

An introduction to holonomic gradient method in statistics

Akimichi Takemura, Univ. Tokyo

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Items

1. First example: Airy-like function
2. Holonomic function and holonomic gradient method (HGM)
3. Another example: incomplete gamma function
4. Wishart distribution and hypergeometric function of a matrix argument
5. HGM for two-dimensional Wishart matrix
6. Pfaffian system for general dimension
7. Numerical experiments

- Coauthors on HGM: H.Hashiguchi, T.Koyama, H.Nakayama, K.Nishiyama, M.Noro, Y.Numata, K.Ohara, T.Sei, N.Takayama.
- HGM proposed in “Holonomic gradient descent and its application to the Fisher-Bingham integral”, *Advances in Applied Mathematics*, 47, 639–658. N³OST². 2011.
- We have now about 7 manuscripts on HGM, mainly by Takayama group.
- Wishart discussed in arXiv:1201.0472v3

Ex.1: Airy-like function

An exercise problem by Nobuki Takayama on Sep.16, 2009, during “Kobe Gröbner School”.

Question: Let

$$A(x) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t-xt^3} dt, \quad x > 0.$$

Derive a differential equation satisfied by $A(x)$.

Answer:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= (27x^3 \partial_x^2 + 54x^2 \partial_x + 6x + 1)A(x) \\ &= 27x^3 A''(x) + 54x^2 A'(x) + (6x + 1)A(x). \end{aligned}$$

- Actually this question is pretty hard, even if you are told the answer.
- I was struggling with this problem, wasting lots of papers and wondering why I was doing this exercise.
- After one hour, I suddenly realized that this is indeed an important problem in statistics.

- We try to confirm the given answer.
- First

$$A'(x) = \partial_x \int_0^\infty e^{-t-xt^3} dt = - \int_0^\infty t^3 e^{-t-xt^3} dt$$
$$A''(x) = \int_0^\infty t^6 e^{-t-xt^3} dt.$$

- Hence

$$\begin{aligned} & 27x^3 A''(x) + 54x^2 A'(x) + (6x + 1)A(x) \\ &= \int_0^\infty (27x^3 t^6 - 54x^2 t^3 + 6x + 1)e^{-t-xt^3} dt \\ &= 1 \quad ?? \end{aligned}$$

- Integration by parts:

$$\partial_t e^{-t-xt^3} = -(1 + 3xt^2)e^{-t-xt^3}.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \left[te^{-t-xt^3} \right]_0^\infty \\ &= A(x) - \int_0^\infty t(1 + 3xt^2)e^{-t-xt^3}. \end{aligned}$$

- Similarly, if you work hard and work out

$$1 = \left[(-9x^2t^4 + 3xt^2 + 6xt - 1)e^{-t-xt^3} \right]_0^\infty$$

by integration by parts (how did you get this?), you obtain the answer:

$$\int_0^\infty (27x^3t^6 - 54x^2t^3 + 6x + 1)e^{-t-xt^3} dt = 1.$$

- Believe and try

$$\begin{aligned} & (-9x^2t^4 + 3xt^2 + 6xt - 1)' + (9x^2t^4 - 3xt^2 - 6xt + 1)(1 + 3xt^2) \\ &= (-36x^2t^3 + 6xt + 6x) + (9x^2t^4 - 3xt^2 - 6xt + 1) \\ &\quad + (27x^3t^6 - 9x^2t^4 - 18x^2t^3 + 3xt^2) \\ &= 27x^3t^6 - 54x^2t^3 + 6x + 1 \quad (\mathbf{OK!}) \end{aligned}$$

- Actually Prof. Takayama (or one of his students) did this by computer, asking us to do this by hand(!)
 - ← Integration algorithm for D -modules based on Gröbner basis for D -modules

Is this exercise related to statistics?

- Change the notation and let

$$A(\theta) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x-\theta x^3} dx.$$

- Let

$$f(x; \theta) = \frac{1}{A(\theta)} e^{-x-\theta x^3}, \quad x, \theta > 0.$$

- This is an exponential family with the sufficient statistic $T(x) = x^3$. (We can absorb e^{-x} into the base measure dx .)

- Therefore we are evaluating the normalizing constant and its derivatives of an exponential family.
- We now know

$$1 = 27\theta^3 A''(\theta) + 54\theta^2 A'(\theta) + (6\theta + 1)A(\theta).$$

- Hence the Fisher information $A''(\theta)$ is automatically obtained from $A(\theta)$ and $A'(\theta)$.

- Suppose that we have independent observations x_1, \dots, x_n from $f(x; \theta)$.
- Then the log likelihood $\ell(\theta)$ is written as

$$\ell(\theta) = -\theta \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^3 - n \log A(\theta)$$

and the likelihood equation is

$$0 = -\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^3 - n \frac{A'(\theta)}{A(\theta)}.$$

- Can we numerically evaluate $A(\theta)$ and $A'(\theta)$?
(Also $A''(\theta)$ for Newton-Raphson?)

- For illustration, we use simple linear approximation (Euler method for numerical integration).

$$A(\theta + \Delta\theta) \doteq A(\theta) + \Delta\theta A'(\theta)$$

$$A'(\theta + \Delta\theta) \doteq A'(\theta) + \Delta\theta A''(\theta).$$

- But from the differential equation we know

$$A''(\theta) = \frac{1}{27\theta^3} (1 - (6\theta + 1)A(\theta) - 54\theta^2 A'(\theta)).$$

- Punch line: if you keep numerical values of $A(\theta)$, $A'(\theta)$ at one point θ , then you can compute these values at nearby $\theta + \Delta\theta$.
- At each point, higher-order derivatives $A''(\theta)$, $A'''(\theta), \dots$, can be computed as needed.
- Hence by numerically solving ODE, you can compute $A(\theta)$ and its derivatives at any point
→ “Holonomic Gradient Method”
- For explanation we used Euler method, but in our actual implementation we use Runge-Kutta method to solve ODE.

Holonomic function and holonomic gradient method (HGM)

Univariate homogeneous case:

- A smooth function f is holonomic if f satisfies the following ODE

$$0 = h_k(x)f^{(k)}(x) + \cdots + h_1(x)f'(x) + h_0(x)f(x),$$

where $h_k(x), \dots, h_1(x), h_0(x)$ are rational functions of x .

- Approximation

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \begin{pmatrix} f(x + \Delta x) \\ f'(x + \Delta x) \\ \vdots \\ f^{(k-1)}(x + \Delta x) \end{pmatrix} \\
 & \doteq \left[I_k + \Delta x \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \\ -\frac{h_0(x)}{h_k(x)} & -\frac{h_1(x)}{h_k(x)} & \dots & -\frac{h_{k-1}(x)}{h_k(x)} & \dots \end{pmatrix} \right] \begin{pmatrix} f(x) \\ f'(x) \\ \vdots \\ f^{(k-1)}(x) \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Multivariate case (for simplicity let $\dim = 2$)

- A smooth $f(x, y)$ is holonomic if for each of x and y , fixing the other variable arbitrarily, we have a holonomic function in x and y .
- Namely, if there exist rational functions $h_0^1(x, y), \dots, h_{k_1}^1(x, y), h_0^2(x, y), \dots, h_{k_2}^2(x, y)$ in x, y such that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k_1} h_i^1(x, y) \partial_x^i f(x, y) = 0,$$
$$\sum_{i=0}^{k_2} h_i^2(x, y) \partial_y^i f(x, y) = 0.$$

- Consider $\partial_x^{r_1} \partial_y^{r_2} f(x, y)$. If $r_1 \geq k_1$ or $r_2 \geq k_2$, we can always compute this by recursively applying the differential equations.
- As in the univariate case, if we keep numerical values of $\partial_x^i \partial_y^j f(x, y)$ in the range $i = 0, \dots, k_1 - 1$, $j = 0, \dots, k_2 - 1$, then we can always compute other higher-order derivatives.
- We can also approximate

$$\partial_x^i \partial_y^j f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y)$$

by the values $\{\partial_x^i \partial_y^j f(x, y)\}_{i=0, \dots, k_1-1, j=0, \dots, k_2-1}$.

- We usually only need to keep a subset of $\{\partial_x^i \partial_y^j f(x, y)\}_{i=0, \dots, k_1-1, j=0, \dots, k_2-1}$ in memory. The subset is given by the set of standard monomials obtained by the division algorithm based on a Gröbner basis.

Which functions are holonomic (Zeilberger(1990))?

- Polynomials and rational functions are holonomic.
- $\exp(\text{rational}), \log(\text{rational})$ are holonomic.
- $f, g : \text{holonomic} \Rightarrow f + g, f \times g : \text{holonomic}$
- $f(x_1, \dots, x_m) : \text{holonomic}$
 $\Rightarrow \int f(x_1, \dots, x_m) dx_m : \text{holonomic}$
- Restriction of a holonomic f to an affine subspace is holonomic.

- Holonomocity is also defined for generalized functions.
- From the above properties, it is often easy to tell that a given function (such as the Airy-like function) is holonomic, i.e., it must satisfy a differential equation with rational function coefficients.
- The problem is to find the explicit form of the differential equation.

Ex.2: Incomplete Gamma function

- Consider incomplete Gamma function

$$G(x) = \int_0^x y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy, \quad \alpha, x > 0.$$

- From general theory, $G(x)$ is holonomic.
- We integrate in the opposite direction and change scale:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^x (x-y)^{\alpha-1} e^{-(x-y)} dy &= x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x} \int_0^x \left(1 - \frac{y}{x}\right)^{\alpha-1} e^y dy \\ &= x^{\alpha} e^{-x} \int_0^1 (1-z)^{\alpha-1} e^{xz} dz \end{aligned}$$

- Expand e^{xz} into Taylor series (not clever?)

$$G(x) = x^\alpha e^{-x} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} x^k \int_0^1 (1-z)^{\alpha-1} z^k dz$$

$$= x^\alpha e^{-x} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(k+1)}{k!\Gamma(\alpha+k+1)} x^k$$

$$= \frac{1}{\alpha} x^\alpha e^{-x} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1)_k}{(\alpha+1)_k k!} x^k$$

$$(a)_k = a(a+1)\dots(a+k-1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\alpha} x^\alpha e^{-x} {}_1F_1(1; \alpha+1; x)$$

- Confluent hypergeometric function ${}_1F_1$

$$F = {}_1F_1(a; c; x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(a)_k}{(c)_k k!} x^k$$

- Differential equation (ODE) satisfied by F :

$$xF''(x) + (c - x)F'(x) - aF = 0$$

(Comparison of coefficients: $\frac{a+k}{c+k}k + c\frac{a+k}{c+k} - k - a = 0$)

- “Holonomic gradient method”: We obtain the value of $F(x + \Delta x)$ from $F(x)$ by solving the ODE.
- If we know $F'(x)$, then we can do the following

$$F(x + \Delta x) \doteq F(x) + \Delta x F'(x)$$

- For the next step we also need to update $F'(x + \Delta x)$:

$$F'(x + \Delta x) \doteq F'(x) + \Delta x F''(x)$$

- Further we need $F''(x)$, But note that at any x we have

$$F''(x) = -((c - x)F'(x) - aF(x))\frac{1}{x}.$$

Hence we can keep only $(F(x), F'(x))$ in memory. We can always compute higher-order derivatives from these two.

- In summary, we can use the updating procedure

$$\begin{bmatrix} F(x) \\ F'(x) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} F(x) + \Delta x F'(x) \\ F'(x) + \Delta x F''(x) \end{bmatrix}.$$

- In matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} F(x) \\ F'(x) \end{bmatrix} + \Delta x \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{a}{x} & -\frac{c-x}{x} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F(x) \\ F'(x) \end{bmatrix}.$$

- How about the initial value? Use the series expansion at $x \doteq 0$.
- At $x = 0$ our ODE has singularity. Hence we have to step away from $x = 0$ by tiny amount.
- Generalization to matrix argument?

Wishart distribution and hypergeometric function of a matrix argument

- W : $m \times m$ symmetric positive definite ($W > 0$)
- Density of Wishart distribution with d.f. n and covariance matrix $\Sigma > 0$:

$$f(W) = C \times \frac{|W|^{\frac{n-m-1}{2}}}{|\Sigma|^{\frac{n}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\text{tr}W\Sigma^{-1}\right)$$

- C is known (containing gamma functions).

- ℓ_1 : the largest root of W
- We want to evaluate the probability $\Pr(\ell_1 < x)$.

$$\ell_1 < x \Leftrightarrow W < xI_m,$$

where $I_m : m \times m$ is the identity matrix

- Hence the probability is given in the incomplete gamma form:

$$\Pr(\ell_1 < x) = C \int_{0 < W < xI_m} \frac{|W|^{\frac{n-m-1}{2}}}{|\Sigma|^{\frac{n}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\text{tr}W\Sigma^{-1}\right) dW$$

- From general theory $\Pr(\ell_1 < x)$ is holonomic.

- Just as in $\text{dim}=1$, $\Pr(\ell_1 < x)$ is written as

$$C' \exp\left(-\frac{x}{2}\text{tr}\Sigma^{-1}\right) x^{\frac{1}{2}nm} {}_1F_1\left(\frac{m+1}{2}; \frac{n+m+1}{2}; \frac{x}{2}\Sigma^{-1}\right)$$

- Hypergeometric function of a matrix argument (Herz(1955)):

$${}_1F_1(a; c; Y) = \frac{\Gamma_m(c)}{\Gamma_m(a)\Gamma_m(c-a)} \int_{0 < X < I_m} \exp(\text{tr}XY) \\ \times |X|^{a-(m+1)/2} |I_m - X|^{c-a-(m+1)/2} dX,$$

where

$$\Gamma_m(a) = \pi^{\frac{1}{4}m(m-1)} \prod_{i=1}^m \Gamma\left(a - \frac{i-1}{2}\right).$$

- ${}_1F_1(a; c; Y)$ is a symmetric function of characteristic roots of $Y \Rightarrow$ its series expression is written in terms of symmetric polynomials.
- Zonal polynomials (A.T.James)

$$C_\kappa(Y), \quad \kappa \vdash k$$

homogeneous symmetric polynomial of degree k in the characteristic roots of Y .

- Pochhammer symbol:

$$(a)_\kappa = \prod_{i=1}^l \left(a - \frac{i-1}{2} \right)_{k_i}, \quad (a)_{k_i} = \prod_{j=1}^{k_i} (a + j - 1)$$

- Series expansion of ${}_1F_1$ (Constantine(1963))

$${}_1F_1(a; c; Y) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{\kappa \vdash k} \frac{(a)_{\kappa} \mathcal{C}_{\kappa}(Y)}{(c)_{\kappa} k!}.$$

- This is a beautiful mathematical result.
However for numerical computation, zonal polynomials have enormous combinatorial difficulties and statisticians pretty much forgot zonal polynomials.

- The partial differential equation satisfied by $F(Y) = {}_1F_1(a; c; y_1, \dots, y_m)$ was obtained by Muirhead(1970).

$$g_i F = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, m,$$

where

$$g_i = y_i \partial_i^2 + (c - y_i) \partial_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{y_j}{y_i - y_j} (\partial_i - \partial_j) - a.$$

- Can we use this PDE for numerical computation? (People never tried this for 40 years).
- **Works!** works very well up to dimension $m = 10!$

like Columbus's Egg

Holonomic gradient method for dimension two

- Two partial differential equations

$$\left[y_1 \partial_1^2 + (c - y_1) \partial_1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{y_2}{y_1 - y_2} (\partial_1 - \partial_2) - a \right] F = 0,$$

$$\left[y_2 \partial_2^2 + (c - y_2) \partial_2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{y_1}{y_2 - y_1} (\partial_2 - \partial_1) - a \right] F = 0.$$

- Let us compute higher-order derivative from these equations.

- Divide the second equation by y_2 and write

$$\partial_1^{n_1} \partial_2^{n_2} F = \partial_1^{n_1} \partial_2^{n_2-2} \left(-\frac{c}{y_2} \partial_2 + \partial_2 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{y_1}{y_2(y_2 - y_1)} (\partial_2 - \partial_1) + \frac{a}{y_2} \right) F.$$

- The RHS becomes messy, but an important fact is that the number of differentiations is reduced by **1**.
- We can reduce the number of differentiations as long as there are more than 1 differentiations with respect to each variable.

- This implies that all higher-order derivatives can be written as a rational function combination of the following 4 square-free mixed derivatives:

$$F(Y), \partial_1 F(Y), \partial_2 F(Y), \partial_1 \partial_2 F(Y).$$

- In algebraic terminology, let $K = \mathbb{C}(y_1, y_2)$ the field of rational functions and let

$$R = K \langle \partial_1, \partial_2 \rangle = \mathbb{C}(y_1, y_2) \langle \partial_1, \partial_2 \rangle$$

be the ring of differential operators.

- We take graded lexicographic term order as the term order.

Theorem 1 $\{g_1, g_2\}$ is a Gröbner basis and $\{1, \partial_1, \partial_2, \partial_1\partial_2\}$ is the set of standard monomials.

(This theorem hold for general dimension.)

- [Division algorithm] by repeating the differentiations, for each n_1, n_2 there exist rational functions $h_{00}^{(n_1, n_2)}, h_{10}^{(n_1, n_2)}, h_{01}^{(n_1, n_2)}, h_{11}^{(n_1, n_2)}$ in y_1, y_2 , such that

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_1^{n_1} \partial_2^{n_2} F &= h_{00}^{(n_1, n_2)} F + h_{10}^{(n_1, n_2)} \partial_1 F + h_{01}^{(n_1, n_2)} \partial_2 F \\ &\quad + h_{11}^{(n_1, n_2)} \partial_1 \partial_2 F. \end{aligned}$$

- Hence we only keep $F(Y), \partial_1 F(Y), \partial_2 F(Y), \partial_1 \partial_2 F(Y)$ in memory. We can always compute higher-order derivatives from these 4 values. (For dimension m , we need to keep 2^m square-free mixed derivatives in memory.)

- Actually for $m = 2$ we only need $\partial_1 \partial_2^2 F$.

$$\begin{aligned}
\partial_1 \partial_2^2 F &= \partial_1 \left(-\frac{c - y_2}{y_2} \partial_2 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{y_1}{y_2 (y_2 - y_1)} (\partial_2 - \partial_1) + \frac{a}{y_2} \right) F \\
&= \left(-\frac{c - y_2}{y_2} \partial_1 \partial_2 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{(y_2 - y_1)^2} (\partial_2 - \partial_1) \right. \\
&\quad \left. - \frac{1}{2} \frac{y_1}{y_2 (y_2 - y_1)} (\partial_1 \partial_2 - \partial_1^2) + \frac{a}{y_2} \partial_1 \right) F.
\end{aligned}$$

(By symmetry, $\partial_1^2 \partial F$ is obtained by the interchange $y_1 \leftrightarrow y_2$.)

- We further substitute ∂_1^2 to the RHS

- **Result:**

$$\begin{aligned}
\partial_1 \partial_2^2 F &= \frac{a}{2y_2(y_2 - y_1)} F \\
&+ \left(\frac{3}{4} \frac{1}{(y_2 - y_1)^2} + \frac{a}{y_2} - \frac{c - y_1}{2y_2(y_2 - y_1)} \right) \partial_1 F \\
&- \frac{3}{4} \frac{1}{(y_2 - y_1)^2} \partial_2 F \\
&- \left(\frac{c - y_2}{y_2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{y_1}{y_2(y_2 - y_1)} \right) \partial_1 \partial_2 F \\
&= h_{00}^{(1,2)} F + h_{10}^{(1,2)} \partial_1 F + h_{01}^{(1,2)} \partial_2 F + h_{11}^{(1,2)} \partial_1 \partial_2 F.
\end{aligned}$$

- Then as in the one-dimensional case, we can update:

$$F(y_1 + \Delta y_1, y_2 + \Delta y_2)$$

$$\doteq F(y_1, y_2) + \Delta y_1 \partial_1 F(y_1, y_2) + \Delta y_2 \partial_2 F(y_1, y_2),$$

$$\partial_1 F(y_1 + \Delta y_1, y_2 + \Delta y_2)$$

$$\doteq \partial_1 F(y_1, y_2) + \Delta y_1 \partial_1^2 F(y_1, y_2) + \Delta y_2 \partial_1 \partial_2 F(y_1, y_2),$$

[$\partial_2 F$ is similar]

$$\partial_1 \partial_2 F(y_1 + \Delta y_1, y_2 + \Delta y_2)$$

$$\doteq \partial_1 \partial_2 F(y_1, y_2) + \Delta y_1 \partial_1^2 \partial_2 F(y_1, y_2) + \Delta y_2 \partial_1 \partial_2^2 F(y_1, y_2).$$

- Let $\vec{F} = (F, \partial_1 F, \partial_2 F, \partial_1 \partial_2 F)^t$

- Our updating formula is

$$\vec{F}(Y + \Delta Y) \doteq \vec{F}(Y) + \Delta y_1 \times P_1(Y) \vec{F}(Y) + \Delta y_2 \times P_2(Y) \vec{F}(Y),$$

where P_1, P_2 are 4×4 matrices consisting of rational functions in Y and called **Pfaffian system**.

- This simple form works for dimension two very well.
- For general dimension m , the matrices in the Pfaffian system are $2^m \times 2^m$. The size is $2^m = 1024$ for $m = 10$.

Pfaffian system for general dimension

- Theorem 1 on the non-diagonal region holds for general dimension.
- For Pfaffian system, we should leave the recursive form as it is, without really expanding the recursive form.

- For $J \subset \{1, \dots, m\}$, denote the square-free derivative w.r.t. variables in J as

$$\partial_J = \prod_{j \in J} \partial_j.$$

- We need $\partial_J \partial_i^2 F = \partial_i^2 \partial_J F$ for $i \notin J$.

- Let $I = J \cup \{i\}$. Collect square-free terms in $\partial_J g_i$ as

$$\begin{aligned}
r(i, J; y) = & - \left[(c - y_i) \partial_I - a \partial_J + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \notin I} \frac{y_k}{y_i - y_k} (\partial_I - \partial_J \partial_k) \right. \\
& + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \in J} \frac{y_k}{y_i - y_k} \partial_I \\
& \left. + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \in J} \frac{y_i}{(y_i - y_k)^2} (\partial_i \partial_{J \setminus \{k\}} - \partial_J) \right].
\end{aligned}$$

- Separating terms, for which we need recursive differentiations in $\partial_i^2 \partial_J F$, we have

$$y_i \partial_i^2 \partial_J F = r(i, J; y) F + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \in J} \frac{1}{y_i - y_k} (y_k \partial_k^2 \partial_{J \setminus \{k\}}) F.$$

- This form is suitable for efficient programming (done by N.Takayama).

- When we expand the recursion to the end, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
y_i \partial_i^2 \partial_J F &= r(i, J; y) F + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k_1 \in J} \frac{1}{y_i - y_{k_1}} r(k_1, J \setminus \{k_1\}; y) F \\
&+ \frac{1}{4} \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2 \in J \\ k_1, k_2: \text{distinct}}} \frac{1}{(y_i - y_{k_1})(y_{k_1} - y_{k_2})} r(k_2, J \setminus \{k_1, k_2\}; y) F \\
&+ \dots \\
&+ \frac{1}{2^{|J|}} \sum_{\substack{k_1, \dots, k_{|J|} \in J \\ k_1, \dots, k_{|J|}: \text{distinct}}} \frac{1}{(y_i - y_{k_1}) \dots (y_{k_{|J|-1}} - y_{k_{|J|}})} r(k_{|J|}, \emptyset; y) F.
\end{aligned}$$

- This form is also useful for theoretical consideration of the Pfaffian system.
- The problem of initial values is also difficult in general dimension. N.Takayama expanded the algorithm of Koev-Edelman(2006) to handle partial derivatives.

Numerical experiments

- Statisticians need good numerical performance (recall zonal polynomials).
- We were not sure whether it works up to dimension $m = 10$.
- How can we check the numerical accuracy?
 - The initial value is taken to be close to zero. We can check the numerical convergence $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\ell_1 < x) = 1$.

– The following easy bounds are available:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[\ell_1 < x | \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_1^2)] \\ &\leq \Pr[\ell_1 < x | \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_m^2)] \\ &\leq \Pr[\ell_1 < x | \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2, 0, \dots, 0)].\end{aligned}$$

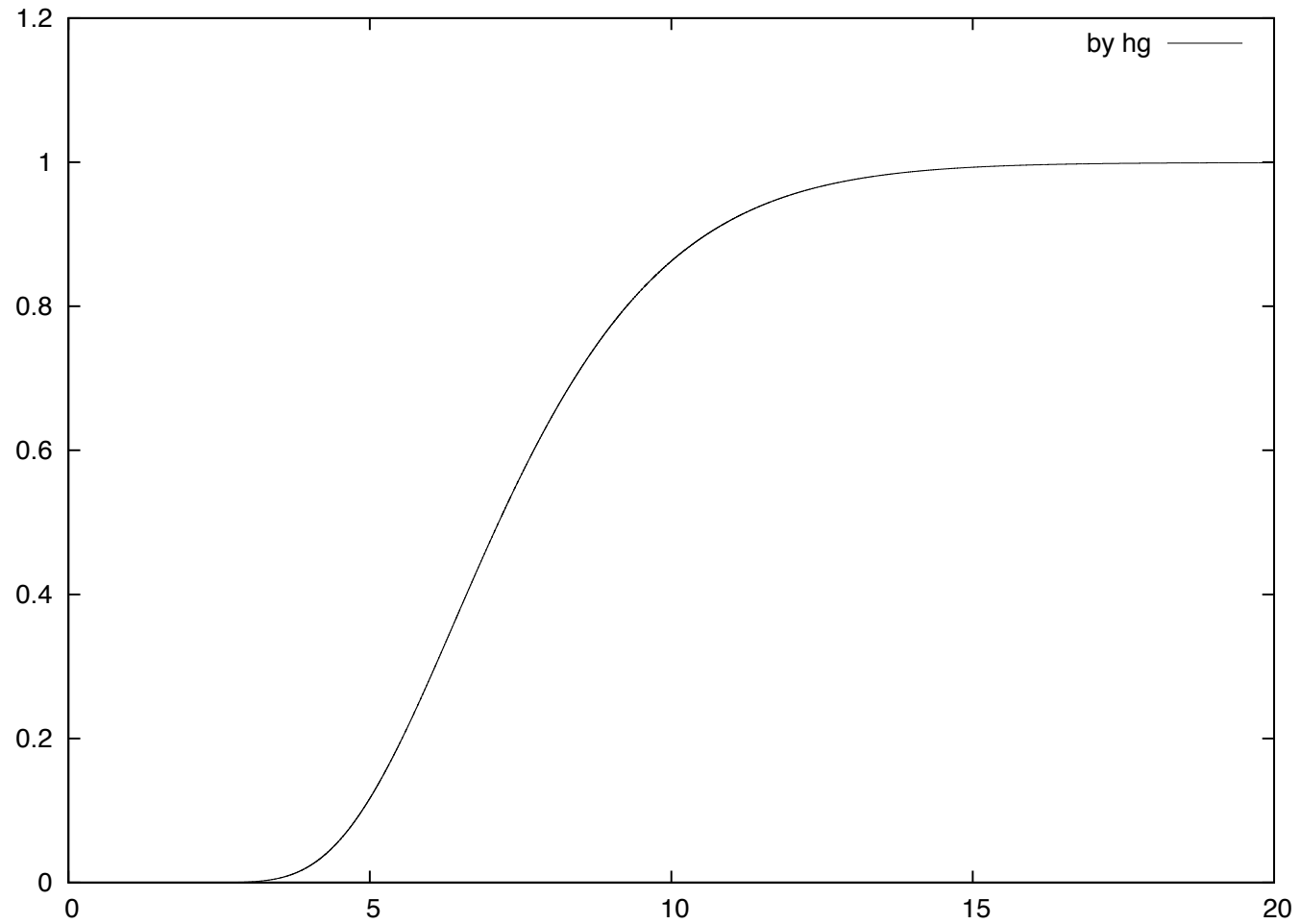
- **Example:** $m = 10$, d.f. $n = 12$,
 $\Sigma^{-1} = 2 \text{diag}(1, 2, \dots, 10)$.

- For $x = 30$ the bounds are $(0.99866943, 0.999999998)$.
- Intel Core i7 machine. The computation of the initial value at $x_0 = 0.2$ takes 20 seconds. Then with the step size 0.001, we solve the PDE up to $x = 30$, which takes 75 seconds. Output:

$$\Pr[\ell_1 < 30] = 0.999545$$

- This accuracy is somewhat amazing, if we consider that we updated a 1024-dimensional vector 30,000 times.

- Plot of the cumulative distribution



Summary

- Holonomic gradient method is practical if we implement it efficiently.
- Our approach brought a totally new approach to a longstanding difficult problem in multivariate statistics.
- Holonomic gradient methods is general and can be applied to many problems.
- We stand at the beginning of applications of D -module theory to statistics!