

# 18.440: Lecture 17

## Continuous random variables

Scott Sheffield

MIT

# Outline

# Outline

- ▶ Say  $X$  is a **continuous random variable** if there exists a **probability density function**  $f = f_X$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that
$$P\{X \in B\} = \int_B f(x)dx := \int 1_B(x)f(x)dx.$$

- ▶ Say  $X$  is a **continuous random variable** if there exists a **probability density function**  $f = f_X$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $P\{X \in B\} = \int_B f(x)dx := \int 1_B(x)f(x)dx$ .
- ▶ We may assume  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$  and  $f$  is non-negative.

# Continuous random variables

- ▶ Say  $X$  is a **continuous random variable** if there exists a **probability density function**  $f = f_X$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $P\{X \in B\} = \int_B f(x)dx := \int 1_B(x)f(x)dx$ .
- ▶ We may assume  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$  and  $f$  is non-negative.
- ▶ Probability of interval  $[a, b]$  is given by  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ , the area under  $f$  between  $a$  and  $b$ .

# Continuous random variables

- ▶ Say  $X$  is a **continuous random variable** if there exists a **probability density function**  $f = f_X$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $P\{X \in B\} = \int_B f(x)dx := \int 1_B(x)f(x)dx$ .
- ▶ We may assume  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$  and  $f$  is non-negative.
- ▶ Probability of interval  $[a, b]$  is given by  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ , the area under  $f$  between  $a$  and  $b$ .
- ▶ Probability of any single point is zero.

# Continuous random variables

- ▶ Say  $X$  is a **continuous random variable** if there exists a **probability density function**  $f = f_X$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $P\{X \in B\} = \int_B f(x)dx := \int 1_B(x)f(x)dx$ .
- ▶ We may assume  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$  and  $f$  is non-negative.
- ▶ Probability of interval  $[a, b]$  is given by  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ , the area under  $f$  between  $a$  and  $b$ .
- ▶ Probability of any single point is zero.
- ▶ Define **cumulative distribution function**  
 $F(a) = F_X(a) := P\{X < a\} = P\{X \leq a\} = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x)dx$ .



## Simple example

► Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$

## Simple example

- ▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $P\{X < 3/2\}$ ?

## Simple example

- ▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $P\{X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X = 3/2\}$ ?

## Simple example

- ▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $P\{X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X = 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{1/2 < X < 3/2\}$ ?

## Simple example

- ▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $P\{X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X = 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{1/2 < X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X \in (0, 1) \cup (3/2, 5)\}$ ?

## Simple example

- ▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $P\{X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X = 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{1/2 < X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X \in (0, 1) \cup (3/2, 5)\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $F$ ?

## Simple example

- ▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $P\{X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X = 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{1/2 < X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X \in (0, 1) \cup (3/2, 5)\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $F$ ?
- ▶ We say that  $X$  is **uniformly distributed on the interval**  $[0, 2]$ .

## Another example

▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & 0 \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$



## Another example

- ▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & 0 \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $P\{X < 3/2\}$ ?

## Another example

- ▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & 0 \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $P\{X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X = 3/2\}$ ?

## Another example

- ▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & 0 \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $P\{X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X = 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{1/2 < X < 3/2\}$ ?

## Another example

- ▶ Suppose  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & 0 \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $P\{X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{X = 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $P\{1/2 < X < 3/2\}$ ?
- ▶ What is  $F$ ?

# Outline

# Outline

# Expectations of continuous random variables

- ▶ Recall that when  $X$  was a discrete random variable, with  $p(x) = P\{X = x\}$ , we wrote

$$E[X] = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} p(x)x.$$

# Expectations of continuous random variables

- ▶ Recall that when  $X$  was a discrete random variable, with  $p(x) = P\{X = x\}$ , we wrote

$$E[X] = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} p(x)x.$$

- ▶ How should we define  $E[X]$  when  $X$  is a continuous random variable?



# Expectations of continuous random variables

- ▶ Recall that when  $X$  was a discrete random variable, with  $p(x) = P\{X = x\}$ , we wrote

$$E[X] = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} p(x)x.$$

- ▶ How should we define  $E[X]$  when  $X$  is a continuous random variable?
- ▶ Answer:  $E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)x dx.$

# Expectations of continuous random variables

- ▶ Recall that when  $X$  was a discrete random variable, with  $p(x) = P\{X = x\}$ , we wrote

$$E[X] = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} p(x)x.$$

- ▶ How should we define  $E[X]$  when  $X$  is a continuous random variable?
- ▶ Answer:  $E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)x dx$ .
- ▶ Recall that when  $X$  was a discrete random variable, with  $p(x) = P\{X = x\}$ , we wrote

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} p(x)g(x).$$

# Expectations of continuous random variables

- ▶ Recall that when  $X$  was a discrete random variable, with  $p(x) = P\{X = x\}$ , we wrote

$$E[X] = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} p(x)x.$$

- ▶ How should we define  $E[X]$  when  $X$  is a continuous random variable?
- ▶ Answer:  $E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)x dx$ .
- ▶ Recall that when  $X$  was a discrete random variable, with  $p(x) = P\{X = x\}$ , we wrote

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} p(x)g(x).$$

- ▶ What is the analog when  $X$  is a continuous random variable?

# Expectations of continuous random variables

- ▶ Recall that when  $X$  was a discrete random variable, with  $p(x) = P\{X = x\}$ , we wrote

$$E[X] = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} p(x)x.$$

- ▶ How should we define  $E[X]$  when  $X$  is a continuous random variable?
- ▶ Answer:  $E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)x dx$ .
- ▶ Recall that when  $X$  was a discrete random variable, with  $p(x) = P\{X = x\}$ , we wrote

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} p(x)g(x).$$

- ▶ What is the analog when  $X$  is a continuous random variable?
- ▶ Answer: we will write  $E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g(x) dx$ .

# Variance of continuous random variables

- ▶ Suppose  $X$  is a continuous random variable with mean  $\mu$ .

# Variance of continuous random variables

- ▶ Suppose  $X$  is a continuous random variable with mean  $\mu$ .
- ▶ We can write  $\text{Var}[X] = E[(X - \mu)^2]$ , same as in the discrete case.

# Variance of continuous random variables

- ▶ Suppose  $X$  is a continuous random variable with mean  $\mu$ .
- ▶ We can write  $\text{Var}[X] = E[(X - \mu)^2]$ , same as in the discrete case.

- ▶ Next, if  $g = g_1 + g_2$  then

$$\begin{aligned} E[g(X)] &= \int g_1(x)f(x)dx + \int g_2(x)f(x)dx = \\ &= \int (g_1(x) + g_2(x))f(x)dx = E[g_1(X)] + E[g_2(X)]. \end{aligned}$$

# Variance of continuous random variables

- ▶ Suppose  $X$  is a continuous random variable with mean  $\mu$ .
- ▶ We can write  $\text{Var}[X] = E[(X - \mu)^2]$ , same as in the discrete case.
- ▶ Next, if  $g = g_1 + g_2$  then
$$E[g(X)] = \int g_1(x)f(x)dx + \int g_2(x)f(x)dx = \int (g_1(x) + g_2(x))f(x)dx = E[g_1(X)] + E[g_2(X)].$$
- ▶ Furthermore,  $E[ag(X)] = aE[g(X)]$  when  $a$  is a constant.



# Variance of continuous random variables

- ▶ Suppose  $X$  is a continuous random variable with mean  $\mu$ .
- ▶ We can write  $\text{Var}[X] = E[(X - \mu)^2]$ , same as in the discrete case.
- ▶ Next, if  $g = g_1 + g_2$  then
$$E[g(X)] = \int g_1(x)f(x)dx + \int g_2(x)f(x)dx = \int (g_1(x) + g_2(x))f(x)dx = E[g_1(X)] + E[g_2(X)].$$
- ▶ Furthermore,  $E[ag(X)] = aE[g(X)]$  when  $a$  is a constant.
- ▶ Just as in the discrete case, we can expand the variance expression as  $\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2 - 2\mu X + \mu^2]$  and use additivity of expectation to say that
$$\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2] - 2\mu E[X] + E[\mu^2] = E[X^2] - 2\mu^2 + \mu^2 = E[X^2] - E[X]^2.$$

# Variance of continuous random variables

- ▶ Suppose  $X$  is a continuous random variable with mean  $\mu$ .
- ▶ We can write  $\text{Var}[X] = E[(X - \mu)^2]$ , same as in the discrete case.
- ▶ Next, if  $g = g_1 + g_2$  then
$$E[g(X)] = \int g_1(x)f(x)dx + \int g_2(x)f(x)dx = \int (g_1(x) + g_2(x))f(x)dx = E[g_1(X)] + E[g_2(X)].$$
- ▶ Furthermore,  $E[ag(X)] = aE[g(X)]$  when  $a$  is a constant.
- ▶ Just as in the discrete case, we can expand the variance expression as  $\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2 - 2\mu X + \mu^2]$  and use additivity of expectation to say that
$$\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2] - 2\mu E[X] + E[\mu^2] = E[X^2] - 2\mu^2 + \mu^2 = E[X^2] - E[X]^2.$$
- ▶ This formula is often useful for calculations.

# Examples

- ▶ Suppose that  $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$

# Examples

- ▶ Suppose that  $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$
- ▶ What is  $\text{Var}[X]$ ?

# Examples

▶ Suppose that  $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$

▶ What is  $\text{Var}[X]$ ?

▶ Suppose instead that  $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} x/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$

# Examples

▶ Suppose that  $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$

▶ What is  $\text{Var}[X]$ ?

▶ Suppose instead that  $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} x/2 & x \in [0, 2] \\ 0 & x \notin [0, 2]. \end{cases}$

▶ What is  $\text{Var}[X]$ ?

# Outline

# Outline



- ▶ One of the very simplest probability density functions is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & 0 \notin [0, 1]. \end{cases}$$

# Uniform measure on $[0, 1]$

- ▶ One of the very simplest probability density functions is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & 0 \notin [0, 1]. \end{cases}$$

- ▶ If  $B \subset [0, 1]$  is an interval, then  $P\{X \in B\}$  is the length of that interval.

## Uniform measure on $[0, 1]$

- ▶ One of the very simplest probability density functions is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & 0 \notin [0, 1]. \end{cases}$$

- ▶ If  $B \subset [0, 1]$  is an interval, then  $P\{X \in B\}$  is the length of that interval.
- ▶ Generally, if  $B \subset [0, 1]$  then  $P\{X \in B\} = \int_B 1 dx = \int 1_B(x) dx$  is the “total volume” or “total length” of the set  $B$ .

## Uniform measure on $[0, 1]$

- ▶ One of the very simplest probability density functions is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & 0 \notin [0, 1]. \end{cases}$$

- ▶ If  $B \subset [0, 1]$  is an interval, then  $P\{X \in B\}$  is the length of that interval.
- ▶ Generally, if  $B \subset [0, 1]$  then  $P\{X \in B\} = \int_B 1 dx = \int 1_B(x) dx$  is the “total volume” or “total length” of the set  $B$ .
- ▶ What if  $B$  is the set of all rational numbers?

# Uniform measure on $[0, 1]$

- ▶ One of the very simplest probability density functions is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & 0 \notin [0, 1]. \end{cases}$$

- ▶ If  $B \subset [0, 1]$  is an interval, then  $P\{X \in B\}$  is the length of that interval.
- ▶ Generally, if  $B \subset [0, 1]$  then  $P\{X \in B\} = \int_B 1 dx = \int 1_B(x) dx$  is the “total volume” or “total length” of the set  $B$ .
- ▶ What if  $B$  is the set of all rational numbers?
- ▶ How do we mathematically define the volume of an arbitrary set  $B$ ?

## Do all sets have probabilities? A famous paradox:

- ▶ Uniform probability measure on  $[0, 1)$  should satisfy **translation invariance**: If  $B$  and a horizontal translation of  $B$  are both subsets  $[0, 1)$ , their probabilities should be equal.

## Do all sets have probabilities? A famous paradox:

- ▶ Uniform probability measure on  $[0, 1)$  should satisfy **translation invariance**: If  $B$  and a horizontal translation of  $B$  are both subsets  $[0, 1)$ , their probabilities should be equal.
- ▶ Consider **wrap-around translations**  $\tau_r(x) = (x + r) \bmod 1$ .

## Do all sets have probabilities? A famous paradox:

- ▶ Uniform probability measure on  $[0, 1)$  should satisfy **translation invariance**: If  $B$  and a horizontal translation of  $B$  are both subsets  $[0, 1)$ , their probabilities should be equal.
- ▶ Consider **wrap-around translations**  $\tau_r(x) = (x + r) \bmod 1$ .
- ▶ By translation invariance,  $\tau_r(B)$  has same probability as  $B$ .



## Do all sets have probabilities? A famous paradox:

- ▶ Uniform probability measure on  $[0, 1)$  should satisfy **translation invariance**: If  $B$  and a horizontal translation of  $B$  are both subsets  $[0, 1)$ , their probabilities should be equal.
- ▶ Consider **wrap-around translations**  $\tau_r(x) = (x + r) \bmod 1$ .
- ▶ By translation invariance,  $\tau_r(B)$  has same probability as  $B$ .
- ▶ Call  $x, y$  “equivalent modulo rationals” if  $x - y$  is rational (e.g.,  $x = \pi - 3$  and  $y = \pi - 9/4$ ). An **equivalence class** is the set of points in  $[0, 1)$  equivalent to some given point.

## Do all sets have probabilities? A famous paradox:

- ▶ Uniform probability measure on  $[0, 1)$  should satisfy **translation invariance**: If  $B$  and a horizontal translation of  $B$  are both subsets  $[0, 1)$ , their probabilities should be equal.
- ▶ Consider **wrap-around translations**  $\tau_r(x) = (x + r) \bmod 1$ .
- ▶ By translation invariance,  $\tau_r(B)$  has same probability as  $B$ .
- ▶ Call  $x, y$  “equivalent modulo rationals” if  $x - y$  is rational (e.g.,  $x = \pi - 3$  and  $y = \pi - 9/4$ ). An **equivalence class** is the set of points in  $[0, 1)$  equivalent to some given point.
- ▶ There are uncountably many of these classes.

## Do all sets have probabilities? A famous paradox:

- ▶ Uniform probability measure on  $[0, 1)$  should satisfy **translation invariance**: If  $B$  and a horizontal translation of  $B$  are both subsets  $[0, 1)$ , their probabilities should be equal.
- ▶ Consider **wrap-around translations**  $\tau_r(x) = (x + r) \bmod 1$ .
- ▶ By translation invariance,  $\tau_r(B)$  has same probability as  $B$ .
- ▶ Call  $x, y$  “equivalent modulo rationals” if  $x - y$  is rational (e.g.,  $x = \pi - 3$  and  $y = \pi - 9/4$ ). An **equivalence class** is the set of points in  $[0, 1)$  equivalent to some given point.
- ▶ There are uncountably many of these classes.
- ▶ Let  $A \subset [0, 1)$  contain **one** point from each class. For each  $x \in [0, 1)$ , there is **one**  $a \in A$  such that  $r = x - a$  is rational.

## Do all sets have probabilities? A famous paradox:

- ▶ Uniform probability measure on  $[0, 1)$  should satisfy **translation invariance**: If  $B$  and a horizontal translation of  $B$  are both subsets  $[0, 1)$ , their probabilities should be equal.
- ▶ Consider **wrap-around translations**  $\tau_r(x) = (x + r) \bmod 1$ .
- ▶ By translation invariance,  $\tau_r(B)$  has same probability as  $B$ .
- ▶ Call  $x, y$  “equivalent modulo rationals” if  $x - y$  is rational (e.g.,  $x = \pi - 3$  and  $y = \pi - 9/4$ ). An **equivalence class** is the set of points in  $[0, 1)$  equivalent to some given point.
- ▶ There are uncountably many of these classes.
- ▶ Let  $A \subset [0, 1)$  contain **one** point from each class. For each  $x \in [0, 1)$ , there is **one**  $a \in A$  such that  $r = x - a$  is rational.
- ▶ Then each  $x$  in  $[0, 1)$  lies in  $\tau_r(A)$  for **one** rational  $r \in [0, 1)$ .

## Do all sets have probabilities? A famous paradox:

- ▶ Uniform probability measure on  $[0, 1)$  should satisfy **translation invariance**: If  $B$  and a horizontal translation of  $B$  are both subsets  $[0, 1)$ , their probabilities should be equal.
- ▶ Consider **wrap-around translations**  $\tau_r(x) = (x + r) \bmod 1$ .
- ▶ By translation invariance,  $\tau_r(B)$  has same probability as  $B$ .
- ▶ Call  $x, y$  “equivalent modulo rationals” if  $x - y$  is rational (e.g.,  $x = \pi - 3$  and  $y = \pi - 9/4$ ). An **equivalence class** is the set of points in  $[0, 1)$  equivalent to some given point.
- ▶ There are uncountably many of these classes.
- ▶ Let  $A \subset [0, 1)$  contain **one** point from each class. For each  $x \in [0, 1)$ , there is **one**  $a \in A$  such that  $r = x - a$  is rational.
- ▶ Then each  $x$  in  $[0, 1)$  lies in  $\tau_r(A)$  for **one** rational  $r \in [0, 1)$ .
- ▶ Thus  $[0, 1) = \cup \tau_r(A)$  as  $r$  ranges over rationals in  $[0, 1)$ .

## Do all sets have probabilities? A famous paradox:

- ▶ Uniform probability measure on  $[0, 1)$  should satisfy **translation invariance**: If  $B$  and a horizontal translation of  $B$  are both subsets  $[0, 1)$ , their probabilities should be equal.
- ▶ Consider **wrap-around translations**  $\tau_r(x) = (x + r) \bmod 1$ .
- ▶ By translation invariance,  $\tau_r(B)$  has same probability as  $B$ .
- ▶ Call  $x, y$  “equivalent modulo rationals” if  $x - y$  is rational (e.g.,  $x = \pi - 3$  and  $y = \pi - 9/4$ ). An **equivalence class** is the set of points in  $[0, 1)$  equivalent to some given point.
- ▶ There are uncountably many of these classes.
- ▶ Let  $A \subset [0, 1)$  contain **one** point from each class. For each  $x \in [0, 1)$ , there is **one**  $a \in A$  such that  $r = x - a$  is rational.
- ▶ Then each  $x$  in  $[0, 1)$  lies in  $\tau_r(A)$  for **one** rational  $r \in [0, 1)$ .
- ▶ Thus  $[0, 1) = \cup \tau_r(A)$  as  $r$  ranges over rationals in  $[0, 1)$ .
- ▶ If  $P(A) = 0$ , then  $P(S) = \sum_r P(\tau_r(A)) = 0$ . If  $P(A) > 0$  then  $P(S) = \sum_r P(\tau_r(A)) = \infty$ . 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.

# 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.
- ▶ 2. **Re-examine axioms of probability:** Replace *countable additivity* with *finite additivity*? (Look up Banach-Tarski.)



# 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 go away, since one can just suppose (pretend?) these kinds of sets don't exist.
- ▶ 2. **Re-examine axioms of probability:** Replace *countable additivity* with *finite additivity*? (Look up Banach-Tarski.)
- ▶ 3. **Keep the axiom of choice and countable additivity but don't define probabilities of all sets:** Instead of defining  $P(B)$  for every subset  $B$  of sample space, restrict attention to a family of so-called “**measurable**” sets.

# 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.
- ▶ 2. **Re-examine axioms of probability:** Replace *countable additivity* with *finite additivity*? (Look up Banach-Tarski.)
- ▶ 3. **Keep the axiom of choice and countable additivity but don't define probabilities of all sets:** Instead of defining  $P(B)$  for *every* subset  $B$  of sample space, restrict attention to a family of so-called “**measurable**” sets.
- ▶ Most mainstream probability and analysis takes the third approach.

# 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.
- ▶ 2. **Re-examine axioms of probability:** Replace *countable additivity* with *finite additivity*? (Look up Banach-Tarski.)
- ▶ 3. **Keep the axiom of choice and countable additivity but don't define probabilities of all sets:** Instead of defining  $P(B)$  for *every* subset  $B$  of sample space, restrict attention to a family of so-called “**measurable**” sets.
- ▶ 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.

- ▶ 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.

- ▶ 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.
- ▶ These courses also replace the **Riemann integral** with the so-called **Lebesgue integral**.

- ▶ 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.
- ▶ These courses also replace the **Riemann integral** with the so-called **Lebesgue integral**.
- ▶ We will not treat these topics any further in this course.

- ▶ 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.
- ▶ These courses also replace the **Riemann integral** with the so-called **Lebesgue integral**.
- ▶ We will not treat these topics any further in this course.
- ▶ We usually limit our attention to probability density functions  $f$  and sets  $B$  for which the ordinary Riemann integral  $\int 1_B(x)f(x)dx$  is well defined.

- ▶ 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.
- ▶ These courses also replace the **Riemann integral** with the so-called **Lebesgue integral**.
- ▶ We will not treat these topics any further in this course.
- ▶ We usually limit our attention to probability density functions  $f$  and sets  $B$  for which the ordinary Riemann integral  $\int 1_B(x)f(x)dx$  is well defined.
- ▶ Riemann integration is a mathematically rigorous theory. It's just not as robust as Lebesgue integration.