### 18.600: Lecture 17

## Continuous random variables

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## Outline

Continuous random variables

Expectation and variance of continuous random variables

Uniform random variable on $[0,1]$

Uniform random variable on $[\alpha, \beta]$

Measurable sets and a famous paradox

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- Say $X$ is a continuous random variable if there exists a probability density function $f=f_{X}$ on $\mathbb{R}$ such that $P\{X \in B\}=\int_{B} f(x) d x:=\int 1_{B}(x) f(x) d x$.


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- Probability of interval $[a, b]$ is given by $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x$, the area under $f$ between $a$ and $b$.
- Probability of any single point is zero.
- Define cumulative distribution function

$$
F(a)=F_{X}(a):=P\{X<a\}=P\{X \leq a\}=\int_{-\infty}^{a} f(x) d x
$$

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- We say that $X$ is uniformly distributed on [0, 2].


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- This formula is often useful for calculations.


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- $\operatorname{Var} E\left[X^{2}\right]-E[X]^{2}=1 / 3-1 / 4=1 / 12$.


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- What's the cleanest way to prove this?


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- Answer: $\operatorname{Var}[X]=\operatorname{Var}[(\beta-\alpha) Y+\alpha]=\operatorname{Var}[(\beta-\alpha) Y]=$ $(\beta-\alpha)^{2} \operatorname{Var}[Y]=(\beta-\alpha)^{2} / 12$.


## Outline

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Expectation and variance of continuous random variables

Uniform random variable on $[0,1]$

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- How do we mathematically define the volume of an arbitrary set $B$ ?


## Idea behind parodox

- Hypothetical: Consider the interval $[0,1)$ with the two endpoints glued together (so it looks like a circle). What if we could partition $[0,1)$ into a countably infinite collection of disjoint sets that all looked the same (up to a rotation of the circle) and thus had to have the same probability?


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- Related problem: if (in a non-atomic world, where mass was infinitely divisible) you could cut a cake into countably infinitely many pieces all of the same weight, how much would each piece weigh?
- Question: Is it really possible to partition $[0,1)$ into countably many identical (up to rotation) pieces?


## Cutting things into identical slices: a warmup problem

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- Now observe that every number in $\{0,1,2, \ldots, 99\}$ lies in exactly one of the ten $S_{j}$ sets we have defined.
- On next slide, we're going to do something similar with $[0,1)$ in place of $\{0,1,2, \ldots, 99\}$ and the rational numbers in $[0,1)$ in place of $\{0,10,20, \ldots, 90\}$.


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- Thus $[0,1)=\cup \tau_{r}(A)$ as $r$ ranges over rationals in $[0,1)$.
- If $P(A)=0$, then $P(S)=\sum_{r} P\left(\tau_{r}(A)\right)=0$. If $P(A)>0$ then $P(S)=\sum_{r} P\left(\tau_{r}(A)\right)=\infty$. Contradicts $P(S)=1$ axiom.


## Three ways to get around this

- 1. Re-examine axioms of mathematics: the very existence of a set $A$ with one element from each equivalence class is consequence of so-called axiom of choice. Removing that axiom makes paradox goes away, since one can just suppose (pretend?) these kinds of sets don't exist.


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- Most mainstream probability and analysis takes the third approach.
- In practice, sets we care about (e.g., countable unions of points and intervals) tend to be measurable.


## Perspective

- More advanced courses in probability and analysis (such as 18.125 and 18.175 ) spend a significant amount of time rigorously constructing a class of so-called measurable sets and the so-called Lebesgue measure, which assigns a real number (a measure) to each of these sets.


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- Riemann integration is a mathematically rigorous theory. It's just not as robust as Lebesgue integration.

