</sup> - 10 <sup>3</sup>	Moderate
>1 - 10 <sup>2</sup>	Limited

Technology Transition Workshop National Institute of Justice



 Let's consider a very simple example to explain these numbers



- Let's evaluate the probability of observing a correspondence if H<sub>p</sub> is true as 0.999999999
- Therefore, the probability for H<sub>d</sub> is 0.0000001





Referring to our verbal scale, we would call this extremely strong evidence



- Why use a LR?
  - It provides a versatile and simple measure
  - It allows evidence to be combined and evaluated
- Bayes Theorem

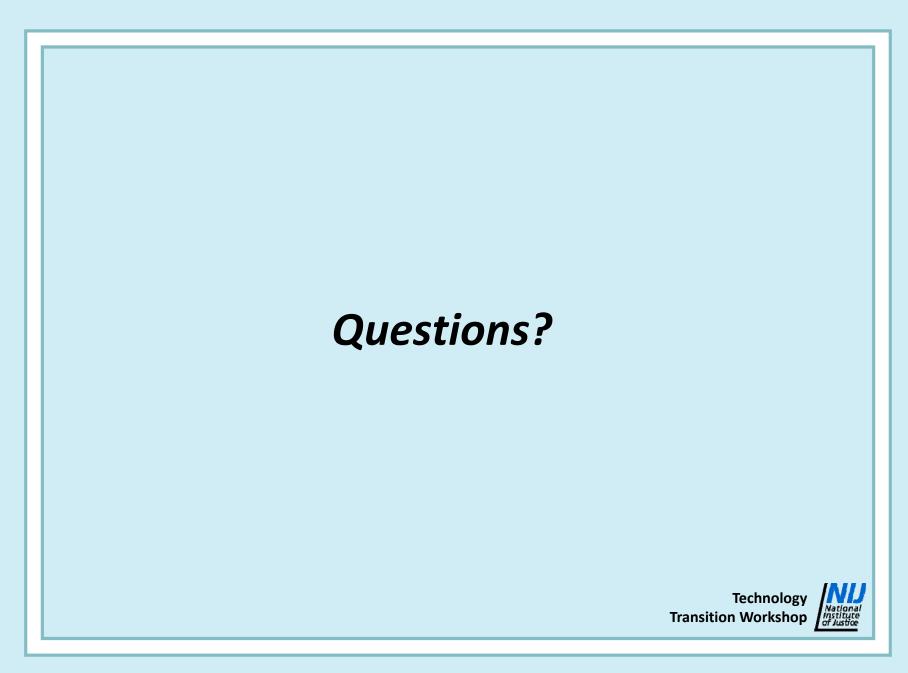


- Posterior odds of C = likelihood ratio of the evidence (E) x prior odds of C
- What you want to know = what you calculate x what you already know



 In the next sessions we will take these ideas and see how we can apply them to fingerprint examination





#### **Contact Information**

Sarah West
Mississippi Department of Public Safety
<a href="mailto:swest@mcl.state.ms.us">swest@mcl.state.ms.us</a>

Paul Chamberlain
Forensic Science Service
Paul.Chamberlain@fss.pnn.police.uk

