Bayes' rule is straightforward to derive from the definition of conditional probability, but it is useful to know the name of this formula since many texts refer to it by name. It is named after the Reverend Thomas Bayes, who first discovered a special case of the formula. The general version presented here was independently discovered by Pierre-Simon Laplace.

3.12 Technical Details of Continuous Variables

A proper formal understanding of continuous random variables and probability density functions requires developing probability theory in terms of a branch of mathematics known as **measure theory**. Measure theory is beyond the scope of this textbook, but we can briefly sketch some of the issues that measure theory is employed to resolve.

In section 3.3.2, we saw that the probability of a continuous vector-valued \mathbf{x} lying in some set \mathbb{S} is given by the integral of $p(\mathbf{x})$ over the set \mathbb{S} . Some choices of set \mathbb{S} can produce paradoxes. For example, it is possible to construct two sets \mathbb{S}_1 and \mathbb{S}_2 such that $p(\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{S}_1) + p(\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{S}_2) > 1$ but $\mathbb{S}_1 \cap \mathbb{S}_2 = \emptyset$. These sets are generally constructed making very heavy use of the infinite precision of real numbers, for example by making fractal-shaped sets or sets that are defined by transforming the set of rational numbers. One of the key contributions of measure theory is to provide a characterization of the set of sets that we can compute the probability of without encountering paradoxes. In this book, we only integrate over sets with relatively simple descriptions, so this aspect of measure theory never becomes a relevant concern.

For our purposes, measure theory is more useful for describing theorems that apply to most points in \mathbb{R}^n but do not apply to some corner cases. Measure theory provides a rigorous way of describing that a set of points is negligibly small. Such a set is said to have **measure zero**. We do not formally define this concept in this textbook. For our purposes, it is sufficient to understand the intuition that a set of measure zero occupies no volume in the space we are measuring. For example, within \mathbb{R}^2 , a line has measure zero, while a filled polygon has positive measure. Likewise, an individual point has measure zero. Any union of countably many sets that each have measure zero also has measure zero (so the set of all the rational numbers has measure zero, for instance).

Another useful term from measure theory is **almost everywhere**. A property that holds almost everywhere holds throughout all of space except for on a set of

 $^{^2}$ The Banach-Tarski theorem provides a fun example of such sets.