

G *Julia*

Julia is a scientific programming language that is free and open source.¹ It is a relatively new language that borrows inspiration from languages like Python, MATLAB, and R. It was selected for use in this book because it is sufficiently high level² so that the algorithms can be compactly expressed and readable while also being fast. This book is compatible with Julia version 1.7. This appendix introduces the concepts necessary for understanding the included code, omitting many of the advanced features of the language.

¹ Julia may be obtained from <http://julialang.org>.

² In contrast with languages like C++, Julia does not require programmers to worry about memory management and other lower-level details, yet it allows low-level control when needed.

G.1 *Types*

Julia has a variety of basic types that can represent data given as truth values, numbers, strings, arrays, tuples, and dictionaries. Users can also define their own types. This section explains how to use some of the basic types and how to define new types.

G.1.1 *Booleans*

The *Boolean* type in Julia, written as `Bool`, includes the values `true` and `false`. We can assign these values to variables. Variable names can be any string of characters, including Unicode, with a few restrictions.

```
α = true  
done = false
```

The variable name appears on the left side of the equal sign; the value that variable is to be assigned is on the right side.

We can make assignments in the Julia console. The console, or REPL (for read, eval, print, loop), will return a response to the expression being evaluated. The # symbol indicates that the rest of the line is a comment.

```
julia> x = true
true
julia> y = false; # semicolon suppresses the console output
julia> typeof(x)
Bool
julia> x == y # test for equality
false
```

The standard Boolean operators are supported:

```
julia> !x # not
false
julia> x && y # and
false
julia> x || y # or
true
```

G.1.2 Numbers

Julia supports integer and floating-point numbers, as shown here:

```
julia> typeof(42)
Int64
julia> typeof(42.0)
Float64
```

Here, `Int64` denotes a 64-bit integer, and `Float64` denotes a 64-bit floating-point value.³ We can perform the standard mathematical operations:

```
julia> x = 4
4
julia> y = 2
2
julia> x + y
6
julia> x - y
2
julia> x * y
8
julia> x / y
2.0
```

³On 32-bit machines, an integer literal like `42` is interpreted as an `Int32`.

```

julia> x ^ y # exponentiation
16
julia> x % y # remainder from division
0
julia> div(x, y) # truncated division returns an integer
2

```

Note that the result of x / y is a `Float64`, even when x and y are integers. We can also perform these operations at the same time as an assignment. For example, $x += 1$ is shorthand for $x = x + 1$.

We can also make comparisons:

```

julia> 3 > 4
false
julia> 3 >= 4
false
julia> 3 ≥ 4 # unicode also works, use \ge[tab] in console
false
julia> 3 < 4
true
julia> 3 <= 4
true
julia> 3 ≤ 4 # unicode also works, use \le[tab] in console
true
julia> 3 == 4
false
julia> 3 < 4 < 5
true

```

G.1.3 Strings

A *string* is an array of characters. Strings are not used very much in this textbook except to report certain errors. An object of type `String` can be constructed using `"` characters. For example:

```

julia> x = "optimal"
"optimal"
julia> typeof(x)
String

```

G.1.4 Symbols

A *symbol* represents an identifier. It can be written using the `:` operator or constructed from strings:

```
julia> :A
:A
julia> :Battery
:Battery
julia> Symbol("Failure")
:Failure
```

G.1.5 Vectors

A *vector* is a one-dimensional array that stores a sequence of values. We can construct a vector using square brackets, separating elements by commas:

```
julia> x = []; # empty vector
julia> x = trues(3); # Boolean vector containing three trues
julia> x = ones(3); # vector of three ones
julia> x = zeros(3); # vector of three zeros
julia> x = rand(3); # vector of three random numbers between 0 and 1
julia> x = [3, 1, 4]; # vector of integers
julia> x = [3.1415, 1.618, 2.7182]; # vector of floats
```

An *array comprehension* can be used to create vectors:

```
julia> [sin(x) for x in 1:5]
5-element Vector{Float64}:
 0.8414709848078965
 0.9092974268256817
 0.1411200080598672
-0.7568024953079282
-0.9589242746631385
```

We can inspect the type of a vector:

```
julia> typeof([3, 1, 4]) # 1-dimensional array of Int64s
Vector{Int64} (alias for Array{Int64, 1})
julia> typeof([3.1415, 1.618, 2.7182]) # 1-dimensional array of Float64s
Vector{Float64} (alias for Array{Float64, 1})
julia> Vector{Float64} # alias for a 1-dimensional array
Vector{Float64} (alias for Array{Float64, 1})
```

We index into vectors using square brackets:

```

julia> x[1]      # first element is indexed by 1
3.1415
julia> x[3]      # third element
2.7182
julia> x[end]    # use end to reference the end of the array
2.7182
julia> x[end-1] # this returns the second to last element
1.618

```

We can pull out a range of elements from an array. Ranges are specified using a colon notation:

```

julia> x = [1, 2, 5, 3, 1]
5-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 2
 5
 3
 1
julia> x[1:3]      # pull out the first three elements
3-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 2
 5
julia> x[1:2:end] # pull out every other element
3-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 5
 1
julia> x[end:-1:1] # pull out all the elements in reverse order
5-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 3
 5
 2
 1

```

We can perform a variety of operations on arrays. The exclamation mark at the end of function names is used to indicate that the function *mutates* (i.e., changes) the input:

```

julia> length(x)
5
julia> [x, x]      # concatenation
2-element Vector{Vector{Int64}}:

```

```

[1, 2, 5, 3, 1]
[1, 2, 5, 3, 1]
julia> push!(x, -1)      # add an element to the end
6-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 2
 5
 3
 1
-1
julia> pop!(x)          # remove an element from the end
-1
julia> append!(x, [2, 3]) # append [2, 3] to the end of x
7-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 2
 5
 3
 1
 2
 3
julia> sort!(x)         # sort the elements, altering the same vector
7-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 1
 2
 2
 3
 3
 5
julia> sort(x);        # sort the elements as a new vector
julia> x[1] = 2; print(x) # change the first element to 2
[2, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 5]
julia> x = [1, 2];
julia> y = [3, 4];
julia> x + y           # add vectors
2-element Vector{Int64}:
 4
 6
julia> 3x - [1, 2]    # multiply by a scalar and subtract
2-element Vector{Int64}:
 2
 4
julia> using LinearAlgebra

```

```

julia> dot(x, y)           # dot product available after using LinearAlgebra
11
julia> x ⋅ y               # dot product using unicode character, use \cdot[tab] in console
11
julia> prod(y)            # product of all the elements in y
12

```

It is often useful to apply various functions elementwise to vectors. This is a form of *broadcasting*. With infix operators (e.g., `+`, `*`, and `^`), a dot is prefixed to indicate elementwise broadcasting. With functions like `sqrt` and `sin`, the dot is postfixed:

```

julia> x .* y             # elementwise multiplication
2-element Vector{Int64}:
 3
 8
julia> x .^ 2            # elementwise squaring
2-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 4
julia> sin.(x)           # elementwise application of sin
2-element Vector{Float64}:
 0.8414709848078965
 0.9092974268256817
julia> sqrt.(x)          # elementwise application of sqrt
2-element Vector{Float64}:
 1.0
 1.4142135623730951

```

G.1.6 Matrices

A *matrix* is a two-dimensional array. Like a vector, it is constructed using square brackets. We use spaces to delimit elements in the same row and semicolons to delimit rows. We can also index into the matrix and output submatrices using ranges:

```

julia> X = [1 2 3; 4 5 6; 7 8 9; 10 11 12];
julia> typeof(X)         # a 2-dimensional array of Int64s
Matrix{Int64} (alias for Array{Int64, 2})
julia> X[2]              # second element using column-major ordering
4
julia> X[3,2]            # element in third row and second column
8

```

```

Julia> X[1,:] # extract the first row
3-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 2
 3
Julia> X[:,2] # extract the second column
4-element Vector{Int64}:
 2
 5
 8
11
Julia> X[:,1:2] # extract the first two columns
4x2 Matrix{Int64}:
 1  2
 4  5
 7  8
10 11
Julia> X[1:2,1:2] # extract a 2x2 submatrix from the top left of x
2x2 Matrix{Int64}:
 1  2
 4  5
Julia> Matrix{Float64} # alias for a 2-dimensional array
Matrix{Float64} (alias for Array{Float64, 2})

```

We can also construct a variety of special matrices and use array comprehensions:

```

Julia> Matrix(1.0I, 3, 3) # 3x3 identity matrix
3x3 Matrix{Float64}:
 1.0  0.0  0.0
 0.0  1.0  0.0
 0.0  0.0  1.0
Julia> Matrix(Diagonal([3, 2, 1])) # 3x3 diagonal matrix with 3, 2, 1 on diagonal
3x3 Matrix{Int64}:
 3  0  0
 0  2  0
 0  0  1
Julia> zeros(3,2) # 3x2 matrix of zeros
3x2 Matrix{Float64}:
 0.0  0.0
 0.0  0.0
 0.0  0.0
Julia> rand(3,2) # 3x2 random matrix
3x2 Matrix{Float64}:
 0.41794  0.881486

```



```

0.14916  0.534639
0.736357 0.850574
julia> [sin(x + y) for x in 1:3, y in 1:2] # array comprehension
3×2 Matrix{Float64}:
 0.909297  0.141112
 0.141112 -0.756802
-0.756802 -0.958924

```

Matrix operations include the following:

```

julia> X' # complex conjugate transpose
3×4 adjoint(::Matrix{Int64}) with eltype Int64:
 1  4  7 10
 2  5  8 11
 3  6  9 12
julia> 3X .+ 2 # multiplying by scalar and adding scalar
4×3 Matrix{Int64}:
 5  8 11
14 17 20
23 26 29
32 35 38
julia> X = [1 3; 3 1]; # create an invertible matrix
julia> inv(X) # inversion
2×2 Matrix{Float64}:
-0.125  0.375
 0.375 -0.125
julia> pinv(X) # pseudoinverse (requires LinearAlgebra)
2×2 Matrix{Float64}:
-0.125  0.375
 0.375 -0.125
julia> det(X) # determinant (requires LinearAlgebra)
-8.0
julia> [X X] # horizontal concatenation, same as hcat(X, X)
2×4 Matrix{Int64}:
 1  3  1  3
 3  1  3  1
julia> [X; X] # vertical concatenation, same as vcat(X, X)
4×2 Matrix{Int64}:
 1  3
 3  1
 1  3
 3  1
julia> sin.(X) # elementwise application of sin
2×2 Matrix{Float64}:
 0.841471  0.141112

```

```

0.14112 0.841471
julia> map(sin, X) # elementwise application of sin
2×2 Matrix{Float64}:
 0.841471 0.14112
 0.14112 0.841471
julia> vec(X) # reshape an array as a vector
4-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 3
 3
 1

```

G.1.7 Tuples

A *tuple* is an ordered list of values, potentially of different types. They are constructed with parentheses. They are similar to vectors, but they cannot be mutated:

```

julia> x = () # the empty tuple
()
julia> isempty(x)
true
julia> x = (1,) # tuples of one element need the trailing comma
(1,)
julia> typeof(x)
Tuple{Int64}
julia> x = (1, 0, [1, 2], 2.5029, 4.6692) # third element is a vector
(1, 0, [1, 2], 2.5029, 4.6692)
julia> typeof(x)
Tuple{Int64, Int64, Vector{Int64}, Float64, Float64}
julia> x[2]
0
julia> x[end]
4.6692
julia> x[4:end]
(2.5029, 4.6692)
julia> length(x)
5
julia> x = (1, 2)
(1, 2)
julia> a, b = x;
julia> a
1
julia> b
2

```

G.1.8 Named Tuples

A *named tuple* is like a tuple, but each entry has its own name:

```

julia> x = (a=1, b=-Inf)
(a = 1, b = -Inf)
julia> x isa NamedTuple
true
julia> x.a
1
julia> a, b = x;
julia> a
1
julia> (; :a⇒10)
(a = 10,)
julia> (; :a⇒10, :b⇒11)
(a = 10, b = 11)
julia> merge(x, (d=3, e=10)) # merge two named tuples
(a = 1, b = -Inf, d = 3, e = 10)

```

G.1.9 Dictionaries

A *dictionary* is a collection of key-value pairs. Key-value pairs are indicated with a double arrow operator `=>`. We can index into a dictionary using square brackets, just as with arrays and tuples:

```

julia> x = Dict(); # empty dictionary
julia> x[3] = 4 # associate key 3 with value 4
4
julia> x = Dict{3⇒4, 5⇒1} # create a dictionary with two key-value pairs
Dict{Int64, Int64} with 2 entries:
 5 ⇒ 1
 3 ⇒ 4
julia> x[5] # return the value associated with key 5
1
julia> haskey(x, 3) # check whether dictionary has key 3
true
julia> haskey(x, 4) # check whether dictionary has key 4
false

```

G.1.10 Composite Types

A *composite type* is a collection of named fields. By default, an instance of a composite type is immutable (i.e., it cannot change). We use the `struct` keyword and then give the new type a name and list the names of the fields:

```
struct A
    a
    b
end
```

Adding the keyword `mutable` makes it so that an instance can change:

```
mutable struct B
    a
    b
end
```

Composite types are constructed using parentheses, between which we pass in values for each field:

```
x = A(1.414, 1.732)
```

The double-colon operator can be used to specify the type for any field:

```
struct A
    a::Int64
    b::Float64
end
```

These type annotations require that we pass in an `Int64` for the first field and a `Float64` for the second field. For compactness, this book does not use type annotations, but it is at the expense of performance. Type annotations allow Julia to improve runtime performance because the compiler can optimize the underlying code for specific types.

G.1.11 Abstract Types

So far we have discussed *concrete types*, which are types that we can construct. However, concrete types are only part of the type hierarchy. There are also *abstract types*, which are supertypes of concrete types and other abstract types.

We can explore the type hierarchy of the `Float64` type shown in figure G.1 using the `supertype` and `subtypes` functions:

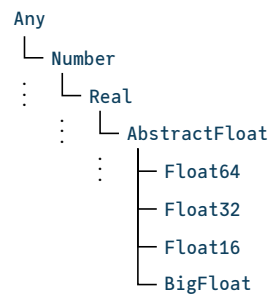


Figure G.1. The type hierarchy for the `Float64` type.

```

julia> supertype(Float64)
AbstractFloat
julia> supertype(AbstractFloat)
Real
julia> supertype(Real)
Number
julia> supertype(Number)
Any
julia> supertype(Any)           # Any is at the top of the hierarchy
Any
julia> using InteractiveUtils   # required for using subtypes in scripts
julia> subtypes(AbstractFloat) # different types of AbstractFloats
4-element Vector{Any}:
  BigFloat
  Float16
  Float32
  Float64
julia> subtypes(Float64)       # Float64 does not have any subtypes
Type[]

```

We can define our own abstract types:

```

abstract type C end
abstract type D <: C end # D is an abstract subtype of C
struct E <: D # E is a composite type that is a subtype of D
    a
end

```

G.1.12 Parametric Types

Julia supports *parametric types*, which are types that take parameters. The parameters to a parametric type are given within braces and delimited by commas. We have already seen a parametric type with our dictionary example:

```

julia> x = Dict{3⇒1.4, 1⇒5.9}
Dict{Int64, Float64} with 2 entries:
  3 ⇒ 1.4
  1 ⇒ 5.9

```

For dictionaries, the first parameter specifies the key type, and the second parameter specifies the value type. The example has `Int64` keys and `Float64` values, making the dictionary of type `Dict{Int64,Float64}`. Julia was able to infer these types based on the input, but we could have specified it explicitly:

```
julia> x = Dict{Int64,Float64}(3⇒1.4, 1⇒5.9);
```

While it is possible to define our own parametric types, we do not need to do so in this text.

G.2 Functions

A *function* maps its arguments, given as a tuple, to a result that is returned.

G.2.1 Named Functions

One way to define a *named function* is to use the `function` keyword, followed by the name of the function and a tuple of names of arguments:

```
function f(x, y)
    return x + y
end
```

We can also define functions compactly using assignment form:

```
julia> f(x, y) = x + y;
julia> f(3, 0.1415)
3.1415
```

G.2.2 Anonymous Functions

An *anonymous function* is not given a name, though it can be assigned to a named variable. One way to define an anonymous function is to use the arrow operator:

```
julia> h = x -> x^2 + 1 # assign anonymous function with input x to a variable h
#1 (generic function with 1 method)
julia> h(3)
10
julia> g(f, a, b) = [f(a), f(b)]; # applies function f to a and b and returns array
julia> g(h, 5, 10)
2-element Vector{Int64}:
 26
 101
julia> g(x->sin(x)+1, 10, 20)
2-element Vector{Float64}:
 0.4559788891106302
 1.9129452507276277
```

G.2.3 Callable Objects

We can define a type and associate functions with it, allowing objects of that type to be *callable*:

```

julia> (x::A)() = x.a + x.b # adding a zero-argument function to the type A defined earlier
julia> (x::A)(y) = y*x.a + x.b # adding a single-argument function
julia> x = A(22, 8);
julia> x()
30
julia> x(2)
52

```

G.2.4 Optional Arguments

We can assign a default value to an argument, making the specification of that argument optional:

```

julia> f(x=10) = x^2;
julia> f()
100
julia> f(3)
9
julia> f(x, y, z=1) = x*y + z;
julia> f(1, 2, 3)
5
julia> f(1, 2)
3

```

G.2.5 Keyword Arguments

Functions may use *keyword arguments*, which are arguments that are named when the function is called. Keyword arguments are given after all the positional arguments. A semicolon is placed before any keywords, separating them from the other arguments:

```

julia> f(; x = 0) = x + 1;
julia> f()
1
julia> f(x = 10)
11
julia> f(x, y = 10; z = 2) = (x + y)*z;
julia> f(1)

```

```

22
julia> f(2, z = 3)
36
julia> f(2, 3)
10
julia> f(2, 3, z = 1)
5

```

G.2.6 Dispatch

The types of the arguments passed to a function can be specified using the double colon operator. If multiple methods of the same function are provided, Julia will execute the appropriate method. The mechanism for choosing which method to execute is called *dispatch*:

```

julia> f(x::Int64) = x + 10;
julia> f(x::Float64) = x + 3.1415;
julia> f(1)
11
julia> f(1.0)
4.1415000000000001
julia> f(1.3)
4.4415000000000004

```

The method with a type signature that best matches the types of the arguments given will be used:

```

julia> f(x) = 5;
julia> f(x::Float64) = 3.1415;
julia> f([3, 2, 1])
5
julia> f(0.00787499699)
3.1415

```

G.2.7 Splatting

It is often useful to *splat* the elements of a vector or a tuple into the arguments to a function using the `...` operator:


```

julia> f(x,y,z) = x + y - z;
julia> a = [3, 1, 2];
julia> f(a...)
2
julia> b = (2, 2, 0);
julia> f(b...)
4
julia> c = ([0,0],[1,1]);
julia> f([2,2], c...)
2-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 1

```

G.3 Control Flow

We can control the flow of our programs using conditional evaluation and loops. This section provides some of the syntax used in the book.

G.3.1 Conditional Evaluation

Conditional evaluation will check the value of a Boolean expression and then evaluate the appropriate block of code. One of the most common ways to do this is with an `if` statement:

```

if x < y
    # run this if x < y
elseif x > y
    # run this if x > y
else
    # run this if x == y
end

```

We can also use the *ternary operator* with its question mark and colon syntax. It checks the Boolean expression before the question mark. If the expression evaluates to true, then it returns what comes before the colon; otherwise, it returns what comes after the colon:

```

julia> f(x) = x > 0 ? x : 0;
julia> f(-10)
0
julia> f(10)
10

```

G.3.2 Loops

A *loop* allows for repeated evaluation of expressions. One type of loop is the *while* loop, which repeatedly evaluates a block of expressions until the specified condition after the `while` keyword is met. The following example sums the values in the array `x`:

```
X = [1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 13, 16, 18]
s = 0
while !isempty(X)
    s += pop!(X)
end
```

Another type of loop is the *for* loop, which uses the `for` keyword. The following example will also sum over the values in the array `x` but will not modify `x`:

```
X = [1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 13, 16, 18]
s = 0
for y in X
    s += y
end
```

The `in` keyword can be replaced by `=` or `∈`. The following code block is equivalent:

```
X = [1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 13, 16, 18]
s = 0
for i = 1:length(X)
    s += X[i]
end
```

G.3.3 Iterators

We can iterate over collections in contexts such as *for* loops and array comprehensions. To demonstrate various iterators, we will use the `collect` function, which returns an array of all items generated by an iterator:

```
julia> X = ["feed", "sing", "ignore"];
julia> collect(enumerate(X)) # return the count and the element
3-element Vector{Tuple{Int64, String}}:
 (1, "feed")
 (2, "sing")
 (3, "ignore")
julia> collect(eachindex(X)) # equivalent to 1:length(X)
3-element Vector{Int64}:
```

```

1
2
3
julia> Y = [-5, -0.5, 0];
julia> collect(zip(X, Y)) # iterate over multiple iterators simultaneously
3-element Vector{Tuple{String, Float64}}:
 ("feed", -5.0)
 ("sing", -0.5)
 ("ignore", 0.0)
julia> import IterTools: subsets
julia> collect(subsets(X)) # iterate over all subsets
8-element Vector{Vector{String}}:
 []
 ["feed"]
 ["sing"]
 ["feed", "sing"]
 ["ignore"]
 ["feed", "ignore"]
 ["sing", "ignore"]
 ["feed", "sing", "ignore"]
julia> collect(eachindex(X)) # iterate over indices into a collection
3-element Vector{Int64}:
 1
 2
 3
julia> Z = [1 2; 3 4; 5 6];
julia> import Base.Iterators: product
julia> collect(product(X,Y)) # iterate over Cartesian product of multiple iterators
3×3 Matrix{Tuple{String, Float64}}:
 ("feed", -5.0)  ("feed", -0.5)  ("feed", 0.0)
 ("sing", -5.0)  ("sing", -0.5)  ("sing", 0.0)
 ("ignore", -5.0)  ("ignore", -0.5)  ("ignore", 0.0)

```

G.4 Packages

A *package* is a collection of Julia code and possibly other external libraries that can be imported to provide additional functionality. This section briefly reviews a few of the key packages that we build upon in this book. To add a registered package like `Distributions.jl`, we can run

```

using Pkg
Pkg.add("Distributions")

```

To update packages, we use

```
Pkg.update()
```

To use a package, we use the keyword **using** as follows:

```
using Distributions
```

G.4.1 *Graphs.jl*

We use the `Graphs.jl` package (version 1.4) to represent graphs and perform operations on them:

```
julia> using Graphs
julia> G = SimpleDiGraph(3); # create a directed graph with three nodes
julia> add_edge!(G, 1, 3); # add edge from node 1 to 3
julia> add_edge!(G, 1, 2); # add edge from node 1 to 2
julia> rem_edge!(G, 1, 3); # remove edge from node 1 to 3
julia> add_edge!(G, 2, 3); # add edge from node 2 to 3
julia> typeof(G)
Graphs.SimpleGraphs.SimpleDiGraph{Int64}
julia> nv(G) # number of nodes (also called vertices)
3
julia> outneighbors(G, 1) # list of outgoing neighbors for node 1
1-element Vector{Int64}:
 2
julia> inneighbors(G, 1) # list of incoming neighbors for node 1
Int64[]
```

G.4.2 *Distributions.jl*

We use the `Distributions.jl` package (version 0.24) to represent, fit, and sample from probability distributions:

```
julia> using Distributions
julia> dist = Categorical([0.3, 0.5, 0.2]) # create a categorical distribution
Distributions.Categorical{Float64, Vector{Float64}}(support=Base.OneTo(3), p=[0.3, 0.5, 0.2])
julia> data = rand(dist) # generate a sample
2
julia> data = rand(dist, 2) # generate two samples
2-element Vector{Int64}:
 2
 3
julia> μ, σ = 5.0, 2.5; # define parameters of a normal distribution
julia> dist = Normal(μ, σ) # create a normal distribution
Distributions.Normal{Float64}(μ=5.0, σ=2.5)
```

```

julia> rand(dist)                                # sample from the distribution
3.173653920282897
julia> data = rand(dist, 3)                      # generate three samples
3-element Vector{Float64}:
 10.860475998911657
  1.519358465527894
  3.0194180096515186
julia> data = rand(dist, 1000);                  # generate many samples
julia> Distributions.fit(Normal, data)           # fit a normal distribution to the samples
Distributions.Normal{Float64}(μ=5.085987626631449, σ=2.4766229761489367)
julia> μ = [1.0, 2.0];
julia> Σ = [1.0 0.5; 0.5 2.0];
julia> dist = MvNormal(μ, Σ)                    # create a multivariate normal distribution
FullNormal(
 dim: 2
 μ: [1.0, 2.0]
 Σ: [1.0 0.5; 0.5 2.0]
)
julia> rand(dist, 3)                            # generate three samples
2×3 Matrix{Float64}:
 0.834945 -0.527494 -0.098257
 1.25277  -0.246228  0.423922
julia> dist = Dirichlet(ones(3))                # create a Dirichlet distribution Dir(1,1,1)
Distributions.Dirichlet{Float64, Vector{Float64}, Float64}(alpha=[1.0, 1.0, 1.0])
julia> rand(dist)                              # sample from the distribution
3-element Vector{Float64}:
 0.19658106436589923
 0.6128478073834874
 0.1905711282506134

```

G.4.3 JuMP.jl

We use the JuMP.jl package (version 0.21) to specify optimization problems that we can then solve using a variety of solvers, such as those included in GLPK.jl and Ipopt.jl:

```

julia> using JuMP
julia> using GLPK
julia> model = Model(GLPK.Optimizer)            # create model and use GLPK as solver
A JuMP Model
Feasibility problem with:
Variables: 0
Model mode: AUTOMATIC
CachingOptimizer state: EMPTY_OPTIMIZER

```

```

Solver name: GLPK
julia> @variable(model, x[1:3]) # define variables x[1], x[2], and x[3]
3-element Vector{JuMP.VariableRef}:
 x[1]
 x[2]
 x[3]
julia> @objective(model, Max, sum(x) - x[2]) # define maximization objective
x[1] + 0 x[2] + x[3]
julia> @constraint(model, x[1] + x[2] ≤ 3) # add constraint
x[1] + x[2] ≤ 3.0
julia> @constraint(model, x[2] + x[3] ≤ 2) # add another constraint
x[2] + x[3] ≤ 2.0
julia> @constraint(model, x[2] ≥ 0) # add another constraint
x[2] ≥ 0.0
julia> optimize!(model) # solve
julia> value.(x) # extract optimal values for elements in x
3-element Vector{Float64}:
 3.0
 0.0
 2.0

```

G.5 Convenience Functions

There are a few functions that allow us to specify the algorithms in this book more compactly. The following functions are useful when working with dictionaries and named tuples:

```

Base.Dict{Symbol,V}(a::NamedTuple) where V =
    Dict{Symbol,V}(n⇒v for (n,v) in zip(keys(a), values(a)))
Base.convert(::Type{Dict{Symbol,V}}, a::NamedTuple) where V =
    Dict{Symbol,V}(a)
Base.isequal(a::Dict{Symbol,<:Any}, nt::NamedTuple) =
    length(a) == length(nt) &&
    all(a[n] == v for (n,v) in zip(keys(nt), values(nt)))

julia> a = Dict{Symbol,Integer}((a=1, b=2, c=3))
Dict{Symbol, Integer} with 3 entries:
 :a ⇒ 1
 :b ⇒ 2
 :c ⇒ 3
julia> isequal(a, (a=1, b=2, c=3))
true
julia> isequal(a, (a=1, c=3, b=2))
true

```

```

julia> Dict{Dict{Symbol,Integer},Float64}((a=1, b=1)⇒0.2, (a=1, b=2)⇒0.8)
Dict{Dict{Symbol, Integer}, Float64} with 2 entries:
 Dict{:a⇒1, :b⇒1} ⇒ 0.2
 Dict{:a⇒1, :b⇒2} ⇒ 0.8

```

We define `SetCategorical` to represent distributions over discrete sets:

```

struct SetCategorical{S}
    elements::Vector{S} # Set elements (could be repeated)
    distr::Categorical # Categorical distribution over set elements

    function SetCategorical(elements::AbstractVector{S}) where S
        weights = ones(length(elements))
        return new{S}(elements, Categorical(normalize(weights, 1)))
    end

    function SetCategorical(
        elements::AbstractVector{S},
        weights::AbstractVector{Float64}
    ) where S

        ℓ₁ = norm(weights, 1)
        if ℓ₁ < 1e-6 || isinf(ℓ₁)
            return SetCategorical(elements)
        end
        distr = Categorical(normalize(weights, 1))
        return new{S}(elements, distr)
    end
end

Distributions.rand(D::SetCategorical) = D.elements[rand(D.distr)]
Distributions.rand(D::SetCategorical, n::Int) = D.elements[rand(D.distr, n)]
function Distributions.pdf(D::SetCategorical, x)
    sum(e == x ? w : 0.0 for (e,w) in zip(D.elements, D.distr.p))
end

```

```
julia> D = SetCategorical(["up", "down", "left", "right"],[0.4, 0.2, 0.3, 0.1]);
julia> rand(D)
"up"
julia> rand(D, 5)
5-element Vector{String}:
 "left"
 "up"
 "down"
 "up"
 "left"
julia> pdf(D, "up")
0.3999999999999999
```