

Figure 2.1 Pebble World intuition for $P(A|B)$. From left to right: (a) Events A and B are subsets of the sample space. (b) Because we know B occurred, get rid of the outcomes in B^c . (c) In the restricted sample space, renormalize so the total mass is still 1.

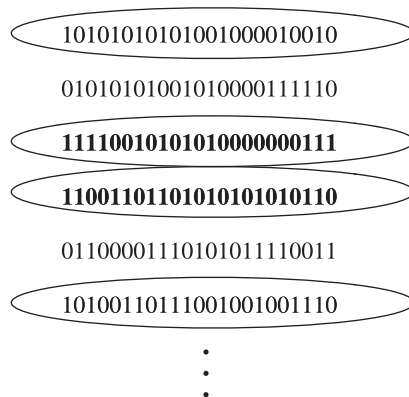


Figure 2.2 Frequentist intuition for $P(A|B)$. The repetitions where B occurred are circled; among these, the repetitions where A occurred are highlighted in bold. $P(A|B)$ is the long-run relative frequency of the repetitions where A occurs, within the subset of repetitions where B occurs.

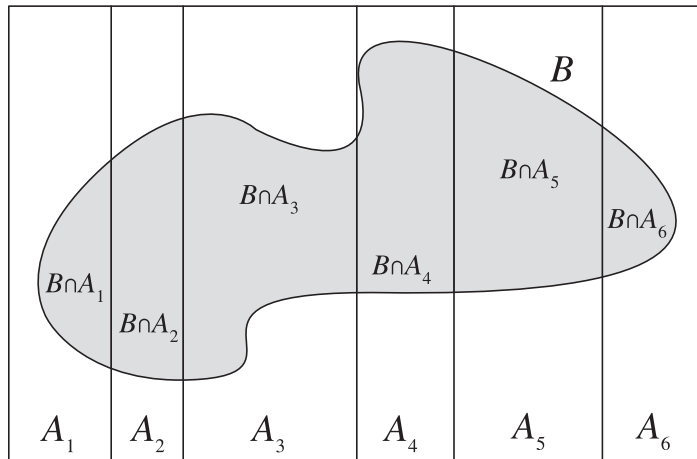


Figure 2.3 The A_i partition the sample space; $P(B)$ is equal to $\sum_i P(B \cap A_i)$.

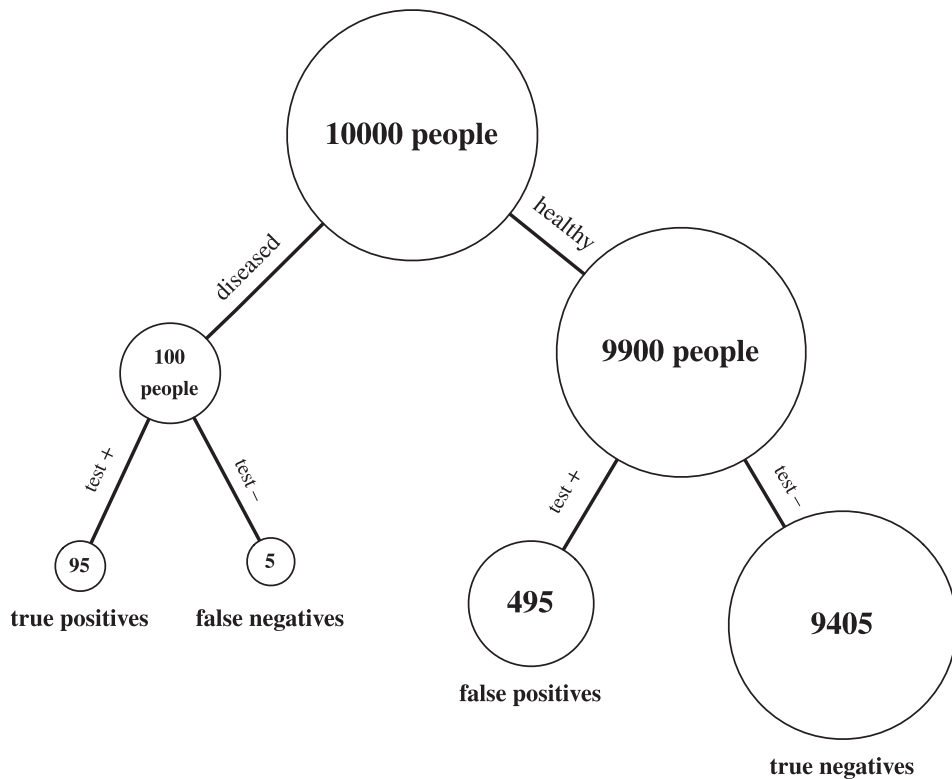


Figure 2.4 Testing for a rare disease in a population of 10000 people, where the prevalence of the disease is 1% and the true positive and true negative rates are both equal to 95%. Bubbles are not to scale.

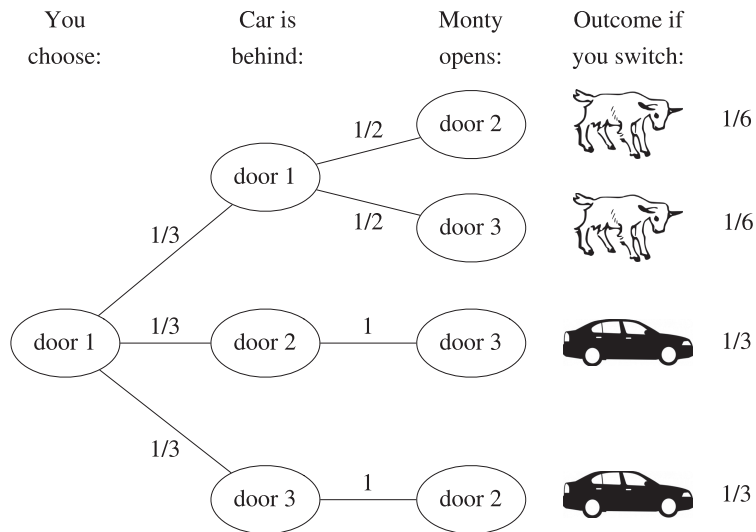


Figure 2.5 Tree diagram of Monty Hall problem. Switching gets the car 2/3 of the time.

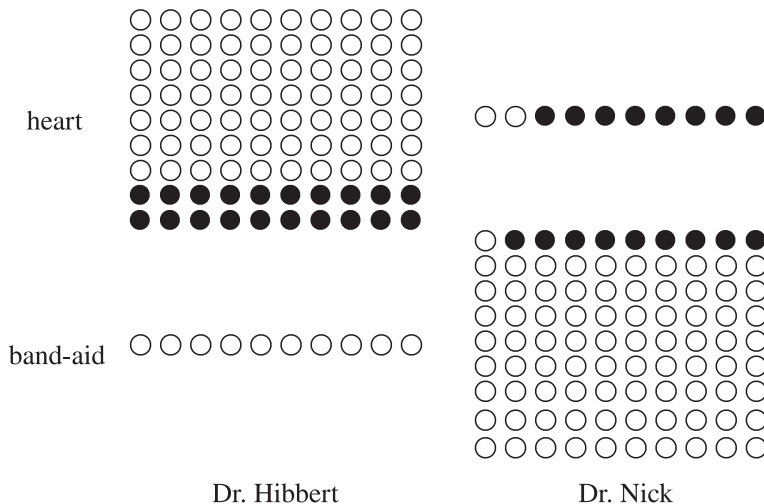


Figure 2.6 An example of Simpson's paradox. White dots represent successful surgeries and black dots represent failed surgeries. Dr. Hibbert is better in both types of surgery but has a lower overall success rate, because he is performing the harder type of surgery much more often than Dr. Nick is.

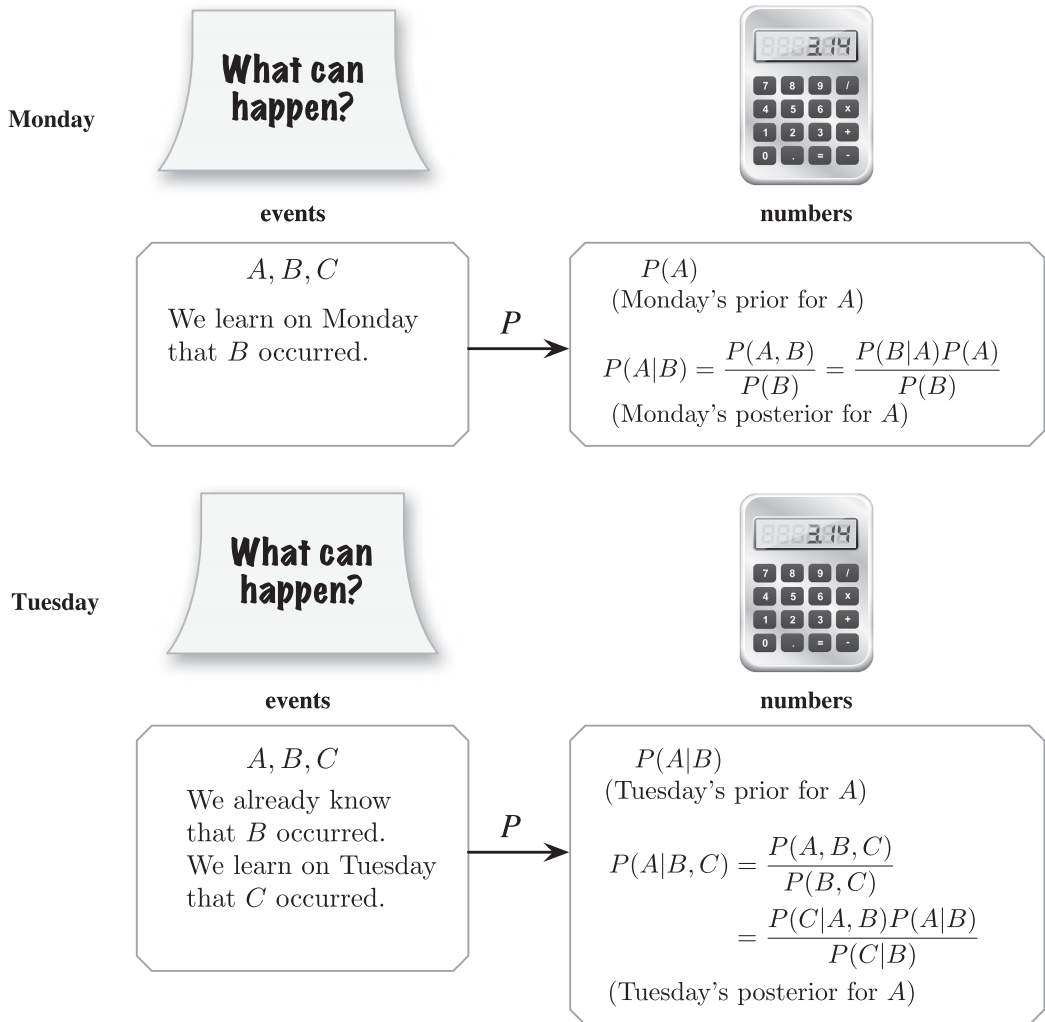


Figure 2.7 Conditional probability tells us how to update probabilities as new evidence comes in. Shown are the probabilities for an event A initially, after obtaining one piece of evidence B , and after obtaining a second piece of evidence C . The posterior for A after observing the first piece of evidence becomes the new prior before observing the second piece of evidence. After both B and C are observed, a new posterior for A can be found in various ways. This then becomes the new prior if more evidence will be collected.