

Careful consideration of this example will make the difference between the conditional and frequentist viewpoints clear. The overall performance of δ , in any type of repeated use, would indeed be 75%, but this arises because half the time the *actual* performance will be 100% and half the time the *actual* performance will be 50%. And, for any given application, one *knows* whether one is in the 100% or 50% case. It clearly would make little sense to conduct an experiment, use $\delta(x)$, and actually report 75% as the measure of accuracy, yet the frequentist viewpoint suggests doing so. Here is another standard example.

EXAMPLE 13. Suppose X is 1, 2, or 3 and θ is 0 or 1, with X having the following probability density in each case:

	x		
	1	2	3
$f(x 0)$	0.005	0.005	0.99
$f(x 1)$	0.0051	0.9849	0.01

The classical most powerful test of $H_0: \theta = 0$ versus $H_1: \theta = 1$, at level $\alpha = 0.01$, concludes H_1 when $X = 1$ or 2, and this test also has a Type II error probability of 0.01. Hence, a standard frequentist, upon observing $x = 1$, would report that the decision is H_1 and that the test had error probabilities of 0.01. This certainly *gives the impression* that one can place a great deal of confidence in the conclusion, but is this the case? Conditional reasoning shows that the answer is sometimes no! When $x = 1$ is observed, the likelihood ratio between $\theta = 0$ and $\theta = 1$ is $(0.005)/(0.0051)$ which is very close to one. To a conditionalist (and to most other statisticians also), a likelihood ratio near one means that the data does very little to distinguish between $\theta = 0$ and $\theta = 1$. Hence the conditional "confidence" in the decision to conclude H_1 , when $x = 1$ is observed, would be only about 50%. (Of course $x = 1$ is unlikely to occur, but, when it does, should not a sensible answer be given?)

The next example is included for historical reasons, and also because it turns out to be a key example for development of the important Likelihood Principle in the next subsection. This example is a variant of the famous Cox (1958) conditioning example.

EXAMPLE 14. Suppose a substance to be analyzed can be sent either to a laboratory in New York or a laboratory in California. The two labs seem equally good, so a fair coin is flipped to choose between them, with "heads" denoting that the lab in New York will be chosen. The coin is flipped and