

Stat 501

Conditional Probability and Bayes' Theorem

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Lecture Overview

Lecture 1: The Foundation of Conditional Probability

Lecture 2: Bayes' Theorem and the Law of Total Probability

Lecture 3: Advanced Applications and Interpretations

Lecture 1: The Foundation of Conditional Probability

Lecture 1: Learning Objectives

By the end of this lecture, you will be able to:

- Understand the concept of a conditional probability.
- Motivate why conditional probability is necessary.
- State and apply the formal definition of conditional probability: $\mathbb{P}(A | B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$.
- Distinguish between $\mathbb{P}(A | B)$ and $\mathbb{P}(B | A)$.
- Solve basic problems involving conditional probability.

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We say: “The probability of a 6, *given* an even number, is $\frac{1}{3}$.”

Definition of Conditional Probability

The conditional probability of event A given that event B has occurred (with $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$) is:

Formula

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$$

- $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$ is the probability **both** A and B happen.
- $\mathbb{P}(B)$ is the probability of the **conditioning** event.
- This formula *rescales* the probability of the joint event ($A \cap B$) to the new “world” where we know B is certain.

Back to the Die Example

Let's verify our intuitive answer with the formula.

$$A = \{6\}$$

$$B = \{2, 4, 6\}$$

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Applying the formula:

$$\mathbb{P}(A | B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\{6\})}{\mathbb{P}(\{2, 4, 6\})} = \frac{1/6}{3/6} = \frac{1}{3}$$

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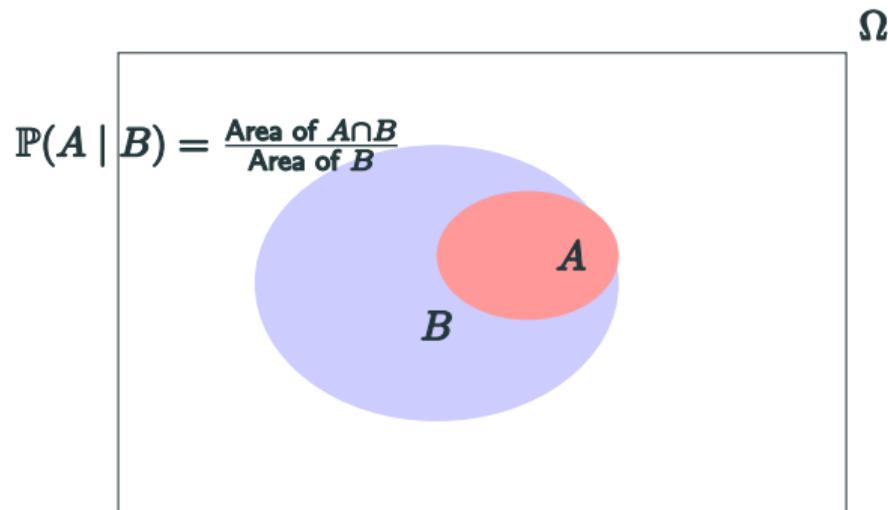
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It matches our intuition!

Visualizing Conditional Probability



Conditional probability focuses our attention on the part of event A that lies within the known event B .

Another Example: Cards

Scenario: Draw one card from a standard 52-card deck.

- A : The event that the card is a King. $\mathbb{P}(A) = 4/52 = 1/13$.
- B : The event that the card is a Face card (J, Q, K). $\mathbb{P}(B) = 12/52 = 3/13$.

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Question: What is the probability it is a King, given that it is a Face card?

$$\mathbb{P}(A | B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\text{King})}{\mathbb{P}(\text{Face card})} = \frac{4/52}{12/52} = \frac{4}{12} = \frac{1}{3}$$

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This makes sense: Among the 12 face cards, 4 are Kings.

The Multiplication Rule

The definition of conditional probability can be rearranged to give a rule for finding the probability of the intersection of two events.

Multiplication Rule

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A | B) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B)$$

Or equivalently:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(B | A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A)$$

This is an extremely useful tool for solving complex probability problems.

Example: Multiplication Rule

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- Let B = second marble is blue. We want $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$.

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- $\mathbb{P}(B | A) = ?$ After removing one blue marble, there are 4 blue and 3 red left. So $\mathbb{P}(B | A) = 4/7$.

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Applying the multiplication rule:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Both Blue}) = \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(B | A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{4}{7} \cdot \frac{5}{8} = \frac{20}{56} = \frac{5}{14}$$

A Common Pitfall: Order Matters!

Conditional probability is not symmetric.

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Confusing these two is a very common and serious error!

Independent vs. Dependent Events

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Check: From the definition, if A and B are independent:

$$\mathbb{P}(A | B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \mathbb{P}(A)$$

Example: Independence

Scenario 1 (Dependent): Draw a card from a deck.

- A : The card is a king. ($\mathbb{P}(A) = 4/52$)
- B : The card is a heart. ($\mathbb{P}(B) = 13/52$)
- $A \cap B$: The card is the king of hearts. ($\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = 1/52$)
- $\mathbb{P}(A | B) = \frac{1/52}{13/52} = 1/13$

$$\neq \mathbb{P}(A) = 4/52$$

Not independent. Knowing it's a heart changes the chance it's a king.

Example: Independence

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- $A \cap B$: The card is the king of hearts. ($\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = 1/52$)
- $\mathbb{P}(A | B) = \frac{1/52}{13/52} = 1/13$ $\neq \mathbb{P}(A) = 4/52$

Not independent. Knowing it's a heart changes the chance it's a king. Scenario 2

(Independent): Roll a fair die twice.

- A : First roll is a 6. ($\mathbb{P}(A) = 1/6$)
- B : Second roll is a 6. ($\mathbb{P}(B) = 1/6$)
- $\mathbb{P}(A | B) = \mathbb{P}(A) = 1/6$. The second roll doesn't affect the first.

Conditional Probability with Tables

Scenario: Survey of 100 students on gender and preferred subject.

	Math	Art	Total
Male	20	25	45
Female	30	25	55
Total	50	50	100

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- **What is $\mathbb{P}(\text{Math})$?** $50/100 = 0.5$
- **What is $\mathbb{P}(\text{Math} \mid \text{Male})$?** Focus only on the Male row.

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(\text{Math} \cap \text{Male})}{\mathbb{P}(\text{Male})} = \frac{20/100}{45/100} = \frac{20}{45} \approx 0.444$$

Conditional Probability with Tables

Scenario: Survey of 100 students on gender and preferred subject.

	Math	Art	Total
Male	20	25	45
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Total	50	50	100

- **What is $\mathbb{P}(\text{Math})$?** $50/100 = 0.5$
- **What is $\mathbb{P}(\text{Math} \mid \text{Male})$?** Focus only on the Male row.

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(\text{Math} \cap \text{Male})}{\mathbb{P}(\text{Male})} = \frac{20/100}{45/100} = \frac{20}{45} \approx 0.444$$

- **What is $\mathbb{P}(\text{Female} \mid \text{Art})$?** Focus only on the Art column.

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(\text{Female} \cap \text{Art})}{\mathbb{P}(\text{Art})} = \frac{25/100}{50/100} = \frac{25}{50} = 0.5$$

Key Takeaways: Lecture 1

- Conditional probability $\mathbb{P}(A \mid B)$ quantifies the probability of A **given the information** that B has occurred.
- It is defined as $\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$.
- This is fundamentally different from $\mathbb{P}(B \mid A)$.
- The Multiplication Rule: $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A \mid B) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B)$.
- If $\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \mathbb{P}(A)$, then events A and B are **independent**.

Practice Problems: Lecture 1

1. From the student survey table, find $\mathbb{P}(\text{Art} \mid \text{Female})$.
2. You toss two fair coins. The first coin shows Heads. What is the probability that both are Heads?
3. A bag has 4 white and 2 black balls. Two draws are made without replacement. What is the probability the second ball is white, given the first ball was white?

Lecture 2: Bayes' Theorem and the Law of Total Probability

Lecture 2: Learning Objectives

By the end of this lecture, you will be able to:

- Understand and apply the **Law of Total Probability**.
- State and derive **Bayes' Theorem**.
- Use probability trees to visualize complex conditional scenarios.
- Apply Bayes' Theorem to simple problems to “invert” conditional probabilities.

The Need for a New Tool

Recall our medical testing example:

- We can often estimate $\mathbb{P}(\text{Test } + \mid \text{Disease})$ easily (test sensitivity).
- But a patient cares about $\mathbb{P}(\text{Disease} \mid \text{Test } +)$.

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**How do we reverse the condition?
Bayes' Theorem provides the answer.**

Prerequisite: Law of Total Probability

If events B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k form a **partition** of the sample space Ω (i.e., they are mutually exclusive and their union is Ω), then for any event A :

Law of Total Probability

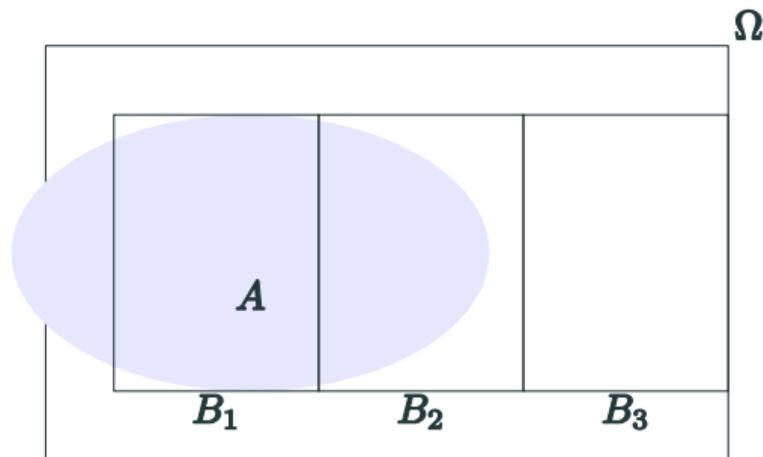
$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A \mid B_1)\mathbb{P}(B_1) + \mathbb{P}(A \mid B_2)\mathbb{P}(B_2) + \dots + \mathbb{P}(A \mid B_k)\mathbb{P}(B_k)$$

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$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A \cap B_1) + \mathbb{P}(A \cap B_2) + \mathbb{P}(A \cap B_3) = \mathbb{P}(A|B_1)\mathbb{P}(B_1) + \mathbb{P}(A|B_2)\mathbb{P}(B_2) + \mathbb{P}(A|B_3)\mathbb{P}(B_3)$$

Example: Law of Total Probability

Scenario: Two factories supply light bulbs. Factory X supplies 60% of the bulbs, Factory Y supplies 40%. The defect rate is 2% for X and 4% for Y.

Question: What is the probability a randomly purchased bulb from this company is defective?

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- Let D = bulb is defective.
- B_X = bulb from Factory X. $\mathbb{P}(B_X) = 0.6$, $\mathbb{P}(D \mid B_X) = 0.02$
- B_Y = bulb from Factory Y. $\mathbb{P}(B_Y) = 0.4$, $\mathbb{P}(D \mid B_Y) = 0.04$

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Applying the Law of Total Probability:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(D) &= \mathbb{P}(D | B_X)\mathbb{P}(B_X) + \mathbb{P}(D | B_Y)\mathbb{P}(B_Y) \\ &= (0.02)(0.6) + (0.04)(0.4) \\ &= 0.012 + 0.016 = 0.028\end{aligned}$$

Deriving Bayes' Theorem

We start with the definition of conditional probability, twice:

$$1. \mathbb{P}(A | B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$$

$$2. \mathbb{P}(B | A) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(A)}$$

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From (2), we can write: $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(B | A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A)$

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From (2), we can write: $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(B | A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A)$ Substitute this into (1):

$$\mathbb{P}(A | B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B | A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$$

This is the simplest form of **Bayes' Theorem!** It allows us to “invert” the conditional probability.

The Full Bayes' Theorem

Often, we use the Law of Total Probability to expand the denominator $\mathbb{P}(B)$.

Bayes' Theorem

If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k form a partition of the sample space, then for any event B :

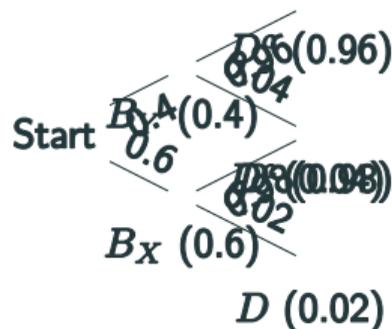
$$\mathbb{P}(A_i | B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B | A_i) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A_i)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B | A_i) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^k \mathbb{P}(B | A_j) \mathbb{P}(A_j)}$$

Numerator: Our prior belief about A_i updated by the likelihood of B given A_i .

Denominator: The total probability of observing B (a normalizing constant).

Visualizing with a Probability Tree

Bulb Factory Example: Let's find $\mathbb{P}(\text{Bulb is from } X \mid \text{it is Defective})$.



Follow the paths:

- $\mathbb{P}(D \cap B_X) = 0.6 \times 0.02 = 0.012$
- $\mathbb{P}(D \cap B_Y) = 0.4 \times 0.04 = 0.016$
- $\mathbb{P}(D) = 0.012 + 0.016 = 0.028$ (Law of Total Prob.)

Applying Bayes' Theorem to the Bulb Problem

We want $\mathbb{P}(B_X | D)$.

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$$\mathbb{P}(B_X | D) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(D | B_X) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B_X)}{\mathbb{P}(D)} = \frac{(0.02)(0.6)}{0.028} = \frac{0.012}{0.028} \approx 0.4286$$

Applying Bayes' Theorem to the Bulb Problem

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Interpretation: Even though Factory X has a lower defect rate, it supplies more bulbs.

Therefore, given a defective bulb, there's still a 43% chance it came from the *better* factory X. This often feels counterintuitive.

The Famous Medical Test Example

Scenario:

- Prevalence of a disease: $\mathbb{P}(D) = 0.01$ (1% of population has it).
- Test Sensitivity: $\mathbb{P}(T+ | D) = 0.99$ (99% accurate if you have it).
- Test Specificity: $\mathbb{P}(T- | D^c) = 0.95$ (95% accurate if you don't have it).

Question: What is $\mathbb{P}(D | T+)$? The probability you actually have the disease given a positive test result.

Solving the Medical Test Problem

Define the events:

- D : Has disease.
- D^c : Does not have disease.
- $T+$: Test positive.
- $T-$: Test negative.

$$\mathbb{P}(D) = 0.01$$

$$\mathbb{P}(D^c) = 0.99$$

We know:

- $\mathbb{P}(T+ | D) = 0.99$ (Sensitivity)
- $\mathbb{P}(T- | D^c) = 0.95$, so $\mathbb{P}(T+ | D^c) = 1 - 0.95 = 0.05$ (False Positive Rate)

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We want $\mathbb{P}(D | T+)$. Apply Bayes' Theorem:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(D | T+) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(T+ | D) \cdot \mathbb{P}(D)}{\mathbb{P}(T+)} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(T+ | D) \cdot \mathbb{P}(D)}{\mathbb{P}(T+ | D)\mathbb{P}(D) + \mathbb{P}(T+ | D^c)\mathbb{P}(D^c)} \\ &= \frac{(0.99)(0.01)}{(0.99)(0.01) + (0.05)(0.99)} \\ &= \frac{0.0099}{0.0099 + 0.0495} = \frac{0.0099}{0.0594} \approx 0.1667\end{aligned}$$

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- $\mathbb{P}(T+ | D) = 0.99$ (Sensitivity)
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Solving the Medical Test Problem

Define the events:

- D : Has disease.
- D^c : Does not have disease.
- $T+$: Test positive.
- $T-$: Test negative.

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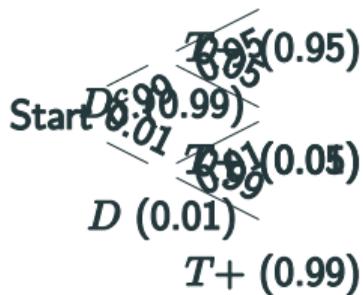
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Tree Diagram for Medical Test



- $\mathbb{P}(T+ \cap D) = 0.01 \times 0.99 = 0.0099$
- $\mathbb{P}(T+ \cap D^c) = 0.99 \times 0.05 = 0.0495$
- $\mathbb{P}(T+) = 0.0099 + 0.0495 = 0.0594$
- $\mathbb{P}(D | T+) = \frac{0.0099}{0.0594} \approx 0.167$

Interpreting the Result

$$\mathbb{P}(D | T+) \approx 16.7\%$$

- This seems shockingly low for a “99% accurate” test.
- The intuition comes from the **base rate** (prior probability) of the disease.
- The number of false positives (healthy people testing positive) is large because the disease is rare.
- The test is much better at **ruling in** the disease if the prevalence is higher.

This is the core lesson of Bayes' Theorem: **Prior beliefs matter!**

Key Takeaways: Lecture 2

- The **Law of Total Probability** breaks down $\mathbb{P}(A)$ based on a partition of the sample space.
- **Bayes' Theorem** allows us to invert conditional probabilities:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Hypothesis} \mid \text{Evidence}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\text{Evidence} \mid \text{Hypothesis}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\text{Hypothesis})}{\mathbb{P}(\text{Evidence})}$$

- **Probability trees** are an excellent tool for visualizing these problems.
- The **prior probability** $\mathbb{P}(\text{Hypothesis})$ has a huge impact on the result. Ignoring it leads to serious errors.

Practice Problems: Lecture 2

1. Using the medical test data, find $\mathbb{P}(D^c \mid T-)$ (the probability you are truly healthy given a negative test). This is called the **Negative Predictive Value**.
2. There are three warehouses. Warehouse 1 has 100 items, 10 defective. Warehouse 2 has 50 items, 5 defective. Warehouse 3 has 200 items, 10 defective. An item is chosen at random from the combined stock and is found to be defective. What is the probability it came from Warehouse 3?

Lecture 3: Advanced Applications and Interpretations

Lecture 3: Learning Objectives

By the end of this lecture, you will be able to:

- Apply Bayes' Theorem to problems with more than two partitions.
- Understand the Bayesian interpretation of probability as a **degree of belief**.
- Perform **Bayesian updating** with multiple pieces of evidence.
- Recognize applications of Bayes' Theorem in machine learning (Naive Bayes classifier), statistics, and everyday reasoning.

Recap: The Bayesian Framework

Bayes' Theorem provides a formal mechanism for updating beliefs in light of new evidence.

Terminology

- **Prior Probability** $\mathbb{P}(H)$: Initial degree of belief in hypothesis H *before* seeing evidence E .
- **Likelihood** $\mathbb{P}(E | H)$: How likely the evidence E is, assuming H is true.
- **Marginal Likelihood** $\mathbb{P}(E)$: The total probability of the evidence (across all hypotheses).
- **Posterior Probability** $\mathbb{P}(H | E)$: Revised degree of belief in H *after* seeing evidence E .

$$\underbrace{\mathbb{P}(H | E)}_{\text{Posterior}} = \frac{\overbrace{\mathbb{P}(E | H)}^{\text{Likelihood}} \cdot \overbrace{\mathbb{P}(H)}^{\text{Prior}}}{\underbrace{\mathbb{P}(E)}_{\text{Marginal Likelihood}}}$$

Example 1: The Three Prisoners Problem

Scenario: Three prisoners (A, B, C) are on death row. The governor randomly picks one to pardon. The warden knows who is pardoned but cannot say.

- Prisoner A asks the warden: “Which one of B or C will be executed?” (He knows at least one will be.)
- The warden says: “Prisoner B will be executed.”

Question: What is the probability that Prisoner A is pardoned, *given* this new information?

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Question: What is the probability that Prisoner A is pardoned, *given* this new information?

Intuition: It seems like it should be $1/2$ (between A and C). Let's use Bayes' Theorem.

Solving the Three Prisoners Problem

Let P_A, P_B, P_C be the events that A, B, or C is pardoned. $\mathbb{P}(P_A) = \mathbb{P}(P_B) = \mathbb{P}(P_C) = 1/3$.

Let W_B be the event that the warden says "B will be executed".

We need to model the warden's behavior. If A is pardoned, the warden can freely say B or C. Assume he picks randomly. If B is pardoned, he must say C is executed. If C is pardoned, he must say B is executed.

$$\mathbb{P}(W_B | P_A) = 1/2 \quad (\text{Random choice})$$

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Prisoner A's chance of being pardoned is still 1/3! The probability for C is now 2/3.

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What if we get more than one piece of evidence?

We can apply Bayes' Theorem iteratively.

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This process is computationally efficient and mirrors how we learn in real life.

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- A “Naive” assumption is that words are independent given the class, simplifying the likelihood: $\mathbb{P}(\text{“money”} \mid S, \text{“free”}) \approx \mathbb{P}(\text{“money”} \mid S)$.

Bayesian vs. Frequentist Interpretation

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Example: The probability it will rain tomorrow.

- A frequentist might have trouble with this (tomorrow only happens once).
- A Bayesian has no problem: they assign a prior belief based on weather models and historical data, and update it as new forecast models come in.

Traditional (Frequentist)

- Population parameter (e.g., mean μ) is a fixed, unknown constant.
- Confidence intervals are interpreted as:
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Application: Bayesian Inference in Statistics

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Bayesian

- Population parameter μ is itself a random variable with a **prior distribution** (e.g., μ could be anywhere between 0 and 100).
- We collect data and use Bayes' Theorem to find the **posterior distribution** of μ .
- We can then say: “Given the data, there is a 95% probability μ lies between X and Y.” (This is called a **Credible Interval**).

Bayesian statistics is powerful but requires choosing a prior, which can be subjective.

Cognitive Biases and Bayes' Theorem

Humans are often bad at intuitive conditional reasoning. Bayes' Theorem helps explain why.

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Key Takeaways: Lecture 3

- Bayes' Theorem is a formal rule for **updating beliefs** with new evidence.
- The **prior** has a significant impact on the **posterior**.
- We can update beliefs **sequentially** with multiple pieces of evidence.
- It has wide applications: from spam filters and machine learning to medical diagnosis and judicial reasoning.
- It explains common **cognitive biases** like base rate neglect.
- It represents a different, **subjective interpretation** of probability compared to the frequentist view.

**Bayes' Theorem is more than just a formula;
it is a framework for rational thinking
in an uncertain world.**