3.1 The Meaning of Probability

Case study (genetics): Tay-Sachs (T-S) disease is what medical researchers call a storage disease in humans (see, e.g., www.ninds.nih.gov/disorders/taysachs/taysachs.htm for more details).

The symptoms of the disease result from the abnormal accumulation of a fatty substance called ganglioside G_{M2} in many cells of the body, especially the central nervous system.

Lack of a particular enzyme, beta-hexosaminidase A (Hex A for short), which normally breaks down ganglioside G_{M2} , is the cause of the disorder.

An **infant** with the disease will have **virtually none** of the enzyme, and at present this condition is typically **fatal** (usually by the age of 4), with no cure in sight.

A carrier, perfectly healthy in every way, will produce the enzyme in about half the usual amount.

The production of **Hex A** in the body is determined by a particular pair of **genes**.

Carriers have within their body cells one gene (H) that operates normally and one gene (h) that does not.

Adults can be **classified** as **carriers** or **noncarriers** by a **blood test** to see how much Hex A is present in their cells — if your Hex A level is **100%** of normal you're a **noncarrier**; if it's about **50%** of normal you're a **carrier**.

A man and a woman thinking of getting married have come into the family health clinic where you work, and the blood tests have shown them both to be carriers.

They're planning a family of **five children**, and they need your advice on the possibility of having one or more T-S babies.

Frequentist and Bayesian

Set up a simple **genetic model** for this situation and use it to work out the **possibilities** for any one of their children – is it **possible** for their **second child**, say, to be **normal**? a **carrier**? a **T-S baby**?

What are the **chances** of each of these happening for any given child?

What is the **probability** that, if they do have **five children**, they will have **one or more T-S babies**?

The meaning of probability. Two main ways to think about the meaning of probability have been developed:

- the frequentist (or relative frequency) approach, in which attention is restricted to phenomena that are repeatable under identical conditions (with each repetition logically independent of the others) and the probability P(A) of an event A is regarded as the long-run relative frequency with which A would occur in the repetitions; and
- the **Bayesian** approach, in which A can be any (true/false) proposition you want (in other words, in this approach attention need not be restricted to repeatable phenomena) and P(A) is a numerical measure of the weight of evidence in favor of the statement that A is true.

Evidently the Bayesian approach is more general (it includes the frequentist approach as a special case), but it turns out that the math is a lot harder in the Bayesian world, so in this introductory course we'll concentrate on the frequentist story and you can hear more about the Bayesian story later (if you have time and interest for more study in probability and statistics).



The Genetic Story

Let's define

 $A = \{1 \text{ or more T-S babies in a family of 5 children of 2 parents, both of whom are carriers <math>(Hh)\};$

we want P(A) (the frequentist interpretation of P(A) involves imagining many families of 5 children, each with 2 parents who are both carriers, and asking what's the relative frequency of 1 or more T-S babies among these families).

First let's work out the **possibilities** for **each** of their **children** one by one — given that we know **each parent** has the **genetic makeup** (Hh), the **standard way** to do this in **genetics** is with what's called a **Punnett square**, in which **one parent** forms the **rows** and the **other** the **columns** of a 2×2 **table**:

Father's Genes H hMother's H (H,H) (H,h)Genes h (H,h) (h,h)

The simplest way we can make sense of the evidence about the level of Hex A in the blood is to theorize that

- if you have the genetic makeup (H, H) you'll have 100% of the normal level of Hex A (i.e., you're normal);
- if you have the **genetic makeup** (H,h) you'll have **50%** of the **normal level** of Hex A (i.e., you're a **carrier**); and
 - if you have the **genetic makeup** (h,h) you'll have **0%** of the **normal level** of Hex A (i.e., you're a **T-S baby**).

Equally Likely Model

(Genetics note: if we define phenotype at the level of presence or absence of the disease (2 phenotypes), this is a dominant-recessive genetic model with H dominant and h recessive; if instead we define phenotype by the amount of Hex A in the blood (3 phenotypes: 100%, 50%, 0% of normal), this is an additive genetic model.)

This answers some of the questions above: yes, it's possible for any one of their children to be normal, or a carrier, or a T-S baby; but what about the chances of these outcomes?

When conception takes place, our current best understanding is that all 4 of the possibilities in the 4 cells of the Punnett square are equally likely — this means that we can apply what must certainly be the simplest useful probability model for understanding the real world, the equally likely model:

the ways the repeatable phenomenon you're thinking about can come out} in such a way that all of these possible outcomes are equally likely, then for any event A

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{number of outcomes favorable to } A}{\text{total number of possible outcomes}}$$
.

Example: If I make one draw Y at random from the little fake population data set (1,2,9) I've discussed before, by definition of the phrase "at random" the ELM applies, and immediately $P(Y=9)=\frac{1}{3} \doteq 33\%$ and $P(Y \text{ is odd})=\frac{2}{3} \doteq 67\%$.

Applying the **ELM** to the **T-S** case study, evidently for each of this couple's children

$$P(\text{normal}) = \frac{1}{4} = 25\%, P(\text{carrier}) = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2} = 50\%, \text{ and } P(\text{T-S baby}) = \frac{1}{4} = 25\%.$$

Logical Equivalents

Turning now to the main question of interest in the case study, evidently {1 or more T-S babies in a family of 5 children} is logically equivalent to

so it looks like one **strategy** for working out P(A) is to **break it down** into a bunch of **simpler possibilities** linked together by a **logical connective** like **or** and work out how **or** behaves — in other words, that makes me wonder, for any events A and B, how P(A or B) **relates** to the two **simpler** ingredients $\{P(A), P(B)\}$.

Notice also that there's **only one other possibility** — if these people are **not** going to have {1 or more T-S babies} then they would **have** to have {exactly 0 T-S babies}, so

 $A = \{1 \text{ or more T-S babies}\} = \boxed{\text{not}} \{\text{exactly 0 T-S babies}\};$

this in turn makes me wonder how P(A) and P(not A) are related.

And finally if these people were indeed to have {exactly 0 T-S babies}, this would be logically equivalent to

({not a T-S baby on child 1} and {not a T-S baby on child 2} and {not a T-S baby on child 3} and {not a T-S baby on child 4} and {not a T-S baby on child 5}),

so I'm also left **wondering**, for any events A and B, how P(A and B) **relates** to the two **simpler** ingredients $\{P(A), P(B)\}.$

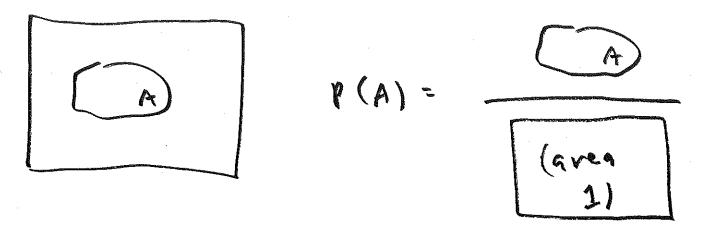


Venn Diagrams

In **intuitively** working out how **and**, **or**, and **not behave**, it helps (as Triola and Triola note in Section 3–3) to make use of what are called **Venn diagrams**.

The idea is to draw a rectangular box to stand for all the different ways the repeatable experiment you're interested in could come out and put one or more blobs A, B, \ldots inside the box to stand for all the ways A, B, \ldots could turn out to be true; then I imagine shooting at the box in such a way that (a) the shot must fall somewhere inside and (b) every point inside the box has the same chance of being where the shot falls.

From this, graphically P(A) must equal the ratio of the area of the blob for A to the total area of the box:



Using the **relative frequency** intuitive idea of probability, the next basic thing to notice is that for any event A the **relative frequency** with which it could happen, in **(imaginary) repetitions** of the basic thing you're imagining repeating, can't be less than 0 (or 0%) or more than 1 (or 100%):

For any event
$$A$$
, $0\% = 0 \le P(A) \le 1 = 100\%$.

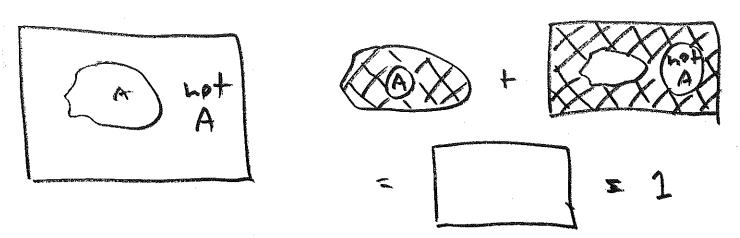
In other words, the **total area** of the **box** is **1** or 100%.



Basic Probability Rules

The next thing to **notice** is that, for any event A, the shot either **has to** fall **inside** A (which is like saying that A is **true**) or it **has** to fall **inside** (not A) (which is like saying that A is **false**), and it can't do **both**.

This means that (A, not A) forms what's called a partition: a way of expressing all the different possible outcomes so that the events making up the partition (in this case, A and (not A)) are mutually exclusive (if one of them is true the other one can't be) and exhaustive (one of them has to be true) — in the Venn diagram this just corresponds to the idea that [the area for A] + [the area for (not A)] has to equal the total area of the box (which, by the argument above, is 1 or 100%):



This gives rise to another basic rule:

For any event A, P(A) + P(not A) = 1 = 100%.

This may seem **trivial**, but a **simple rearrangement** of this fact actually turns out to be a **valuable way** to **compute probabilities**:

For any event
$$A$$
, $P(A) = 1 - P(\text{not } A)$.



Basic Rules (continued)

In other words, if you're having **trouble** working out P(A) directly you can **try** to **compute** P(not A), which may be easier, and **subtract from 1**.

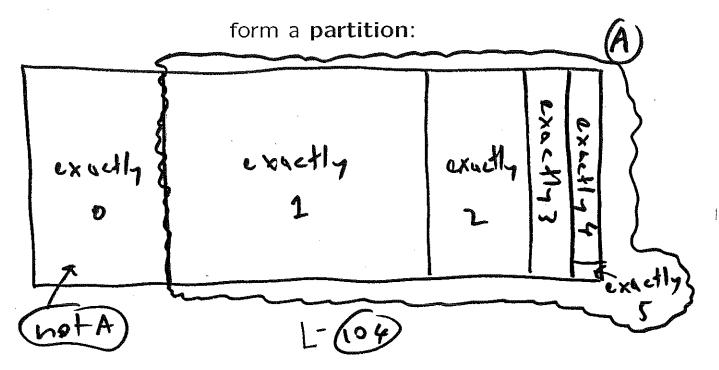
In the T-S case study, this observation is helpful: as we saw above, if these parents are going to have 1 or more T-S babies there are 5 different ways that could occur (exactly 1, exactly 2, ..., exactly 5), so

 $P(A) = P(1 ext{ or more T-S babies})$ sounds difficult to compute directly, but there's only one way they can have (not $\{1 ext{ or more T-S babies}\}\)$, namely $\{exactly ext{ 0 T-S babies}\}\$, so it'll be easier to compute P(A) indirectly using the rule for not:

P(1 or more T-S babies) = 1 - P(no T-S babies).

Another way to put it, using **Venn diagrams**, is that the **events**

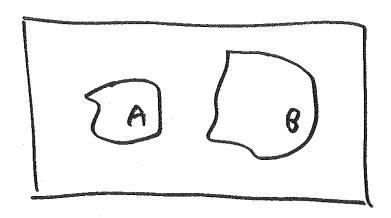
({exactly 0 T-S babies}, {exactly 1 T-S baby}, {exactly 2 T-S babies}, {exactly 3 T-S babies}, {exactly 4 T-S babies}, {exactly 5 T-S babies})



Working With Or

OK, we've seen how $\boxed{\mathbf{not}}$ works; how about $\boxed{\mathbf{or}}$? — in other words, how does P(A or B) relate to the two simpler ingredients $\{P(A), P(B)\}$.

It turns out there are **two cases** to consider — suppose the **Venn diagram** looks like this:



In this picture A and B don't overlap, which is equivalent to saying that they're mutually exclusive — in this case, to compute the chance the random shot lands in (A or B) evidently you can just add the separate chances $\{P(A), P(B) \text{ that it lands either in } A \text{ or in } B$:

For two **mutually exclusive** events A and B, P(A or B) = P(A) + P(B).

Evidently this rule can easily be extended to three or more mutually exclusive events: if A, B and C have no (pairwise) overlap, then P(A or B or C) = P(A) + P(B) + P(C).

P(A or B or C) = P(A) + P(B) + P(C),and so on.

What about if A and B do **overlap?** — then the **Venn** diagram would look like this:

