

Distributions in Julia

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Outline

- Distributions.jl
- 2 Examples
- 3 Current work
- 4 Future ideas

About me

I'm a research fellow in Statistics: my research focuses on computational statistics, particularly Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC).

- Mostly theoretical analysis of computational techniques.
- but I occasionally need to write some code.
- Sequential algorithms: can't be vectorised.

I want a language that is

- Quick to write: easy to try out ideas.
- Reasonably performant, but representative of the speed of the algorithm.
- Easy to understand: if I need to look at the code 6 months later.
- Able to peek under the hood.

How I met Julia

A blog post by Justin Domke (September 2012)

Just to never write another .mex file, I'll very seriously consider Julia for new projects

I had Matlab code full of:

$$R = chol(A)$$

y = R \ (R' \ x)

I really like being able to write Julia code:

$$C = cholfact(A)$$

y = $C \setminus x$

I filed my first pull request three weeks later...

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Distributions

Distributions.jl is a library for working with probability distributions.

- One of the oldest julia packages (5th package added to METADATA).
- Started as a wrapper for Rmath library (more on this later).
- 568 commits, 6747 lines of code, 27 contributors.
- Other main contributors: Dahua Lin, John Myles White, Douglas Bates and Andreas Noack Jensen.
- MIT licensed (eventually).

Structure

Distributions are types, e.g.

```
Gamma <: Distribution{Univariate, Continuous}</pre>
```

- Allows a consistent interface: we don't have to remember function prefixes, or argument order.
- Capitalisation of types avoids Gamma (distribution)/gamma (function) confusion.
- Immutable types means there is no overhead in creating/destroying types.

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Properties accept a distribution argument

```
julia> mean(Gamma(3,5))
15.0
julia> kurtosis(Beta(2,8))
0.49038461538461536
```

Functions accept a distribution and an argument

```
julia> pdf(Gamma(3,5),1.0)
0.0032749230123119257
julia> cdf(Normal(0,1),10)
1.0
julia> ccdf(Normal(0,1),10) # 1 - cdf(Normal(0,1))
7.619853024160593e-24
julia> logccdf(Normal(0,1),10) # log(1 - cdf(Normal(0,1)))
-53.23128515051247
```

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```
rand has been extended to allow Distribution arguments
```

```
julia> rand(Binomial(10000,0.2))
2025
julia> rand(Binomial(10000,0.2),1000)
1000-element Array{Int64,1}:
2064
1993
1946
```

Maximum likelihood estimation

```
julia> fit_mle(Gamma, rand(Gamma(3,5),1000))
Gamma( shape=2.9489146726658464 scale=5.24658602972775 )
```

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Kernel density estimation

A kernel density estimator (KDE) estimates a pdf from a sample x_1, \ldots, x_n ,

$$\hat{f}_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} k_{\theta}(x - x_i)$$

where k_{θ} is a pdf of some symmetric probability distribution centred at 0. A simple approach:

```
function kde(X,k)
    m = 1024 # grid size
    M = linspace(minimum(X),maximum(X),m)
    y = zeros(m)
    for x in X
        y += pdf(k, M.-x) / length(x)
    end
    M,y
end
```

Requires O(nm) operations.

KDEs via FFTs

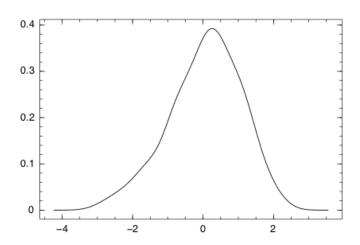
We are convolving the "empirical" density with that of the kernel

- Use Fourier transforms!
- Tabulate the data to the grid: O(n) operations.
- 2 Compute the fft of the table: $O(m \log m)$
- Convolve by multiplying by Fourier transform of kernel.
 - Can be computed directly from the *characteristic function* cf(k,x): O(m).
- 4 Compute inverse fft: $O(m \log m)$

This has the further benefit of being able to re-use the table

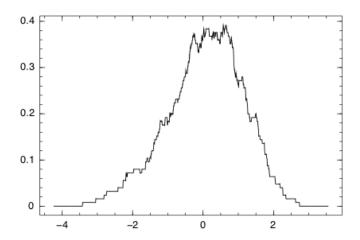
■ Useful for selecting kernel bandwidth (e.g. via cross-validation)

```
using KernelDensity
plot(kde(X)) # uses Normal kernel by default
```



Example: KernelDensity.jl (cont.)

plot(kde(X,kernel=Uniform)) # Uniform kernel



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Replacing Rmath

Rmath is a library of numerical C routines developed for use in R.

- GPL licensed
- Possibly the most widely used open-source library of such functions
- 15+ years of extensive use.
- Reasonably efficient
- Provides log-space functions for extreme tails.
- Reliable implementations of many tricky functions: incomplete gamma and beta functions, non-central χ^2 cdf, etc.

Being GPL, we can't just translate the C code.

Other sources

- Common methods often have other implementations available:
 - Naval Surface Warfare Center (NSWC) library (Fortran 77)
 - Cephes (C)
 - Boost (C++)
 - SciPy (Python/C)
- Otherwise it means deciphering journal appendices.
- Licence status not always clear
 - ACM have a lot to answer for.
- Old code
 - Often predates IEEE-754 standard (exact round-to-nearest arithmetic, gradual underflow, etc.)
 - Lots of Q = 0.5 + (0.5 P)
- No analysis of floating-point error.
- Often okay for "reasonable" values, but can be wildly inaccurate in the extremes.

Example: Poisson density

Consider the Poisson density function

$$\frac{\lambda^{x}e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$$

■ For large values of x, the λ^x can easily overflow (or underflow for $\lambda < 1$).

Can re-write as

$$\frac{\exp\{x\log(\lambda)-\lambda\}}{x!}$$

- If x and λ are of a similar magnitude: amplifies relative error of $[x \times \log(\lambda)]$.
- Amplified further by taking exponent.

Example: Poisson density (cont.)

Using Stirling's asymptotic approximation to the gamma function,

$$x! = \sqrt{2\pi x} \exp\{x \log x - x + s(x)\}$$
 where $s(x) \approx \frac{1}{12x} - \frac{1}{360x^3} + \dots$

we can write

$$\frac{\lambda^{x}e^{-\lambda}}{x!} = \frac{\exp\{x \log \exp((\lambda/x) - s(x))\}}{\sqrt{2\pi x}}$$

where logmxp1(x) = log(x) - x + 1.

- \blacksquare s(x) accurate < 2 ulps for x > 10
 - ulps = "units in last place" = multiples of eps(x)
- Both terms in exponent of same sign: no explosion of relative error
- As a bonus: we don't need to evaluate a separate gamma function.
- Yet more alternatives:
 - Rmath uses a slightly different formulation (Loader, 2000)
 - Boost uses a method based Lanczos' approximation to the gamma function

But what about this logmxp1(x)?

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Utility functions

Need lots of supporting routines: at the moment we have the following variants of log:

- $\log 1psq(x) = \log(1 + x^2)$
- $\log 1 \operatorname{pmx}(x) = \log(1+x) x$
- $\log \exp 1(x) = \log(x) x + 1$

Naive versions exhibit numerical instability:

- overflow and underflow when taking exponents.
- catastrophic cancellation when subtracting two quantities of a similar magnitude.

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Anatomy of log1pmx

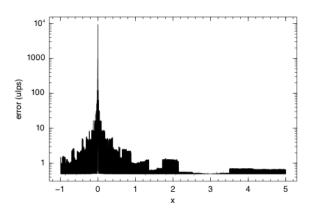
Recall the Taylor expansion

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots, \quad |x| < 1$$

For small x, $\log(1+x) \sim x$: this is why we have a log1p function.

For small
$$x$$
, $\log(1+x) - x \sim -\frac{1}{2}x^2$
julia> x = 1e-20; $\log 1p(x) - x$
0.0
julia> x = big(1e-20); $\log 1p(x) - x$ |> float64
-5.0e-41

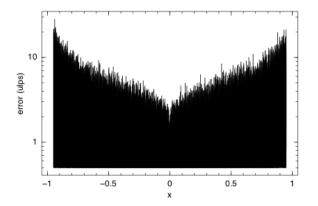
Catastrophic cancellation



- Most libm functions are accurate to < 1 ulp.</p>
- Need to do something better for |x| < -0.95.

Simple series summation

We keep adding terms until the summation stops changing (used by Boost)



- Accrues large round-off error (we're summing from largest to smallest)
- Series is slow to converge: can require up to 618 terms.
- Frequent branching: difficult for compiler to optimise.

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A better series

Let
$$r = \frac{x}{x+2}$$
, then

$$\log(1+x) = 2r + \frac{2}{3}r^3 + \frac{2}{5}r^5 + \dots$$

- Used by log1p in openlibm.
- Half as many terms
- All of the same sign: no cancellation error.

Can be rearranged to obtain useful expressions for log1pmx

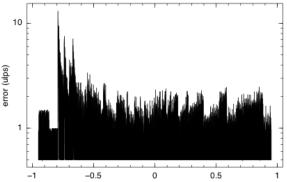
Rmath

Rmath uses this series:

■ For small values: converges in a known number of terms, can be evaluated using a Horner expansion:

$$a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \ldots + a_n x^n = a_0 + x \times (a_1 + x \times (a_2 + \ldots (a_n \times x) \ldots))$$

■ For other |x| < 1, use a continued fraction representation: lower error than the naive approach.



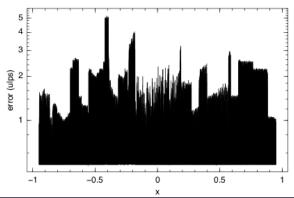
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NSWC library

The NSWC function is based on the same series:

- For small x use the first few terms, plus a rational approximation of the remainder
- For other values, do a range reduction:

$$u = \frac{x - \alpha}{1 + \alpha}$$
, $\log(1 + x) - x = [\log(1 + u) - u] + [\log(1 + \alpha) - \alpha] - \alpha u$



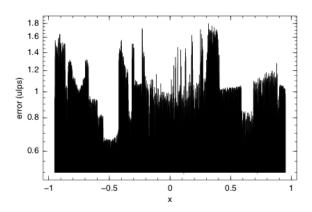
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Some more tweaks

As good as this is, we can still improve further

- The rational approximation is unnecessary.
- Rearrange and use different reductions to exploit exact IEEE floating-point operations: e.g.
 - Multiplying by powers of 2
 - Subtracting numbers of the same magnitude.



Still more to go

Still lots more to do:

■ Incomplete gamma functions: Gamma distribution cdf

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} \int_0^x e^{-t} t^{a-1} dt, \quad \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} \int_x^\infty e^{-t} t^{a-1} dt$$

Incomplete Beta function: Beta distribution cdf

$$\frac{1}{B(a,b)} \int_0^x t^{a-1} (1-t)^{b-1} dt$$

- Inverses of these functions (quantiles)
- Non-central distributions.

Sampling random numbers

- Often different algorithms for different parameters
- \blacksquare *e.g.* Binomial(n,p)
 - Sampling *n* Bernoulli variables infeasible for large *n*.
 - For very small (or large) probabilities:

- Otherwise: use a normal approximation with appropriate corrections.
- Can re-use constants for multiple samples.
 - Rmath uses global variables: not thread safe.
 - We define Sampler types, containing appropriate values
- Polyalgorithm then chooses appropriate method.

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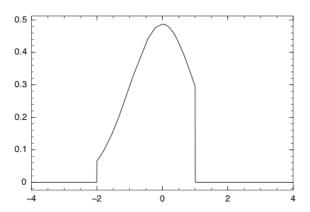
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Truncated types

Currently have a Truncated parametric type for distributions constrained to an interval.

■ Functions (pdf, cdf, quantile) are derived from the underlying distribution.



Often require monotonic transformations of variables (e.g. log, exp, sqrt):

```
immutable TransformDist{D<:UnivariateDistribution,
   F <: Functor}
   dist::D
end</pre>
```

■ Functor is a type representing a function (from Dahua's NumericFuns.jl).

Can derive methods:

```
rand{D,F}(d::TransformDist{D,F}) = evaluate(F,rand(d.dist))
cdf{D,F}(d::TransformDist{D,F},x::Real) =
  cdf(d.dist, evaluate(inv(F),x))
pdf{D,F}(d::TransformDist{D,F},x::Real) =
  pdf(d.dist, evaluate(inv(F),x))*evaluate(grad(inv(F)),x)
```

Sufficient statistics

Many common distributions are exponential families

$$p(x \mid \theta) = h(x) \exp\{s(x)^{\top} t(\theta) - A(\theta)\}\$$

s(x) is a sufficient statistic

- \blacksquare contains all the information about θ from x
- linear: we can summarise data x_1, \ldots, x_n by $\hat{s} = \sum_{i=1}^n s(x_i)$

Define suffstats methods for each distribution:

$$s = suffstats(Gamma, x)$$

Can then be used instead of the data for computing likelihoods, fitting, etc.

- Currently all defined manually for each distribution.
- Seems ripe for some meta-programming trickery.

Orthogonal polynomials

Any univariate probability distribution *P* defines a Hilbert space with inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle_P = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)g(x)dP(x)$$

Applying Gram–Schmidt to the monomials $1, x, x^2, \dots$ gives a sequence of *orthogonal polynomials*. *e.g.*

Normal(0,1): Hermite polynomials: 1, x, $x^2 - 1$, $x^3 - 3x$, ...

Exponential(1): Laguerre polynomials: $1, -x + 1, \frac{1}{2}x^2 - 2x + 1, \dots$

Quadrature rules (Gauss, Clenshaw–Curtis) evaluate numerical integrals via projections onto orthogonal polynomials at a finite number of evaluation points

Could be used for computing expectations:

expectation(Normal(0,1), f)

and more ...

- Constrained estimation
- Conjugate updating
- Graphical models
- Gradients and Hessians
- Float32 methods
- Non-Euclidean sample spaces:
 - Circles
 - Spheres
 - Stiefel manifolds (orthogonal matrices)
 - Orthogonal group (orientation matrices)
 - Combinatorial spaces

Final thoughts

- A great way to learn numerical analysis.
- Convenient BigFloat arithmetic is invaluable.
- Strict IEEE arithmetic with predictable rounding is extremely useful for understanding error.

Challenges/future features

- Access to extended precision arithmetic (Float80/Float128) could improve accuracy.
 - Difficult to implement consistently across platforms.
 - How accurate do we need to be?
- Convenient and consistent syntax for in-place operations.