6.7 An area example

Let \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} be two independent random variables over the interval [0,1]. The density functions for \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are given by

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}(x) = 1$$
 if $0 \le x \le 1$
 $= 0$ otherwise;
 $f_{\mathbf{y}}(y) = 1$ if $0 \le y \le 1$
 $= 0$ otherwise. (7.1)

Because **x** and **y** are independent random variables, the joint density function $f_{\mathbf{xy}}(x,y)$ between **x** and **y** is determined by $f_{\mathbf{xy}}(x,y) = f_{\mathbf{x}}(x)f_{\mathbf{y}}(y)$. Hence

$$f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}}(x,y) = 1$$
 if $0 \le x \le 1$ and $0 \le y \le 1$
= 0 otherwise. (7.2)

Let \mathbf{z} be the random variable given by $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}$. Notice that \mathbf{z} is the area formed by \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} . Our problem is to compute $E(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$. In other words, compute the best estimate of \mathbf{x} given the area \mathbf{z} formed by \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} .

To compute $E(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$, we need the joint density function $f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z)$ between \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{z} . We will use Remark 6.6.1 to compute $f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z)$. To this end, let

$$x = g(x, z)$$
 and $y = h(x, z) = \frac{z}{x}$.

In this case, the random variables, \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{y} are given by

$$\mathbf{u} = g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \mathbf{x}$$
 and $\mathbf{y} = h(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \frac{\mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{x}}$.

The mapping $[g(x,z),h(x,z)]^{tr}\mapsto [x,\frac{z}{x}]^{tr}$ is almost everywhere an invertible mapping from \mathbb{R}^2 onto \mathbb{R}^2 . In this case, the Jacobian is determined by

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial h}{\partial z} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{z}{x^2} & \frac{1}{x} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Notice that det[J] = 1/x. Recall that $f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}}(x,y) = f_{\mathbf{x}}(x)f_{\mathbf{y}}(y)$. By virtue of Remark 6.6.1, the joint density function $f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z)$ is given by

$$f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z) = f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}}(g(x,z),h(x,z))|\det J| = f_{\mathbf{x}}(g(x,y))f_{\mathbf{y}}(h(x,z))\frac{1}{x} = f_{\mathbf{x}}(x)f_{\mathbf{y}}(z/x)\frac{1}{x}.$$

Since $f_{\mathbf{y}}(y)$ has support in [0,1], the function $f_{\mathbf{y}}(\frac{z}{x}) \neq 0$ if and only if $0 \leq \frac{z}{x} \leq 1$, or equivalently, $0 \leq z \leq x$. Since $f_{\mathbf{x}}(x)$ has support in [0,1], the variable x must be in [0,1]. Combining this with $0 \leq z \leq x$, we see that $f_{\mathbf{x}}(x)f_{\mathbf{y}}(z/x)$ is nonzero in $0 \leq z \leq x$ and $0 \leq x \leq 1$. By consulting (7.1) or (7.2), we obtain

$$f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z) = \frac{1}{x}$$
 if $0 < z \le x \le 1$

$$= \text{ otherwise.}$$
 (7.3)

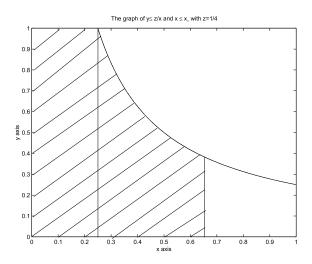


Figure 6.3: The area \mathcal{A}

A quadratic approximation of $\widehat{g}(y)$.

Another method to compute $f_{\mathbf{xz}}(x, z)$. Recall that for fixed x_{\circ} and z, the distribution function $F_{\mathbf{xz}}(x_{\circ}, z) = P(\mathbf{x} \leq x_{\circ} \cap \mathbf{z} \leq z)$. Using $\mathbf{xy} = \mathbf{z}$, we obtain

$$F_{\mathbf{xz}}(x_{\circ}, z) = P(\mathbf{x} \le x_{\circ} \bigcap \mathbf{z} \le z) = P(\mathbf{x} \le x_{\circ} \bigcap \mathbf{xy} \le z)$$
$$= P([\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}] \in \mathcal{A}) = \int \int_{\mathcal{A}} f_{\mathbf{xy}}(x, y) dy dx.$$

Here the area \mathcal{A} in \mathbb{R}^2 is determined by the set of all [x,y] in \mathbb{R}^2 such that $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $0 \leq y \leq 1$ and $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $0 \leq y \leq 1$ and $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $0 \leq x \leq 1$. Because the support for $f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}}(x,y)$ is contained in the square $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $0 \leq y \leq 1$. Because the support for $f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}}(x,y)$ is contained in the square $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $0 \leq y \leq 1$, the area \mathcal{A} must also be contained in this box. Since $0 \leq y \leq 1$ and $0 \leq x \leq 1$, we obtain that $0 \leq x \leq 1$. In other words, $0 \leq x \leq 1$. Finally, observe that for x = 1, we have x = 1. A typical graph of this region x = 1 is given by the shaded region in Figure 6.3. The first vertical line corresponds to x = x, while the second vertical line corresponds to x = x. So we see that

$$F_{\mathbf{xz}}(x_{\circ}, z) = \int \int_{\mathcal{A}} f_{\mathbf{xy}}(x, y) dy dx = \int_{0}^{z} \int_{0}^{1} dy dx + \int_{z}^{x_{\circ}} \int_{0}^{\frac{z}{x}} dy dx$$
$$= z + \int_{z}^{x_{\circ}} \frac{z}{x} dx = z + z \ln(x_{\circ}) - z \ln(z).$$

By replacing x_{\circ} with x, we obtain

$$F_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z) = z + z \ln(x) - z \ln(z)$$
 if $0 \le z \le x \le 1$.

Using the fact that

$$f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial z} F_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z),$$

we arrive at

$$f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z) = \frac{1}{x}$$
 if $0 < z \le x \le 1$

$$= \text{ otherwise.}$$
 (7.4)

The density function $f_{\mathbf{z}}(z)$ for the random variable **z** is computed by

$$f_{\mathbf{z}}(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x, z) dx = \int_{z}^{1} \frac{1}{x} dx = -\ln(z) \quad \text{if } 0 \le z \le 1$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 0 dx = 0 \quad \text{otherwise.}$$

In other words, the density function $f_{\mathbf{z}}(z)$ for \mathbf{z} is given by

$$f_{\mathbf{z}}(z) = -\ln(z)$$
 if $0 \le z \le 1$
= 0 otherwise. (7.5)

Finally, it is noted that $f_{\mathbf{z}}(z)$ is indeed positive and has area one. Since $-\ln(z) \geq 0$ for all $0 < z \leq 1$, it follow that $f_{\mathbf{z}}(z) \geq 0$ for all z. Using the change of variable $z = e^{\lambda}$, we obtain

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\mathbf{z}}(z)dz = -\int_{0}^{1} \ln(z)dz = -\int_{-\infty}^{0} \lambda e^{\lambda}d\lambda = 1.$$

As expected, $f_{\mathbf{z}}(z)$ is positive and has area one.

The conditional density $f_{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}}(x|z)$ is only defined for $0 < z \le 1$. By consulting (7.3) and (7.5), the conditional density $f_{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}}(x|z)$ is given by

$$f_{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}}(x|z) = \frac{f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z)}{f_{\mathbf{z}}(z)} = \frac{-1}{x\ln(z)}$$
 if $0 < z \le x \le 1$
= 0 otherwise.

Notice that for any fixed z in the interval [0,1], the conditional density $f_{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}}(x|z)$ is a density function in x, that is, $f_{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}}(x|z) \geq 0$ and $1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}}(x|z) dx$. The optimal function

$$\widehat{g}(z) = E(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z} = z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}}(x|z) dx = \int_{z}^{1} \frac{-1}{\ln(z)} dx = \frac{z-1}{\ln(z)}.$$

Therefore the optimal estimate is given by

$$\widehat{g}(z) = E(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z} = z) = \frac{z - 1}{\ln(z)} \qquad (0 \le z \le 1). \tag{7.6}$$

For example, if the area $z = \frac{1}{10}$, then the best estimate of x is given by $\widehat{g}(\frac{1}{10}) \approx 0.39$. If the area $z = \frac{1}{100}$, then the best estimate of x is given by $\widehat{g}(\frac{1}{100}) \approx 0.215$.

Recall that the best estimate $\widehat{g}(\mathbf{z}) = E(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$ is the random variable which is the unique solution to the optimization problem,

$$E|\mathbf{x} - \widehat{g}(\mathbf{z})|^2 = \inf\{E|\mathbf{x} - g(\mathbf{z})|^2 : g \text{ is a measurable function from } \mathbb{R}^{\nu} \text{ into } \mathbb{C}\}.$$
 (7.7)

In this case, the optimal solution is given by

$$\widehat{g}(\mathbf{z}) = E(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = \frac{\mathbf{z} - 1}{\ln(\mathbf{z})}.$$
 (7.8)

Recall that $E\widehat{g}(\mathbf{z}) = EE(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = E\mathbf{x}$. Since \mathbf{x} is uniform over [0,1], we see that $E\mathbf{x} = 1/2$. Hence $E\widehat{g}(\mathbf{z}) = 1/2$. To verify this directly, simply observe that

$$E\widehat{g}(\mathbf{z}) = E\left(\frac{\mathbf{z} - 1}{\ln(\mathbf{z})}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{z - 1}{\ln(z)} f_{\mathbf{z}}(z) dz = \int_{0}^{1} (1 - z) dz = \frac{1}{2}.$$

The covariance error in estimation is computed by

$$E|\mathbf{x} - \widehat{g}(\mathbf{z})|^{2} = E\mathbf{x}^{2} - E\widehat{g}(\mathbf{z})^{2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} f_{\mathbf{x}}(x) dx - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \widehat{g}(z)^{2} f_{\mathbf{z}}(z) dz$$
$$= \int_{0}^{1} x^{2} dx + \int_{0}^{1} \frac{(z-1)^{2}}{\ln(z)} dz = \frac{1}{3} + \ln(3/4) \approx 0.0457.$$

In other words, the error in estimation is given by

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \widehat{g}(\mathbf{z})\| = \sqrt{E|\mathbf{x} - \widehat{g}(\mathbf{z})|^2} \approx 0.2138. \tag{7.9}$$

A third order polynomial approximation of $\widehat{g}(\mathbf{z})$. Now let us obtain an approximation of the best estimate $\widehat{g}(\mathbf{z})$ using polynomials of order at most three. To this end, consider the vector

$$\mathbf{p} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \mathbf{z} \\ \mathbf{z}^2 \\ \mathbf{z}^3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let \mathcal{M} be the four dimensional space spanned by \mathbf{p} , that is,

$$\mathcal{M} = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{p}\} = \operatorname{span}\{1, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{z}^2, \mathbf{z}^3\}.$$

Recall that the orthogonal projection $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = P_{\mathcal{M}}\mathbf{x}$ is computed by

$$\widehat{\mathbf{x}} = P_{\mathcal{M}} \mathbf{x} = R_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{p}} R_{\mathbf{p}}^{-1} \mathbf{p}$$

$$E(\mathbf{x} - \widehat{\mathbf{x}})^2 = R_{\mathbf{x}} - R_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{p}} R_{\mathbf{p}}^{-1} R_{\mathbf{p}\mathbf{x}}.$$
(7.10)

Notice that

$$R_{\mathbf{p}} = E\mathbf{x}\mathbf{p}^* = \begin{bmatrix} E\mathbf{x} & E\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z} & E\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}^2 & E\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{\mathbf{p}} = E\mathbf{p}\mathbf{p}^* = \begin{bmatrix} E1 & E\mathbf{z} & E\mathbf{z}^2 & E\mathbf{z}^3 \\ E\mathbf{z} & E\mathbf{z}^2 & E\mathbf{z}^3 & E\mathbf{z}^4 \\ E\mathbf{z}^2 & E\mathbf{z}^3 & E\mathbf{z}^4 & E\mathbf{z}^5 \\ E\mathbf{z}^3 & E\mathbf{z}^4 & E\mathbf{z}^5 & E\mathbf{z}^6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Recall that \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are two independent uniform random variables over the interval [0,1]. For any positive integer k, we have

$$E\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}^{k} = E\mathbf{x}^{k+1}\mathbf{y}^{k} = E\mathbf{x}^{k+1}E\mathbf{y}^{k} = \int_{0}^{1} x^{k+1}dx \times \int_{0}^{1} y^{k}dy = \frac{1}{(k+2)(k+1)}$$

$$E\mathbf{z}^{k} = E\mathbf{x}^{k}\mathbf{y}^{k} = E\mathbf{x}^{k}E\mathbf{y}^{k} = \int_{0}^{1} x^{k}dx \times \int_{0}^{1} y^{k}dy = \frac{1}{(k+1)^{2}}$$

$$R_{\mathbf{x}} = E\mathbf{x}^{2} = \int_{0}^{1} x^{2}dx = \frac{1}{3}.$$

This readily implies that

$$R_{\mathbf{xp}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{12} & \frac{1}{20} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{\mathbf{p}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{9} & \frac{1}{16} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{9} & \frac{1}{16} & \frac{1}{25} \\ \frac{1}{9} & \frac{1}{16} & \frac{1}{25} & \frac{5}{36} \\ \frac{1}{16} & \frac{1}{25} & \frac{5}{36} & \frac{1}{49} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Using Matlab we see that

$$\widehat{\mathbf{x}} = R_{\mathbf{xp}} R_{\mathbf{p}}^{-1} \mathbf{p} = 0.2140 + 1.8416 \mathbf{z} - 2.3412 \mathbf{z}^2 + 1.3717 \mathbf{z}^3$$

$$E(\mathbf{x} - \widehat{\mathbf{x}})^2 = R_{\mathbf{x}} - R_{\mathbf{xp}} R_{\mathbf{p}}^{-1} R_{\mathbf{px}} \approx 0.0459.$$
(7.11)

The error in estimation is given by

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \widehat{\mathbf{x}}\| = \sqrt{E(\mathbf{x} - \widehat{\mathbf{x}})^2} \approx 0.2143. \tag{7.12}$$

As expected, the error from the conditional expectation is smaller than the error from the polynomial approximation, that is,

$$\sqrt{E(\mathbf{x} - \widehat{g}(\mathbf{z}))^2} \approx 0.2138 \le 0.2143 \approx \sqrt{E(\mathbf{x} - \widehat{\mathbf{x}})^2}$$

The graph given in Figure 6.4 plots the optimal function

$$\widehat{g}(z) = \frac{z - 1}{\ln(z)}$$

and its best approximation $0.2140 + 1.8416z - 2.3412z^2 + 1.3717z^3$ by polynomials of degree at most three on the same graph. As expected both of these plots are close to each other. The graph corresponding to $\widehat{g}(z)$ is zero at z=0 and has a smaller value at z=1.

Monte Carlo. Let us use the Monte Carlo technique to estimate $\widehat{g}(\mathbf{z}) = E(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z} = z)$. Ruffly speaking, the Monte Carlo method uses a computer simulation of the appropriate random values to compute the expectation or conditional expectation for a random variable. This is particularly useful when the conditional expectation is difficult to compute. Let us

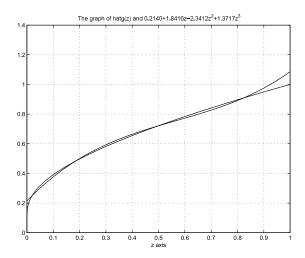


Figure 6.4: The conditional expectation $\widehat{g}(z) = \frac{z-1}{\ln(z)}$

use Matlab to compute the conditional expectation $E(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$ evaluated at $\mathbf{z} = \frac{1}{2}$, that is, let us use the Monte Carlo method to compute an approximation of

$$\widehat{g}(1/2) = E(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z} = 1/2) = \frac{z-1}{\ln(z)}\Big|_{z=1/2} = -\frac{1}{2\ln(1/2)} = 0.7213.$$

To this end, first use Matlab to compute x = rand(1, 50000); and y = rand(1, 50000); which are 50000 samples of the uniform random variables \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} over the interval [0, 1], respectively. Then z = x.*y in Matlab is 50000 samples of the random variable \mathbf{z} . According to Matlab the mean of \mathbf{z} computed from these samples is given by

$$mean(z) = 0.2494 \approx E\mathbf{z} = E\mathbf{x}E\mathbf{y} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

To estimate $\widehat{g}(1/2)$, we compute the mean of all x(k) such that $z(k) = x(k) * y(k) \approx \frac{1}{2}$. (Notice that numerically z(k) will rarely if ever equal $\frac{1}{2}$. So we take the mean of all x(k) such that z(k) is in some neighborhood of $\frac{1}{2}$.) In Matlab we used the commands:

$$c = []$$
; for $k = 1:50000$; if $abs(x(k) * y(k) - 1/2) < .01, c = [c, x(k)]$; end; end

Then we discovered that mean $(c) = 0.7222 \approx 0.7213 = \widehat{g}(1/2)$.

Exercise 1. Let \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} be two continuous independent random variables. Let \mathbf{z} be the random variable defined by $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}$. Then show that

$$f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}}(x,z) = f_{\mathbf{x}}(x)f_{\mathbf{y}}(z/x)\frac{1}{|x|}.$$
(7.13)

Moreover, the density for **z** is given by

$$f_{\mathbf{z}}(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\mathbf{x}}(x) f_{\mathbf{y}}(z/x) \frac{dx}{|x|}.$$
 (7.14)