

M525: HW1

Dominic Bair

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1. Here we demonstrate our ability to load data and display it in different ways. We use the `vis_data.mat` file which contains 3 columns of data, W_i $i = 1, 2, 3$. We plot each column as a histogram, then plot each column against every other column as a scatter plot. See Figure (1).

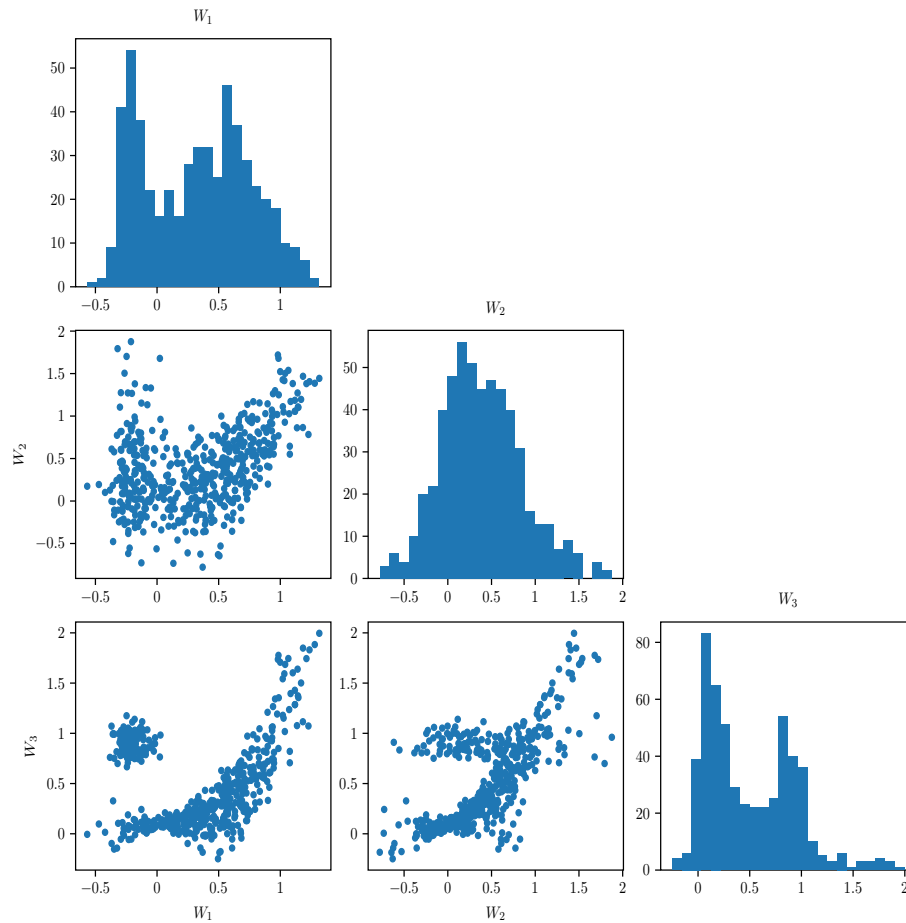


Figure 1: A visualization of `vis_data.mat`.

- Here we generate and randomly sample categorical data. We choose seven categories, σ_i $i = 0, \dots, 6$, with randomly generated probabilities of drawing a point from each category, π_i $i = 0, \dots, 6$. We normalize our randomly generated probabilities so we can define a PMF. We then sample n random points from $(0, 1)$ and assign each point to a category based on the PMF; we accomplish this using MATLAB's `discretize()` function. See Figure (2).

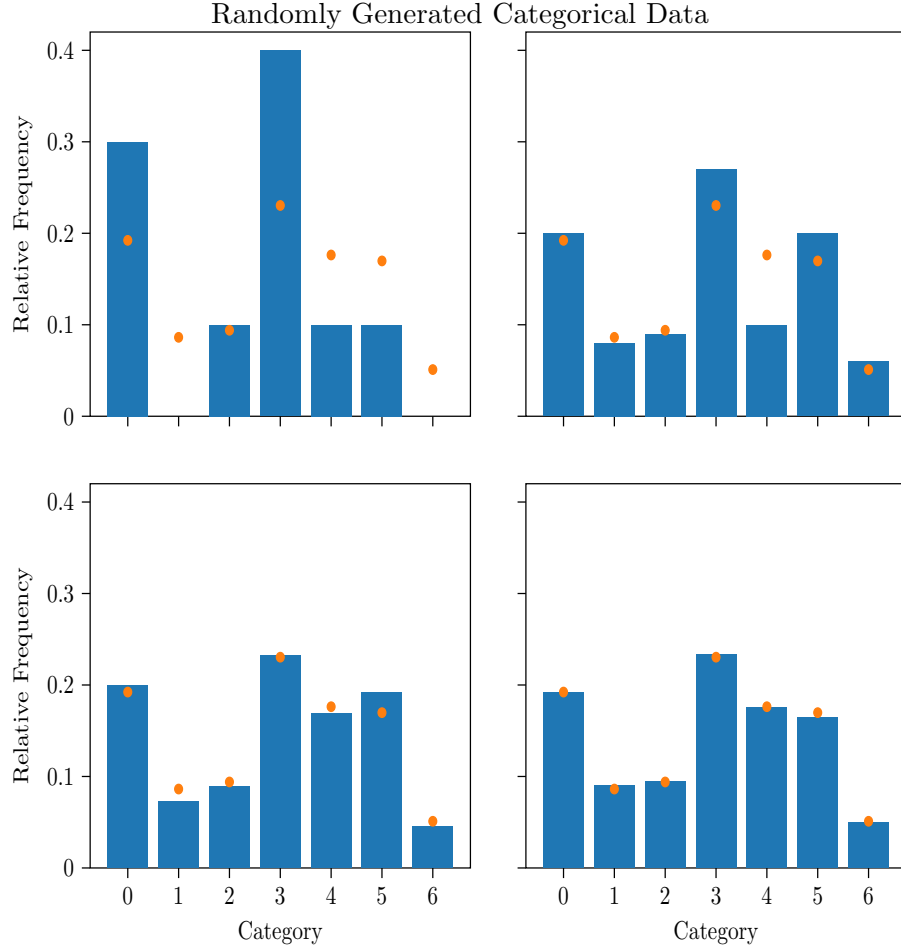


Figure 2: Bar plots of the relative frequencies of n randomly sampled categorical data points. There are seven possible categories a data point can take. Each orange dot represents the true probability of selecting an element from its corresponding category. (Top Left) $n = 10$. (Top Right) $n = 100$. (Bottom Left) $n = 1000$. (Bottom Right) $n = 10000$. Notice as the number of randomly sampled points increases, the relative frequency of a given category approaches the probability of a random point being a member of the category.

3. (a) First we show the Box–Muller algorithm produces random variables with the desired statistics. **This notation is missleading**

First, let $U, V \sim \text{Uniform}_{[0,1]}$, and let u and v be the values that U and V can take on respectively. The Box–Muller algorithm uses a map $f : U \times V \rightarrow X \times Y$ such that $f(u, v) = (\mu + \sigma\sqrt{-2\log u} \cos 2\pi v, \mu + \sigma\sqrt{-2\log u} \sin 2\pi v) = (x, y)$ to transform uniformly distributed random variables U, V to $X, Y \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

Proof. By the fundamental theorem of simulation we have

$$q(x, y) = \frac{p(u, v)}{|J_{(u,v) \rightarrow (x,y)}|}. \quad (1)$$

However,

$$\begin{aligned} |J_{(u,v) \rightarrow (x,y)}| &= \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \\ &= \frac{1}{u} (2\pi\sigma^2 \cos^2 2\pi v + 2\pi\sigma^2 \sin^2 2\pi v) \\ &= \frac{2\pi\sigma^2}{u}. \end{aligned}$$

Also $p(u, v) = 1$ on its support, so by (1) we have

$$\begin{aligned} q(x, y) &= \frac{u}{2\pi\sigma^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp \{\log u\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp \{2\sigma^2 \log u (\cos^2 2\pi v + \sin^2 2\pi v)\} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \right)^2 \exp \left\{ - \left(\frac{(\mu + \sigma\sqrt{-2\log u} \cos 2\pi v - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right\} \\ &\quad \times \exp \left\{ - \left(\frac{(\mu + \sigma\sqrt{-2\log u} \sin 2\pi v - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp \left\{ - \frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\} \exp \left\{ - \frac{(y - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \right)^2 \exp \left\{ - \left(\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{(y - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right\} \\ &= \text{Normal}(x, y; \mu, \sigma^2). \end{aligned}$$

We note that it is easier to solve this in reverse; that is starting with Normal $(x, y; \mu, \sigma^2)$ and working until you are left with (1); however, this is considered a faux pas as we would be assuming our result. ■

- (b) We create a MATLAB function that performs the Box–Muller algorithm. We then plot 10,000 points using the function and plot the results in Figure 3.
- (c) Here we show our results from our Box–Muller function.

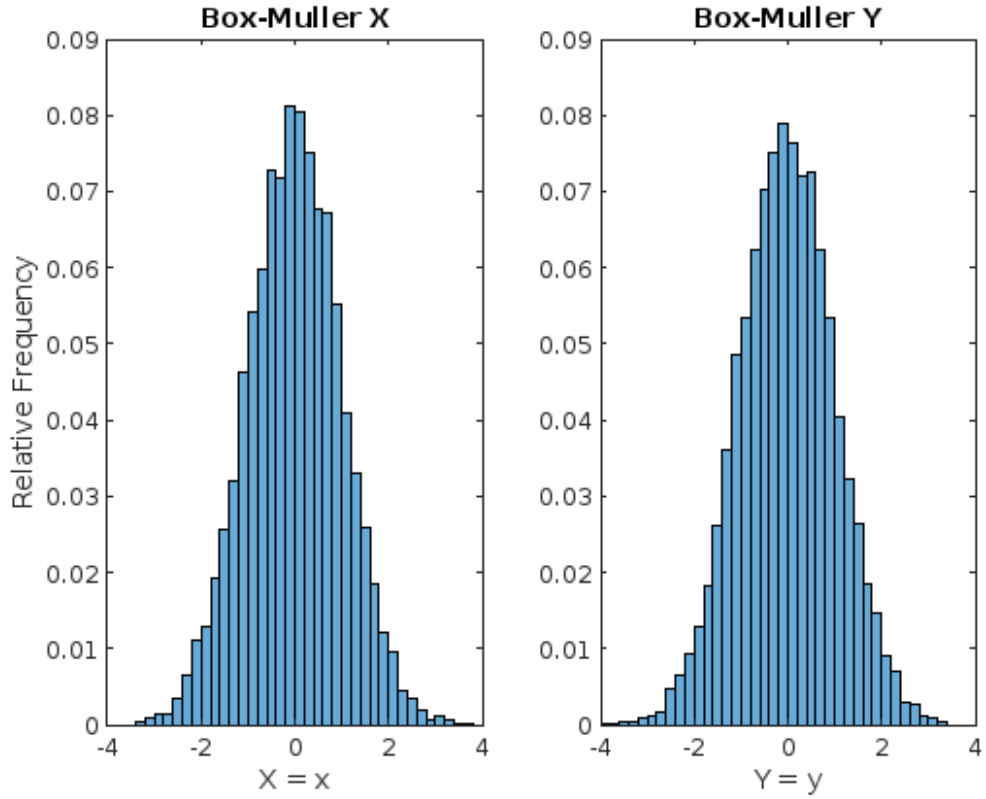


Figure 3: Both outputs of the Box–Muller algorithm developed in part (b). This simulation samples 10,000 points from a uniform distribution, then applies the Box–Muller algorithm with $\mu = 0$, and $\sigma = 1$. Both plots clearly have a mean centered at 0, and inflection points at ± 1 . This result is as expected from our calculation in (a).

4. Here we analyse a model of molecule excitation and detecting photons emitted by the excited molecules. Our recorded measurement w_i for a photon pulse encodes the time d_i that a molecule remains excited, and an error, or noise, r_i caused by our detector. Thus our final measured signal is, $w_i = d_i + r_i$. We assume $D \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$ and $R \sim \text{Normal}(0, v)$.

- (a) First, we analytically derive the “best” choice of our model parameters $\hat{\lambda}$ and \hat{v} using the principle of maximum likelihood.

First we examine our model for the random variable D . We assume each measurement is independent so we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(D = d_{1:N}) &= \prod_{i=1}^N \lambda \exp \{-\lambda d_i\} \\ &= \lambda^N \exp \left\{ -\lambda \sum_{i=1}^N d_i \right\}.\end{aligned}$$

These are irrelevant

$$\begin{aligned}\implies \log \mathbb{P}(D = d_{1:N}) &= N \log \lambda - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^N d_i. \\ \implies \frac{d}{d\lambda} (\log \mathbb{P}(D = d_{1:N})) &= \frac{N}{\lambda} - \sum_{i=1}^N d_i \stackrel{\text{set}}{=} 0. \\ \implies \hat{\lambda} &= \frac{N}{\sum_{i=1}^N d_i}.\end{aligned}$$

Next we examine our model for the random variable R . Again, we assume each measurement is independent so we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(R = r_{1:N}) &= \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi v}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-r_i^2}{2v} \right\} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi v}} \right)^N \exp \left\{ \frac{-\sum_{i=1}^N r_i^2}{2v} \right\}. \\ \implies \log \mathbb{P}(R = r_{1:N}) &= N \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi v}} + \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N r_i^2}{2v} \right). \\ \implies \frac{d}{dv} (\mathbb{P}(R = r_{1:N})) &= N \sqrt{2\pi v} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{-1}{2} \right) v^{-\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{v^{-2}}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N r_i^2 \\ &= \frac{-N}{v} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N r_i^2}{v^2} \stackrel{\text{set}}{=} 0. \\ \implies \hat{v} &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N r_i^2}{N}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have found the “best” parameters for our models of the distributions of D and R . Applying our calibration data to this, we find $\hat{v} = 1.6581$.

Add units

- (b) We now derive the probability density formula for the random variable W .

To use the fundamental theorem of simulation we must have an invertible map, so we introduce a new random variable, $Z = D$. Then we have the map $f : \mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{Z}$ with $f(r, d) = (r + d, d) = (w, z)$. Using the fundamental theorem of simulation we find

$$p(w, z) = \lambda \exp \{-\lambda d\} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi v}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-r^2}{2v} \right\}.$$

We then marginalize this to find $p(w)$.

$$\begin{aligned} p(w) &= \int_0^\infty \lambda \exp \{-\lambda z\} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi v}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-(w-z)^2}{2v} \right\} dz \\ &= \frac{\lambda}{2} \exp \{ \lambda^2 v^2 - \lambda w \} \left(1 - \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{\lambda v - w}{\sqrt{2v}} \right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

- (c) Now we apply the principle of maximum likelihood to this density to find our optimal $\hat{\lambda}$. We note this $\hat{\lambda}$ will be different from our above problem as this is a new distribution. We use our \hat{v} from above as we calibrate our instrument first.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(W = w_{1:N}) &= \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{\lambda}{2} \exp \{ \lambda^2 \hat{v}^2 - \lambda w_i \} \left(1 - \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{\lambda \hat{v} - w_i}{\sqrt{2\hat{v}}} \right) \right). \\ \implies -\log(\mathbb{P}(W = w_{1:N})) &= N \log \left(\frac{\lambda}{2} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{\lambda^2 \hat{v}}{2} - \lambda w_i \right) \\ &\quad + \sum_{i=1}^N \log \left(1 - \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{\lambda \hat{v} - w_i}{\sqrt{2\hat{v}}} \right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

We now have the negative log-likelihood of our data, so we find $\hat{\lambda}$ using `fminsearch()` in MATLAB. Applying our experimental data, we find $\hat{\lambda} = 0.8086$. See Figure 4.

Units

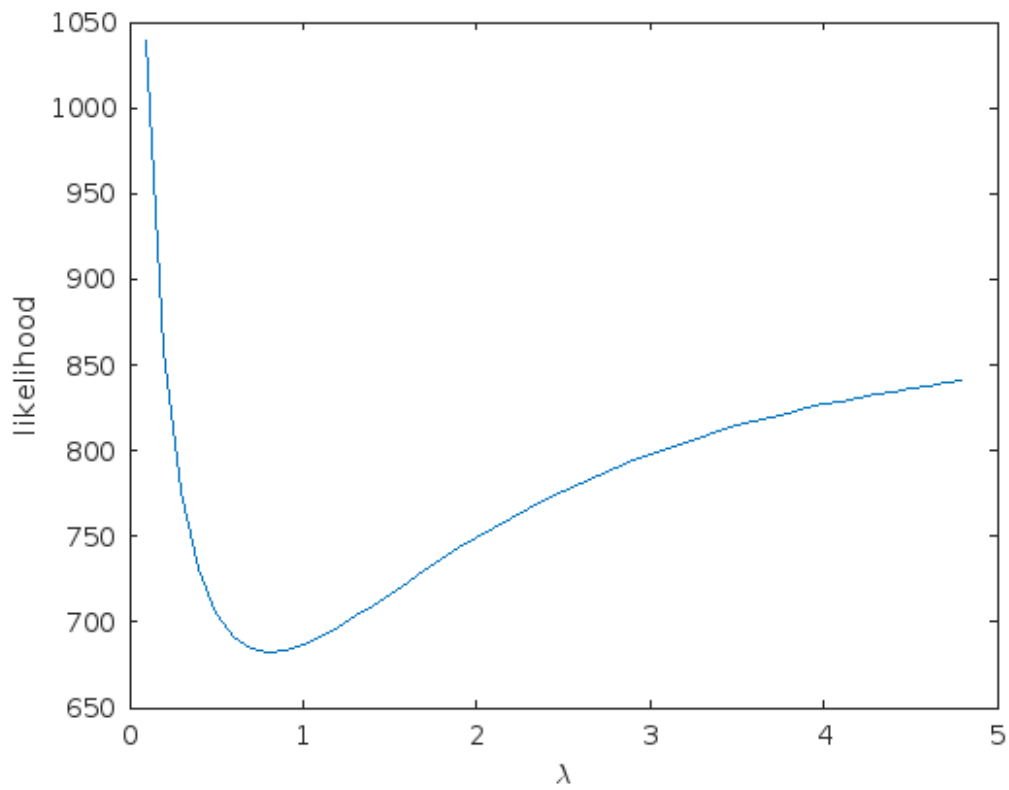


Figure 4: A plot of our negative log-likelihood for our data. We see visually the minimizer, $\hat{\lambda}$, should be near 0.8.