

Introduction to Probability, Statistics and Random Processes

Chapter 4: Continuous and Mixed Random Variables

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- ▶ Discrete random variables can only take a countable number of possible values.
- ▶ Continuous random variables have a range in the form of
 - ▶ Interval on the real number line.
 - ▶ Union of non-overlapping intervals on real line.
- ▶ We also know that for any $x \in \mathbb{R}, P(X = x) = 0$.
- ▶ Analogous to the theory of discrete random variables.

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Continuous Random Variables and their Distributions

- ▶ Example: Choose a real number uniformly at random in the interval $[a, b]$ and call it X .
- ▶ By uniformly at random, we mean all intervals in $[a, b]$ that have the same length have the same probability.
- ▶ Find the CDF of X .

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Continuous Random Variables and their Distributions

- ▶ Uniformity implies that probability of an interval in $[a, b]$ is proportional to its length.

$$P(X \in [x_1, x_2]) \propto (x_2 - x_1)$$

- ▶ Since $P(X \in [a, b]) = 1$, we have

$$P(X \in [x_1, x_2]) = \frac{x_2 - x_1}{b - a}, \text{ where } a \leq x_1 \leq x_2 \leq b.$$

- ▶ From the definition of CDF, $F_X(x) = P(X \leq x)$ we get

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & \text{for } a \leq x \leq b \\ 1 & \text{for } x > b \end{cases}$$

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Continuous Random Variables and their Distributions

- CDF for a continuous random variable uniformly distributed over $[a, b]$.

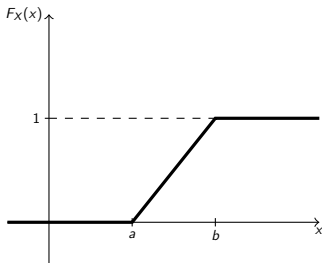


Figure: CDF for a continuous random variable uniformly distributed over $[a, b]$.

Continuous Random Variables and their Distributions

- ▶ We have the definition of a continuous random variable

Definition: A random variable X with CDF $F_X(x)$ is said to be continuous if $F_X(x)$ is a continuous function for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

- ▶ The CDF is a continuous function with no jumps.
- ▶ No jumps is consistent with the fact that $P(X = x) = 0$ for all x .
- ▶ CDF of a continuous random variable is differentiable almost everywhere in \mathbb{R} .

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- ▶ For continuous random variables, CDF works but PMF does not since $P(X = x) = 0$.
- ▶ Instead we define a **Probability Density Function**.
- ▶ For a continuous random variable X , we define the function $f_X(x)$ as

$$f_X(x) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{P(x < X \leq x + \Delta)}{\Delta}.$$

- ▶ $f_X(x)$ gives the probability density at point x .

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Probability Density Function(PDF)

- ▶ $f_X(x)$ is limit of the probability of an interval as the length of the interval goes to 0.
- ▶ We know that

$$P(x < X \leq x + \delta) = F_X(x + \Delta) - F_X(x).$$

- ▶ Thus we get

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x) &= \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{F_X(x + \Delta) - F_X(x)}{\Delta} \\ &= \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} = F'_X(x). \end{aligned}$$

if $F_X(x)$ is differentiable at x .

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- We define the PDF of random variable X as

Definition: Consider a continuous random variable X with CDF $F_X(x)$. The function $f_X(x)$ is the probability density function (PDF) of X , defined by

$$f_X(x) = \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} = F'_X(x),$$

if $F_X(x)$ is differentiable at x .

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Probability Density Function(PDF)

- The PDF of a random variable with $Uniform(a, b)$ distribution is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & a < x < b \\ 0 & x < a \text{ or } x > b \end{cases}$$

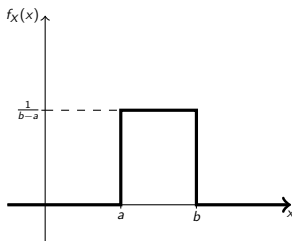


Figure: PDF for a continuous random variable uniformly distributed over $[a, b]$.

- ▶ If $f_X(x_1) > f_X(x_2)$, we can say the value of X is more likely to be around x_1 than x_2 .
- ▶ The CDF can be obtained from PDF by integration

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(u) du.$$

- ▶ We also have

$$P(a < X \leq b) = F_X(b) - F_X(a) = \int_a^b f_X(u) du.$$

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Consider a continuous random variable X with PDF $f_X(x)$. We have

1. $f_X(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.
2. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(u) du = 1$.
3. $P(a < X \leq b) = F_X(b) - F_X(a) = \int_a^b f_X(u) du$.
4. More generally, for a set A ,
 $P(X \in A) = \int_A f_X(u) du$.

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- ▶ Range of a random variable X is the set of all possible values of the random variable.
- ▶ For a continuous random variable, we can define it as the set of all real numbers with non-zero PDF.

$$R_X = \{x | f_X(x) > 0\}$$

- ▶ R_X defined here might not show all possible values of X but the difference is unimportant.

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- ▶ Remember the definition of expected value for a discrete random variable

$$EX = \sum_{x_k \in R_X} x_k P_X(x_k).$$

- ▶ We can write the definition of expected value of a continuous random variable as

$$EX = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

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Expected Value of a Function of a Continuous Random Variable

Law of the unconscious statistician (LOTUS) for continuous random variables:

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f_X(x)dx$$

- Expectation is a linear operation.
 - $E[aX + b] = aEX + b$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $E[X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n] = EX_1 + EX_2 + \dots + EX_n$ for any set of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n .

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- ▶ Variance of a random variable is defined as

$$\text{Var}(X) = E[(X - \mu_X)^2] = EX^2 - (EX)^2$$

- ▶ For a continuous random variable we can write

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X) &= E[(X - \mu_X)^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu_X)^2 f_X(x) dx \\ &= EX^2 - (EX)^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f_X(x) dx - \mu_X^2\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$$

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Discrete vs Continuous Random Variables

Discrete	Continuous
PMF	PDF
$P_X(x) = P(X = x)$	$f_X(x) = \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx}$
\sum	\int
$EX = \sum_{x_k \in R_X} x_k P_X(x_k)$	$EX = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$
LOTUS	LOTUS
$E[g(x)] = \sum_{x \in R_X} g(x_k) P_X(x_k)$	$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx$

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- ▶ If X is a continuous random variable, then $Y = g(X)$ is also a random variable.
- ▶ Note that the function of a continuous random variable might be a non-continuous random variable.
- ▶ We start by finding the CDF of Y .
- ▶ If the CDF is continuous, then we can differentiate to find the PDF of Y .

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- ▶ Example: Let X be a $Uniform(0,1)$ random variable, and let $Y = e^X$.
 - ▶ Find the CDF and PDF of Y .
 - ▶ Find EY .
- ▶ Example: Let $X \sim Uniform(-1,1)$, and $Y = X^2$.
 - ▶ Find the CDF and PDF of Y .
 - ▶ Find EY .

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- ▶ If we want to find directly the PDF of $Y = g(X)$ and the function g satisfies some properties, we can use the *method of transformations*.

Theorem: Suppose that X is a continuous random variable and $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a strictly monotonic differentiable function. Let $Y = g(X)$. Then the PDF of Y is given by

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{f_X(x_1)}{|g'(x_1)|} = f_X(x_1) \cdot \left| \frac{dx_1}{dy} \right| & \text{where } g(x_1) = y \\ 0 & \text{if } g(x) = y \text{ does not have a solution} \end{cases}$$

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The Method of Transformations

- ▶ We can extend the previous theorem to a more general case.
- ▶ If g is not monotonic, we can usually divide it into finite number of monotonic differentiable functions.

Theorem: Consider a continuous random variable X with domain R_X , and let $Y = g(X)$. Suppose that we can partition R_X into a finite number of intervals such that $g(x)$ is strictly monotone and differentiable on each partition. Then the PDF of Y is given by

$$f_Y(y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{f_X(x_i)}{|g'(x_i)|} = \sum_{i=1}^n f_X(x_i) \cdot \left| \frac{dx_i}{dy} \right|$$

where x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are real solutions to $g(x) = y$.

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- ▶ Example: Let X be a continuous random variable with PDF

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 4x^3 & 0 < x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and let $Y = \frac{1}{X}$. Find $f_Y(y)$.

- ▶ Example: Let X be a random variable with PDF

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}, \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R},$$

and let $Y = X^2$. Find $f_Y(y)$.

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A continuous random variable X is said to have a *Uniform* distribution over the interval $[a, b]$, shown as $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$, if its PDF is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & a < x < b \\ 0 & x < a \text{ or } x > b \end{cases}$$

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- ▶ CDF of $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$ is given by

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & \text{for } a \leq x \leq b \\ 1 & \text{for } x > b \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Expectation of X is given by

$$EX = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

- ▶ Variance of X is given as

$$\text{Var}(X) = EX^2 - (EX)^2 = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$$

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- PDF of $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$.

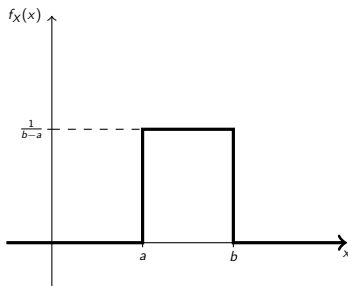


Figure: PDF for a continuous random variable uniformly distributed over (a, b) .

Exponential Distribution

- Widely used in different applications to model the time elapsed between events.

A continuous random variable X is said to have an *exponential* distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$, shown as $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$, if its PDF is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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- ▶ CDF of $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$ is

$$F_X(x) = (1 - e^{-\lambda x})u(x)$$

where $u(x)$ is unit step function.

- ▶ Expectation of X is given by

$$EX = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

- ▶ Variance of X is

$$\text{Var}(X) = EX^2 - (EX)^2 = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

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- PDF of $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$ for $\lambda = 1, 2, 3$.

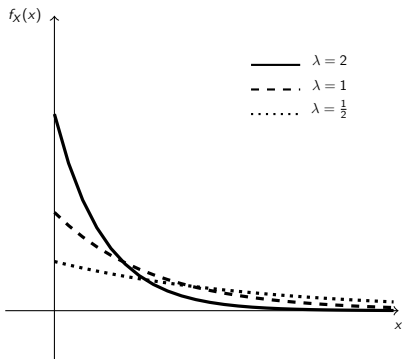


Figure: PDF of the exponential random variable

- ▶ The exponential distribution can be viewed as the continuous analogue of the geometric distribution.
- ▶ Suppose you are tossing a coin until you observe the first heads.
- ▶ Let X be the time you observe the first heads.
- ▶ Let the Δ be the time between two tosses and probability of heads $p = \Delta \cdot \lambda$.
- ▶ As Δ approaches 0, X converges to $Exponential(\lambda)$.

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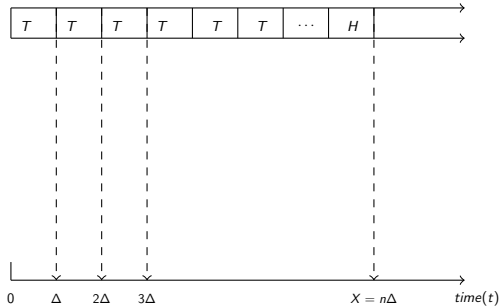


Figure: Exponential distribution can be viewed as the continuous analogue of the geometric distribution.

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If X is exponential with parameter $\lambda > 0$, then X is a *memoryless* random variable, that is

$$P(X > x + a | X > a) = P(X > x), \text{ for } a, x \geq 0.$$

- ▶ Say X is the waiting time until arrival of customer.
- ▶ From the memoryless property we have that, it does not matter how long you have waited.
- ▶ If you have not observed a customer until time a , the distribution of waiting time (from time a) is the same as when starting from at time zero.

- ▶ By far the most important probability distribution.
- ▶ We will see it's importance in the Central Limit Theorem later on.
- ▶ We will first define the **standard normal random variable**.
- ▶ Other normal variables can be obtained by shifting and scaling a standard normal variable.

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A continuous random variable Z is said to be a *standard normal (standard Gaussian)* random variable, shown as $Z \sim N(0, 1)$, if its PDF is given by

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}}, \text{ for all } z \in \mathbb{R}.$$

- If $Z \sim N(0, 1)$, then expectation $EZ = 0$ and variance $\text{Var}(Z) = 1$.

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- PDF of the standard normal random variable.

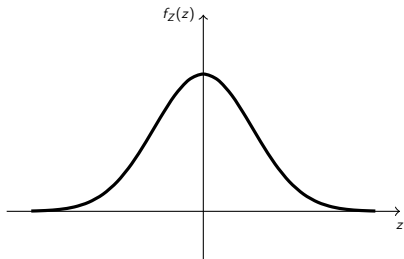


Figure: PDF of the standard normal random variable

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The CDF of the standard normal distribution is denoted by the Φ function:

$$\Phi(x) = P(Z \leq x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} du.$$

- ▶ The integral in the CDF does not have a closed form solution.
- ▶ Due to its importance, the values of $F_Z(z)$ have been calculated and readily available.
- ▶ Can use the command *normcdf* to compute $\Phi(x)$ for a given x in MATLAB.

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- CDF of a standard normal variable.

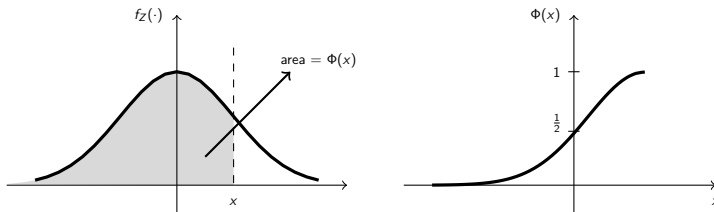


Figure: The Φ function (CDF of standard normal).

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► Properties of the Φ function include

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \Phi(x) = 1, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \Phi(x) = 0;$
2. $\Phi(0) = \frac{1}{2};$
3. $\Phi(-x) = 1 - \Phi(x),$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}.$

► A very useful bound that we can use is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \leq 1 - \Phi(x) \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{1}{x} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

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- From a standard normal random variable, we can obtain any normal variable by shifting and scaling.

If Z is a standard normal random variable and $X = \sigma Z + \mu$, then X is a normal random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 , i.e.,

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2).$$

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If X is a normal random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 , i.e, $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}},$$

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) = \Phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right),$$

$$P(a < X \leq b) = \Phi\left(\frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right).$$

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- PDFs for normal distributions with different mean and variance.

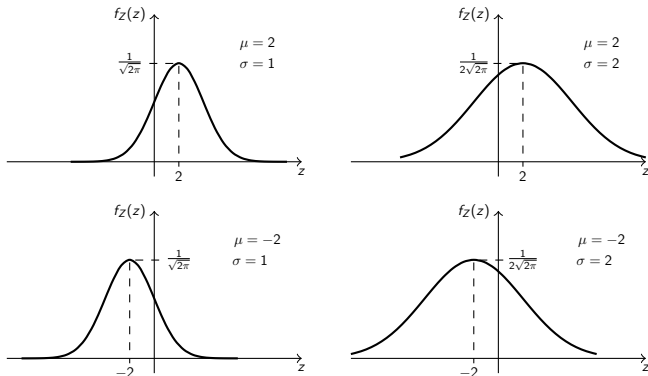


Figure: PDF for normal distribution

- ▶ An important property is that a linear transformation of a normal random variable is itself a normal random variable.
- ▶ We thus have the following theorem.

Theorem: If $X \sim N(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2)$, and $Y = aX + b$, where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, then $Y \sim N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$ where

$$\mu_Y = a\mu_X + b, \quad \sigma_Y^2 = a^2\sigma_X^2.$$

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Gamma Distribution

- ▶ Widely used due to its relation to exponential and normal distributions.
- ▶ **Gamma function:**
 - ▶ Gamma function $\Gamma(x)$, is an extension of the factorial function to real (and complex) numbers.
 - ▶ If $n \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, then

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$$

- ▶ For any positive real number α , $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is defined as

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x} dx, \text{ for } \alpha > 0.$$

- ▶ For $\alpha = 1$, $\Gamma(1) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = 1.$

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- ▶ Gamma function for some positive real values of α .

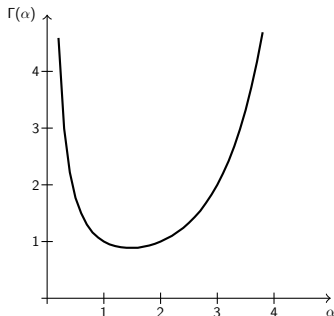


Figure: The gamma function for some positive real values of α .

Properties of the gamma function:

For any positive real number α :

1. $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x} dx.$
2. $\int_0^{\infty} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\lambda^{\alpha}}, \text{ for } \lambda > 0.$
3. $\Gamma(\alpha + 1) = \alpha \Gamma(\alpha).$
4. $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!, \text{ for } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots.$
5. $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{\pi}.$

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A continuous random variable X is said to have a *gamma* distribution with parameters $\alpha > 0$ and $\lambda > 0$, shown as $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$, if its PDF is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^\alpha x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} & x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ $EX = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda}$ and $\text{Var}(X) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2}$.
- ▶ Sum of n independent $\text{Exponential}(\lambda)$ random variables gives $\text{Gamma}(n, \lambda)$ random variable.

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- PDF of the gamma distribution for some values of α and λ .

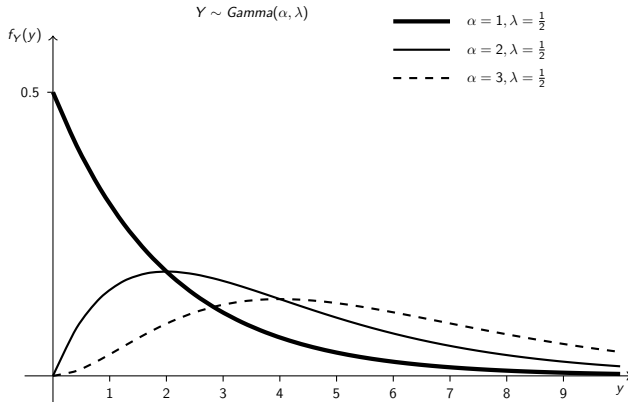


Figure: PDF of the gamma distribution for some values of α and λ .

- ▶ Mixed random variables have a discrete part and a continuous part.
- ▶ We can use the tools we have learned to analyze them.
- ▶ Later, we will revisit the concept of mixed random variables using the delta function.

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- ▶ Example: Consider a mixed random variable Y with CDF $F_Y(y)$ given by

$$F_Y(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & y \geq \frac{1}{2} \\ y^2 & 0 \leq y < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Note that the CDF of Y is not continuous as there is a jump at $y = \frac{1}{2}$.
- ▶ It is also not in the staircase form and hence Y is not a discrete random variable.

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► The CDF of Y

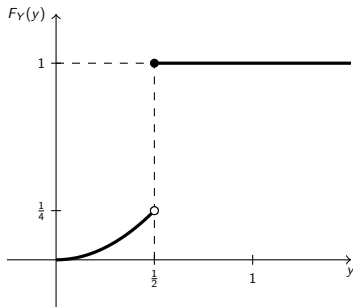


Figure: CDF of a mixed random variable Y .

- ▶ The CDF of Y has a continuous part and a discrete part.
- ▶ We can write

$$F_Y(y) = C(y) + D(y)$$

- ▶ $C(y)$ is the continuous part

$$C(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4} & y \geq \frac{1}{2} \\ y^2 & 0 \leq y < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & y < 0 \end{cases}$$

- ▶ The discrete part of $F_Y(y)$ is $D(y)$, given by

$$D(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{4} & y \geq \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & y < \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

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- ▶ We can write the CDF of any mixed random variable as a sum of a continuous function and a staircase function.

$$F_Y(y) = C(y) + D(y)$$

- ▶ Define $c(y) = \frac{dC(y)}{dy}$, wherever $C(y)$ is differentiable.
- ▶ $c(y)$ is not a valid PDF since it does not integrate to 1.
- ▶ Let $\{y_1, y_2, \dots\}$ be the jump points of $D(y)$.
- ▶ We thus have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(y) dy + \sum_{y_k} P(Y = y_k) = 1.$$

- ▶ Expected value of Y is

$$EY = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} yc(y) dy + \sum_{y_k} y_k P(Y = y_k).$$

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Dirac Delta Function

- ▶ We will use the Dirac Delta function to analyze mixed random variables.
- ▶ Remember that CDF is defined for all types of random variables.
- ▶ However PDF is only defined for continuous random variables.
- ▶ Delta functions will allow us to define PDFs for discrete and mixed random variables.

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Properties of the delta function

Definition: We define the delta function $\delta(x)$ as an object with the following properties:

1. $\delta(x) = \begin{cases} \infty & x = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
2. $\delta(x) = \frac{d}{dx}u(x)$, where $u(x)$ is the unit step function;
3. $\int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \delta(x)dx = 1$, for any $\epsilon > 0$;
4. for any $\epsilon > 0$ and any function $g(x)$ that is continuous over $(x_0 - \epsilon, x_0 + \epsilon)$, we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)\delta(x - x_0)dx = \int_{x_0 - \epsilon}^{x_0 + \epsilon} g(x)\delta(x - x_0)dx = g(x_0).$$

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Using the Delta Function is PDFs of Discrete and Mixed Random Variables

- ▶ We can write the CDF of a discrete random variable X with range $R_X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ and PMF $P_X(x_k)$ as

$$F_X(x) = \sum_{x_k \in R_X} P_X(x_k) u(x - x_k)$$

- ▶ We can obtain the **generalized** PDF for X by differentiating the CDF.
- ▶ Remember that we have defined the derivative of the step function as the delta function.

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For a discrete random variable X with range $R_X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$ and PMF $P_X(x_k)$, we define the (generalized) probability density function (PDF) as

$$f_X(x) = \sum_{x_k \in R_X} P_X(x_k) \delta(x - x_k).$$

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Using the Delta Function is PDFs of Discrete and Mixed Random Variables

- ▶ The generalized PDF is defined for all random variables; allows us to use the same formula for all types of random variables.
- ▶ If the generalized PDF
 - ▶ is a sum of delta functions, it is a discrete random variable.
 - ▶ does not include delta functions, it is a continuous random variable.
 - ▶ contains both delta and non-delta functions, it is a mixed random variable.

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The (generalized) PDF of a mixed random variable can be written in the form

$$f_X(x) = \sum_k a_k \delta(x - x_k) + g(x),$$

where $a_k = P(X = x_k)$, and $g(x) \geq 0$ does not contain any delta functions. Furthermore, we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = \sum_k a_k + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx = 1.$$

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