
vegas Documentation

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Contents:

TUTORIAL

1.1 Introduction

Class `vegas.Integrator` gives Monte Carlo estimates of arbitrary multidimensional integrals using the *vegas* algorithm (G. P. Lepage, J. Comput. Phys. 27 (1978) 192). The algorithm has two components. First an automatic transformation is applied to the integration variables in an attempt to flatten the integrand. Then a Monte Carlo estimate of the integral is made using the transformed variables. Flattening the integrand makes the integral easier and improves the estimate. The transformation applied to the integration variables is optimized over several iterations of the algorithm: information about the integrand that is collected during one iteration is used to improve the transformation used in the next iteration.

Monte Carlo integration makes few assumptions about the integrand — it needn't be analytic nor even continuous. This makes Monte Carlo integration unusually robust. It also makes it well suited for adaptive integration. Adaptive strategies are essential for multidimensional integration, especially in high dimensions, because multidimensional space is large, with lots of corners, making it easy to lose important features in the integrand.

Monte Carlo integration also provides efficient and reliable methods for estimating the accuracy of its results. In particular, each Monte Carlo estimate of an integral is a random number from a distribution whose mean is the correct value of the integral. This distribution is Gaussian or normal provided the number of integrand samples is sufficiently large. In practice we generate multiple estimates of the integral in order to verify that the distribution is indeed Gaussian. Error analysis is straightforward if the integral estimates are Gaussian.

The *vegas* algorithm has been in use for decades and implementations are available in many programming languages, including Fortran (the original version), C and C++. The algorithm used here is significantly improved over the original implementation, and that used in most other implementations. It uses two adaptive strategies: importance sampling, as in the original implementation, and adaptive stratified sampling, which is new.

This module is written in Cython, so it is almost as fast as compiled Fortran or C, particularly when the integrand is also coded in Cython (or some other compiled language), as discussed below.

The following sections describe how to use *vegas*. Almost every example shown is a complete code, which can be copied into a file and run with python. It is worthwhile playing with the parameters to see how things change.

About Printing: The examples in this tutorial use the `print` function as it is used in Python 3. Drop the outermost parenthesis in each print statement if using Python 2, or add

```
from __future__ import print_function
```

at the start of your file.

1.2 Basic Integrals

Here we illustrate the use of *vegas* by estimating the integral

$$C \int_{-1}^1 dx_0 \int_0^1 dx_1 \int_0^1 dx_2 \int_0^1 dx_3 e^{-100 \sum_d (x_d - 0.5)^2},$$

where constant C is chosen so that the exact integral is 1. The following code shows how this can be done:

```
import vegas
import math

def f(x):
    dx2 = 0
    for d in range(4):
        dx2 += (x[d] - 0.5) ** 2
    return math.exp(-dx2 * 100.) * 1013.2118364296088

integ = vegas.Integrator([[-1, 1], [0, 1], [0, 1], [0, 1]])

result = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=1000)
print(result.summary())
print('result = %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))
```

First we define the integrand $f(x)$ where $x[d]$ specifies a point in the 4-dimensional space. We then create an integrator, `integ`, which is an integration operator that can be applied to any 4-dimensional function. It is where we specify the integration volume. Finally we apply `integ` to our integrand $f(x)$, telling the integrator to estimate the integral using `nitn=10` iterations of the *vegas* algorithm, each of which uses no more than `neval=1000` evaluations of the integrand. Each iteration produces an independent estimate of the integral. The final estimate is the weighted average of the results from all 10 iterations, and is returned by `integ(f ...)`. The call `result.summary()` returns a summary of results from each iteration.

This code produces the following output:

itn	integral	wgt average	chi2/dof	Q
1	2.4 (1.9)	2.4 (1.9)	0.00	1.00
2	1.19 (32)	1.23 (32)	0.42	0.52
3	0.910 (90)	0.934 (87)	0.68	0.51
4	1.041 (70)	0.999 (55)	0.76	0.52
5	1.090 (43)	1.055 (34)	1.00	0.41
6	0.984 (34)	1.020 (24)	1.24	0.29
7	1.036 (27)	1.027 (18)	1.07	0.38
8	0.987 (22)	1.011 (14)	1.20	0.30
9	0.995 (18)	1.005 (11)	1.11	0.35
10	0.993 (17)	1.0015 (91)	1.02	0.42
result = 1.0015(91)		Q = 0.42		

There are several things to note here:

Adaptation: Integration estimates are shown for each of the 10 iterations, giving both the estimate from just that iteration, and the weighted average of results from all iterations up to that point. The estimates from the first two iterations are not accurate at all, with errors equal to 30–190% of the final result. *vegas* initially has no information about the integrand and so does a relatively poor job of estimating the integral. It uses information from the samples in one iteration, however, to remap the integration variables for subsequent iterations, concentrating samples where the function is largest and reducing errors. As a result, the per-iteration error is reduced to 4.3% by the fifth iteration, and below 2% by the end — an

improvement by almost two orders of magnitude from the start. Eventually the per-iteration error stops decreasing because `vegas` has found the optimal remapping, at which point it has fully adapted to the integrand.

Weighted Average: The final result, 1.0015 ± 0.0091 , is obtained from a weighted average of the separate results from each iteration: estimates are weighted by the inverse variance, thereby giving much less weight to the early iterations, where the errors are largest. The individual estimates are statistical: each is a random number drawn from a distribution whose mean equals the correct value of the integral, and the errors quoted are estimates of the standard deviations of those distributions. The distributions are Gaussian provided the number of integrand evaluations per iteration (`neval`) is sufficiently large, in which case the standard deviation is a reliable estimate of the error. The weighted average \bar{I} minimizes

$$\chi^2 \equiv \sum_i \frac{(I_i - \bar{I})^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

where $I_i \pm \sigma_i$ are the estimates from individual iterations. If the I_i are Gaussian, χ^2 should be of order the number of degrees of freedom (plus or minus the square root of that number); here the number of degrees of freedom is the number of iterations minus 1.

The distributions are likely non-Gaussian, and error estimates unreliable, if χ^2 is much larger than the number of iterations. This criterion is quantified by the Q or p -value of the χ^2 , which is the probability that a larger χ^2 could result from random (Gaussian) fluctuations. A very small Q (less than 0.05-0.1) indicates that the χ^2 is too large to be accounted for by statistical fluctuations — that is, the estimates of the integral from different iterations do not agree with each other to within errors. This means that `neval` is not sufficiently large to guarantee Gaussian behavior, and must be increased if the error estimates are to be trusted.

`integ(f...)` returns a weighted-average object, of type `vegas.RAvg`, that has the following attributes:

- `result.mean` — weighted average of all estimates of the integral;
- `result.sdev` — standard deviation of the weighted average;
- `result.chi2` — χ^2 of the weighted average;
- `result.dof` — number of degrees of freedom;
- `result.Q` — Q or p -value of the weighted average's χ^2 ;
- `result.itn_results` — list of the integral estimates from each iteration.

In this example the final Q is 0.42, indicating that the χ^2 for this average is not particularly unlikely and thus the error estimate is most likely reliable.

Precision: The precision of `vegas` estimates is determined by `nitn`, the number of iterations of the `vegas` algorithm, and by `neval`, the maximum number of integrand evaluation made per iteration. The computing cost is typically proportional to the product of `nitn` and `neval`. The number of integrand evaluations per iteration varies from iteration to iteration, here between 486 and 959. Typically `vegas` needs more integration points in early iterations, before it has fully adapted to the integrand.

We can increase precision by increasing either `nitn` or `neval`, but it is generally far better to increase `neval`. For example, adding the following lines to the code above

```
result = integ(f, nitn=100, neval=1000)
print('larger nitn => %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))

result = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=1e4)
print('larger neval => %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))
```

generates the following results:

```
larger nitn => 0.9968(15)    Q = 0.43
larger neval => 0.99978(67)    Q = 0.42
```

The total number of integrand evaluations, `nitn * neval`, is about the same in both cases, but increasing `neval` is more than twice as accurate as increasing `nitn`. Typically you want to use no more than 10 or 20 iterations beyond the point where *vegas* has fully adapted. You want some number of iterations so that you can verify Gaussian behavior by checking the χ^2 and Q , but not too many.

It is also generally useful to compare two or more results from values of `neval` that differ by a significant factor (4–10, say). These should agree within errors. If they do not, it could be due to non-Gaussian artifacts caused by a small `neval`. *vegas* estimates have two sources of error. One is the statistical error, which is what is quoted by *vegas*. The other is a systematic error due to residual non-Gaussian effects. The systematic error vanishes like $1/\text{neval}$ and so becomes negligible compared with the statistical error as `neval` increases. The systematic error can bias the Monte Carlo estimate, however, if `neval` is insufficiently large. This usually results in a large χ^2 (and small Q), but a more reliable check is to compare results that use significantly different values of `neval`. The systematic errors due to non-Gaussian behavior are likely negligible if the different estimates agree to within the statistical errors.

The possibility of systematic biases is another reason for increasing `neval` rather than `nitn` to obtain more precision. Making `neval` larger and larger is guaranteed to improve the Monte Carlo estimate, as the statistical error decreases (at least as fast as $\sqrt{1/\text{neval}}$ and often faster) and the systematic error decreases even more quickly (like $1/\text{neval}$). Making `nitn` larger and larger, on the other hand, is guaranteed eventually to give the wrong answer. This is because at some point the statistical error (which falls as $\sqrt{1/\text{nitn}}$) will no longer mask the systematic error (which is unaffected by `nitn`). The systematic error for the integral above (with `neval=1000`) is about -0.0008(1), which is negligible compared to the statistical error unless `nitn` is of order 1500 or larger — so systematic errors aren’t a problem with `nitn=10`.

Early Iterations: Integral estimates from early iterations, before *vegas* has adapted, can be quite crude. With very peaky integrands, these are often far from the correct answer with highly unreliable error estimates. For example, the integral above becomes more difficult if we double the length of each side of the integration volume by redefining `integ` as:

```
integ = vegas.Integrator([[-2, 2], [0, 2], [0, 2], [0., 2]])
```

The code above then gives:

itn	integral	wgt average	chi2/dof	Q

1	0.013(13)	0.013(13)	0.00	1.00
2	0.0165(80)	0.0154(67)	0.07	0.79
3	2.07(96)	0.0155(67)	2.31	0.10
4	0.86(26)	0.0160(67)	5.06	0.00
5	1.01(11)	0.0199(67)	25.01	0.00
6	0.963(64)	0.0302(67)	63.06	0.00
7	1.032(41)	0.0561(66)	149.77	0.00
8	0.924(31)	0.0924(64)	232.41	0.00
9	1.037(28)	0.1410(63)	341.52	0.00
10	0.976(22)	0.2026(60)	448.77	0.00
result = 0.2026(60)		Q = 0.00		

vegas misses the peak completely in the first two iterations, giving estimates that are completely wrong (by 76 and 123 standard deviations!). Some of its samples hit the peak’s shoulders, so *vegas* is eventually able to find the peak (by iterations 5–6), but the integrand estimates are wildly non-Gaussian before that point. This results in a nonsensical final result, as indicated by the $Q = 0.00$.

It is common practice in using *vegas* to discard estimates from the first several iterations, before the algorithm has adapted, in order to avoid ruining the final result in this way. This is done by replacing the single call to `integ(f...)` in the original code with two calls:

```
# step 1 -- adapt to f; discard results
integ(f, nitn=7, neval=1000)

# step 2 -- integ has adapted to f; keep results
result = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=1000)
print(result.summary())
print('result = %s      Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))
```

The integrator is trained in the first step, as it adapts to the integrand, and so is more or less fully adapted from the start in the second step, which yields:

itn	integral	wgt average	chi2/dof	Q
1	1.042 (26)	1.042 (26)	0.00	1.00
2	1.010 (18)	1.020 (15)	0.99	0.32
3	0.999 (14)	1.009 (10)	1.05	0.35
4	0.965 (16)	0.9963 (86)	2.47	0.06
5	0.994 (15)	0.9958 (74)	1.86	0.11
6	1.001 (15)	0.9968 (66)	1.51	0.18
7	0.999 (15)	0.9971 (61)	1.26	0.27
8	0.994 (13)	0.9965 (55)	1.09	0.37
9	1.017 (22)	0.9977 (53)	1.05	0.39
10	0.981 (16)	0.9961 (50)	1.04	0.40
result = 0.9961(50) Q = 0.40				

The final result is now reliable.

Other Integrands: Once `integ` has been trained on $f(x)$, it can be usefully applied to other functions with similar structure. For example, adding the following at the end of the original code,

```
def g(x):
    return x[0] * f(x)

result = integ(g, nitn=10, neval=1000)
print(result.summary())
print('result = %s      Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))
```

gives the following new output:

itn	integral	wgt average	chi2/dof	Q
1	0.5015 (83)	0.5015 (83)	0.00	1.00
2	0.5099 (68)	0.5065 (53)	0.61	0.43
3	0.4992 (73)	0.5040 (43)	0.63	0.53
4	0.5121 (61)	0.5066 (35)	0.81	0.49
5	0.5046 (73)	0.5062 (32)	0.62	0.65
6	0.4918 (63)	0.5033 (28)	1.34	0.25
7	0.5053 (99)	0.5035 (27)	1.12	0.35
8	0.4997 (69)	0.5030 (25)	1.00	0.43
9	0.5016 (81)	0.5029 (24)	0.88	0.54
10	0.4951 (75)	0.5021 (23)	0.88	0.54
result = 0.5021(23) Q = 0.54				

Again the grid is almost optimal for $g(x)$ from the start, because $g(x)$ peaks in the same region as $f(x)$. The exact value for this integral is very close to 0.5.

Note that `vegas.Integrators` can be saved in files and reloaded later using Python's `pickle` module: for example, `pickle.dump(integ, openfile)` saves integrator `integ` in file `openfile`, and `integ = pickle.load(openfile)` reloads it. This is useful for costly integrations that might need to be reanalyzed later since the integrator remembers the variable transformations made to minimize errors, and so need not be readapted to the integrand when used later.

Non-Rectangular Volumes: `vegas` can integrate over volumes of non-rectangular shape. For example, we can replace integrand $f(x)$ above by the same Gaussian, but restricted to a 4-sphere of radius 0.2, centered on the Gaussian:

```
import vegas
import math

def f_sph(x):
    dx2 = 0
    for d in range(4):
        dx2 += (x[d] - 0.5) ** 2
    if dx2 < 0.2 ** 2:
        return math.exp(-dx2 * 100.) * 1115.3539360527281318
    else:
        return 0.0

integ = vegas.Integrator([[ -1, 1], [0, 1], [0, 1], [0, 1]])

integ(f_sph, nitn=10, neval=1000)          # adapt the grid
result = integ(f_sph, nitn=10, neval=1000) # estimate the integral
print(result.summary())
print('result = %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))
```

The normalization is adjusted to again make the exact integral equal 1. Integrating as before gives:

itn	integral	wgt average	chi2/dof	Q
<hr/>				
1	1.005 (41)	1.005 (41)	0.00	1.00
2	1.055 (37)	1.033 (27)	0.82	0.37
3	1.048 (63)	1.035 (25)	0.43	0.65
4	1.051 (63)	1.037 (23)	0.31	0.82
5	0.994 (23)	1.015 (16)	0.68	0.61
6	1.008 (33)	1.014 (15)	0.55	0.74
7	1.030 (34)	1.016 (13)	0.49	0.82
8	0.971 (18)	1.000 (11)	0.99	0.43
9	1.005 (34)	1.001 (10)	0.87	0.54
10	1.039 (29)	1.0049 (97)	0.94	0.48
<hr/>				
result = 1.0049 (97)		Q = 0.48		

It is a good idea to make the actual integration volume as large a fraction as possible of the total volume used by `vegas` — by choosing integration variables properly — so `vegas` doesn't spend lots of effort on regions where the integrand is exactly 0. Also, it can be challenging for `vegas` to find the region of non-zero integrand in high dimensions: integrating $f_{\text{sph}}(x)$ in 20 dimensions instead of 4, for example, would require `neval=1e16` integrand evaluations per iteration to have any chance of finding the region of non-zero integrand, because the volume of the 20-dimensional sphere is a tiny fraction of the total integration volume. The final error in the example above would have been cut in half had we used the integration volume `4 * [[0.3, 0.7]]` instead of `[[-1, 1], [0, 1], [0, 1], [0, 1]]`.

Note, finally, that integration to infinity is also possible: map the relevant variable into a different variable

of finite range. For example, an integral over $x \equiv \tan(\theta)$ from 0 to infinity is easily reexpressed as an integral over θ from 0 to $\pi/2$.

Damping: This result in the previous section can be improved somewhat by slowing down *vegas*'s adaptation:

```
...
integ(f_sph, nitn=10, neval=1000, alpha=0.1)
result = integ(f_sph, nitn=10, neval=1000, alpha=0.1)
...
```

Parameter `alpha` controls the speed with which *vegas* adapts, with smaller `alpha`s giving slower adaptation. Here we reduce `alpha` to 0.1, from its default value of 0.5, and get the following output:

itn	integral	wgt average	chi2/dof	Q
1	1.004 (21)	1.004 (21)	0.00	1.00
2	0.988 (24)	0.997 (16)	0.26	0.61
3	1.023 (24)	1.005 (13)	0.56	0.57
4	0.996 (19)	1.002 (11)	0.43	0.73
5	1.009 (25)	1.0032 (99)	0.34	0.85
6	0.981 (22)	0.9995 (90)	0.44	0.82
7	1.010 (22)	1.0010 (84)	0.40	0.88
8	0.979 (20)	0.9978 (77)	0.48	0.85
9	1.068 (25)	1.0037 (74)	1.29	0.24
10	0.973 (24)	1.0010 (71)	1.32	0.22
result = 1.0031 (72)		Q = 0.14		

Notice how the errors fluctuate less from iteration to iteration with the smaller `alpha` in this case. Persistent, large fluctuations in the size of the per-iteration errors is often a signal that `alpha` should be reduced. With larger `alpha`s, *vegas* can over-react to random fluctuations it encounters as it samples the integrand.

In general, we want `alpha` to be large enough so that *vegas* adapts quickly to the integrand, but not so large that it has difficulty holding on to the optimal tuning once it has found it. The best value depends upon the integrand.

adapt=False: Adaptation can be turned off completely by setting parameter `adapt=False`. There are three reasons one might do this. The first is if *vegas* is exhibiting the kind of instability discussed in the previous section — one might use the following code, instead of that presented there:

```
...
integ(f_sph, nitn=10, neval=1000, alpha=0.1)
result = integ(f_sph, nitn=10, neval=1000, adapt=False)
...
```

The second reason is that *vegas* runs slightly faster when it is no longer adapting to the integrand. The difference is not significant for complicated integrands, but is noticeable in simpler cases.

The third reason for turning off adaptation is that *vegas* uses unweighted averages, rather than weighted averages, to combine results from different iterations when `adapt=False`. Unweighted averages are not biased. They have no systematic error of the sort discussed above, and so give correct results even for very large numbers of iterations, `nitn`.

The lack of systematic biases is *not* a strong reason for turning off adaptation, however, since the biases are usually negligible (see above). The most important reason is the first: stability. It is particularly relevant if the number of integrand evaluations `neval` is small for the integrand.

Training the integrator and then setting `adapt=False` for the final results works best if the number of evaluations per iteration (`neval`) is the same in both steps. This is because the second of *vegas*'s adaptation strategies (adaptive stratified sampling) is usually reinitialized when `neval` changes, and so is not used at all when `neval` is changed at the same time `adapt=False` is set.

1.3 Multiple Integrands Simultaneously

vegas can be used to integrate multiple integrands simultaneously, using the same integration points for each of the integrands. This is useful in situations where the integrands have similar structure, with peaks in the same locations. There can be significant advantages in sampling different integrands at precisely the same points in x space, because then Monte Carlo estimates for the different integrals are correlated. If the integrands are very similar to each other, the correlations can be very strong. This leads to greatly reduced errors in ratios or differences of the resulting integrals as the fluctuations cancel.

Consider a simple example. We want to compute the normalization and first two moments of a sharply peaked probability distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} I_0 &\equiv \int_0^1 d^4x \, e^{-200 \sum_d (x_d - 0.5)^2} \\ I_1 &\equiv \int_0^1 d^4x \, x_0 \, e^{-200 \sum_d (x_d - 0.5)^2} \\ I_2 &\equiv \int_0^1 d^4x \, x_0^2 \, e^{-200 \sum_d (x_d - 0.5)^2} \end{aligned}$$

From these integrals we determine the mean and width of the distribution projected onto one of the axes:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x \rangle &\equiv I_1 / I_0 \\ \sigma_x^2 &\equiv \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2 \\ &= I_2 / I_0 - (I_1 / I_0)^2 \end{aligned}$$

This can be done using the following code:

```
import vegas
import math
import gvar as gv

def f(x):
    dx2 = 0.0
    for d in range(4):
        dx2 += (x[d] - 0.5) ** 2
    f = math.exp(-200 * dx2)
    return [f, f * x[0], f * x[0] ** 2]

integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0, 1]])

# adapt grid
training = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=2000)

# final analysis
result = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=10000)
print('I[0] =', result[0], ' I[1] =', result[1], ' I[2] =', result[2])
print('Q = %.2f\n' % result.Q)
print('<x> =', result[1] / result[0])
print(
```

```
'sigma_x**2 = <x**2> - <x>**2 =',
    result[2] / result[0] - (result[1] / result[0]) ** 2
)
print('\ncorrelation matrix:\n', gv.evalcorr(result))
```

The code is very similar to that used in the previous section. The main difference is that the integrand function and *vegas* return arrays of results — in both cases, one result for each of the three integrals. *vegas* always adapts to the first integrand in the array. The Q value is for all three of the integrals, taken together.

The code produces the following output:

```
I[0] = 0.00024677 (17)    I[1] = 0.000123397 (85)    I[2] = 0.000062322 (45)
Q = 0.49

<x> = 0.500056 (59)
sigma_x**2 = <x**2> - <x>**2 = 0.0024974 (83)

correlation matrix:
[[ 1.          0.98520462  0.94374824]
 [ 0.98520462  1.          0.98591163]
 [ 0.94374824  0.98591163  1.          ]]
```

The estimates for the individual integrals are separately accurate to about $\pm 0.07\%$, but the estimate for $\langle x \rangle = I_1/I_0$ is accurate to $\pm 0.01\%$. This is almost an order of magnitude (8x) more accurate than we would obtain absent correlations. The correlation matrix shows that there is 98% correlation between the statistical fluctuations in estimates for I_0 and I_1 , and so the bulk of these fluctuations cancel in the ratio. The estimate for the variance σ_x^2 is 51x more accurate than we would have obtained had the integrals been evaluated separately. Both estimates are correct to within the quoted errors.

The individual results are objects of type `gvar.GVar`, which represent Gaussian random variables. Such objects have means (`result[i].mean`) and standard deviations (`result[i].sdev`), but also can be statistically correlated with other `gvar.GVars`. Such correlations are handled automatically by `gvar` when `gvar.GVars` are combined with each other or with numbers in arithmetical expressions. (Documentation for `gvar` can be found at <http://pythonhosted.org/gvar> or with the source code at <https://github.com/gplepage/gvar.git>.)

Integrands can return dictionaries instead of arrays. The example above, for example, can be rewritten as

```
import vegas
import math
import gvar as gv

def f(x):
    dx2 = 0.0
    for d in range(4):
        dx2 += (x[d] - 0.5) ** 2
    f = math.exp(-200 * dx2)
    return {'1':f, 'x':f * x[0], 'x**2':f * x[0] ** 2}

integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0, 1]])

# adapt grid
training = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=2000)

# final analysis
result = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=10000)
print(result)
print('Q = %.2f\n' % result.Q)
print('<x> =', result['x'] / result['1'])
```

```
print(
    'sigma_x**2 = <x**2> - <x>**2 =',
    result['x**2'] / result['1'] - (result['x'] / result['1']) ** 2
)
```

which returns the following output:

```
{'1': 0.00024677 (17), 'x': 0.000123397 (85), 'x**2': 0.000062322 (45) }
Q = 0.49

<x> = 0.500056 (59)
sigma_x**2 = <x**2> - <x>**2 = 0.0024974 (83)
```

The result returned by *vegas* is a dictionary using the same keys as the dictionary returned by the integrand. Using a dictionary with descriptive keys, instead of an array, can often make code more intelligible, and, therefore, easier to write and maintain. Here the values in the integrand's dictionary are all numbers; in general, values can be either numbers or arrays (of any shape).

1.4 Faster Integrands

The computational cost of a realistic multidimensional integral comes mostly from the cost of evaluating the integrand at the Monte Carlo sample points. Integrands written in pure Python are probably fast enough for problems where `neval=1e3` or `neval=1e4` gives enough precision. Some problems, however, require hundreds of thousands or millions of function evaluations, or more.

We can significantly reduce the cost of evaluating the integrand by using *vegas*'s batch mode. For example, replacing

```
import vegas
import math

def f(x):
    dim = len(x)
    norm = 1013.2118364296088 ** (dim / 4.)
    dx2 = 0.0
    for d in range(dim):
        dx2 += (x[d] - 0.5) ** 2
    return math.exp(-100. * dx2) * norm

integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0, 1]])

integ(f, nitn=10, neval=2e5)
result = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=2e5)
print('result = %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))
```

by

```
import vegas
import numpy as np

@vegas.batchintegrand
def f_batch(x):
    # evaluate integrand at multiple points simultaneously
    dim = x.shape[1]
    norm = 1013.2118364296088 ** (dim / 4.)
    dx2 = 0.0
```



```

    for d in range(dim):
        dx2 += (x[:, d] - 0.5) ** 2
    return np.exp(-100. * dx2) * norm

integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0, 1]])

integ(f_batch, nitn=10, neval=2e5)
result = integ(f_batch, nitn=10, neval=2e5)
print('result = %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))

```

reduces the cost of the integral by an order of magnitude. Internally *vegas* processes integration points in batches. (*vegas* parameter `nhcube_batch` determines the number of integration points per batch (typically 1000s).) In batch mode, *vegas* presents integration points to the integrand in batches rather than offering them one at a time. Here, for example, function `f_batch(x)` accepts an array of integration points — `x[i, d]` where `i=0...` labels the integration point and `d=0...` the direction — and returns an array of integrand values corresponding to those points. The decorator `vegas.batchintegrand()` tells *vegas* that it should send integration points to `f(x)` in batches.

An alternative to a function decorated with `vegas.batchintegrand()` is a class derived from `vegas.BatchIntegrand` that behaves like a batch integrand:

```

import vegas
import numpy as np

class f_batch(vegas.BatchIntegrand):
    def __init__(self, dim):
        self.dim = dim
        self.norm = 1013.2118364296088 ** (dim / 4.)

    def __call__(self, x):
        # evaluate integrand at multiple points simultaneously
        dx2 = 0.0
        for d in range(self.dim):
            dx2 += (x[:, d] - 0.5) ** 2
        return np.exp(-100. * dx2) * self.norm

f = f_batch(dim=4)
integ = vegas.Integrator(f.dim * [[0, 1]])

integ(f, nitn=10, neval=2e5)
result = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=2e5)
print('result = %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))

```

This version is as fast as the previous batch integrand, but is potentially more flexible because it is built around a class rather than a function.

The batch integrands here are fast because they are expressed in terms `numpy` operators that act on entire arrays — they evaluate the integrand for all integration points in a batch at the same time. That optimization is not always possible or simple. It is unnecessary if we write the integrand in Cython, which is a compiled hybrid of Python and C. The Cython version of the (batch) integrand is:

```

# file: cython_integrand.pyx

import numpy as np

# use exp from C
from libc.math cimport exp

```

```
def f_batch(double[:, ::1] x):
    cdef int i          # labels integration point
    cdef int d          # labels direction
    cdef int dim = x.shape[1]
    cdef double norm = 1013.2118364296088 ** (dim / 4.)
    cdef double dx2
    cdef double[:,1] ans = np.empty(x.shape[0], float)
    for i in range(x.shape[0]):
        # integrand for integration point x[i]
        dx2 = 0.0
        for d in range(dim):
            dx2 += (x[i, d] - 0.5) ** 2
        ans[i] = exp(-100. * dx2) * norm
    return ans
```

We put this in a separate file called, say, `cython_integrand.pyx`, and rewrite the main code as:

```
import numpy as np
import pyximport
pyximport.install(inplace=True)

import vegas
from cython_integrand import f_batch
f = vegas.batchintegrand(f_batch)

integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0, 1]])

integ(f, nitn=10, neval=2e5)
result = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=2e5)
print('result = %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))
```

Module `pyximport` is used here to cause the Cython module `cython_integrand.pyx` to be compiled the first time it is imported. The compiled code is used in subsequent imports, so compilation occurs only once.

Batch mode is also useful for array-valued integrands. The code from the previous section could have been written as:

```
import vegas
import gvar as gv
import numpy as np

dim = 4

@vegas.batchintegrand
def f(x):
    ans = np.empty((x.shape[0], 3), float)
    dx2 = 0.0
    for d in range(dim):
        dx2 += (x[:, d] - 0.5) ** 2
    ans[:, 0] = np.exp(-200 * dx2)
    ans[:, 1] = x[:, 0] * ans[:, 0]
    ans[:, 2] = x[:, 0] ** 2 * ans[:, 0]
    return ans

integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0, 1]])

# adapt grid
training = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=2000)
```

```
# final analysis
result = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=10000)
print('I[0] =', result[0], ' I[1] =', result[1], ' I[2] =', result[2])
print('Q = %.2f\n' % result.Q)
print('<x> =', result[1] / result[0])
print(
    'sigma_x**2 = <x**2> - <x>**2 =',
    result[2] / result[0] - (result[1] / result[0]) ** 2
)
print('\ncorrelation matrix:\n', gv.evalcorr(result))
```

Note that the batch index (here :) always comes first. An extra (first) index is also added to each value in the dictionary returned by a dictionary-valued batch integrand: e.g.,

```
dim = 4

@vegas.batchintegrand
def f(x):
    ans = {}
    dx2 = 0.0
    for d in range(dim):
        dx2 += (x[:, d] - 0.5) ** 2
    ans['1'] = np.exp(-200 * dx2)
    ans['x'] = x[:, 0] * ans['1']
    ans['x**2'] = x[:, 0] ** 2 * ans['1']
    return ans
```

1.5 Multiple Processors

vegas supports multi-processor evaluation of integrands using MPI, via the Python module `mpi4py` (which must be installed separately). This can shorten execution time substantially when the integrand is costly to evaluate.

MPI support works for any integrand. For example, the script

```
# file: ridge.py

import vegas
import numpy as np

# Integrand: ridge of N Gaussians spread evenly along the diagonal
def ridge(x):
    N = 10000
    x0 = np.arange(0.0, N) / (N - 1.)
    dx2 = 0.0
    for xd in x:
        dx2 += (xd - x0) ** 2
    return np.average(np.exp(-100. * dx2)) * (100. / np.pi) ** (len(x) / 2.)

def main():
    integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0, 1]])
    # adapt
    integ(ridge, nitn=10, neval=1e4)
    # final results
    result = integ(ridge, nitn=10, neval=1e4)
    if integ.mpi_rank == 0:
        print('result = %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))
```

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

can be run on 2 processors using

```
mpirun -np 2 python ridge.py
```

This cuts the run time almost in half. The speed is not exactly doubled because time is required to move integration results between the different CPUs. The code uses the MPI rank of the processes so that only one of them prints out results:

```
result = 0.8559(39)    Q = 0.52
```

Note that the random number generator used by *vegas* must be synchronized so that it produces the same random numbers on the different processors. This happens automatically for the default random-number generator (unless *vegas.Integrator* parameter `sync_ran` is set to `False`).

vegas's batch mode makes it possible to implement other strategies for distributing integrand evaluations across multiple processors. For example, we can create a class `parallelintegrand` whose function is similar to decorator *vegas.batchintegrand()*, but where Python's multiprocessing module provides parallel processing:

```
import multiprocessing
import numpy as np
import vegas

class parallelintegrand(vegas.BatchIntegrand):
    """ Convert (batch) integrand into multiprocessor integrand.

    Integrand should return a numpy array.
    """
    def __init__(self, fcn, nproc=4):
        " Save integrand; create pool of nproc processes. "
        self.fcn = fcn
        self.nproc = nproc
        self.pool = multiprocessing.Pool(processes=nproc)
    def __del__(self):
        " Standard cleanup. "
        self.pool.close()
        self.pool.join()
    def __call__(self, x):
        " Divide x into self.nproc chunks, feeding one to each process. "
        nx = x.shape[0] // self.nproc + 1
        # launch evaluation of self.fcn for each chunk, in parallel
        results = self.pool.map(
            self.fcn,
            [x[i*nx : (i+1)*nx] for i in range(self.nproc)],
            1,
        )
        # convert list of results into a single numpy array
        return np.concatenate(results)
```

Then `fparallel = parallelintegrand(f, 4)`, for example, will create a new integrand `fparallel(x)` that uses 4 CPUs. Python's multiprocessing module has limitations, particularly on Windows machines, which make this approach to multi-processing less robust than MPI.

1.6 Sums with `vegas`

The code in the previous sections is inefficient in the way it handles the sum over 10,000 Gaussians. It is not necessary to include every term in the sum for every integration point. Rather we can sample the sum, using `vegas` to do the sampling. The trick is to replace the sum with an equivalent integral:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f(i) = N \int_0^1 dx f(\text{floor}(xN))$$

where $\text{floor}(x)$ is the largest integer smaller than x . The resulting integral can then be handed to `vegas`. Using this trick, the integral in the previous section can be re-cast as a 5-dimensional integral:

```
import vegas
import numpy as np

# Integrand: ridge of N Gaussians spread evenly along the diagonal
def ridge(x):
    N = 10000
    dim = 4
    x0 = np.floor(x[-1] * N) / (N - 1.)
    dx2 = 0.0
    for xd in x[:-1]:
        dx2 += (xd - x0) ** 2
    return np.exp(-100. * dx2) * (100. / np.pi) ** (dim / 2.)

def main():
    integ = vegas.Integrator(5 * [[0, 1]])
    # adapt
    integ(ridge, nitn=10, neval=5e4)
    # final results
    result = integ(ridge, nitn=10, neval=5e4)
    print('result = %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

This code gives a result with the same precision, but is 5x faster than the code in the previous section. (The difference would be much larger if both integrands were coded in Cython. Also running the code on two processors with MPI again cuts the time almost in half.)

The same trick can be generalized to sums over multiple indices, including sums to infinity. `vegas` will provide Monte Carlo estimates of the sums, emphasizing the more important terms.

1.7 `vegas` as a Random Number Generator

A `vegas` integrator generates random points in its integration volume from a distribution that is optimized for integrals of whatever function it was trained on. The integrator provides low-level access to the random-point generator through the iterators `vegas.Integrator.random()` and `vegas.Integrator.random_batch()`.

To illustrate, the following code snippet estimates the integral of function $f(x)$ using integrator `integ`:

```
integral = 0.0
for x, wgt in integ.random():
    integral += wgt * f(x)
```

Here $x[d]$ is a random point in the integration volume and wgt is the weight *vegas* assigns to that point in an integration. The iterator generates integration points and weights corresponding to a single iteration of the *vegas* algorithm. In practice, we would train *integ* on a function whose shape is similar to that of $f(x)$ before using it to estimate the integral of $f(x)$.

It is usually more efficient to generate and use integration points in batches. The *vegas.Integrator.random_batch()* iterator does just this:

```
integral = 0.0
for x, wgt in integ.random_batch():
    integral += wgt.dot(batch_f(x))
```

Here $x[i, d]$ is an array of integration points, $wgt[i]$ contains the corresponding weights, and *batch_f*(x) returns an array containing the corresponding integrand values.

The random points generated by *vegas* are stratified into hypercubes: *vegas* uses transformed integration variables to improve its Monte Carlo estimates. It further improves those estimates by subdividing the integration volume in the transformed variables into a large number of hypercubes, and doing a Monte Carlo integral in each hypercube separately. The final result is the sum of the results from all the hypercubes. To mimic a full *vegas* integral estimate using the iterators above, we need to know which points belong to which hypercubes. The following code shows how this is done:

```
integral = 0.0
variance = 0.0
for x, wgt, hcube in integ.random_batch(yield_hcube=True):
    wgt_fx = wgt * batch_f(x)
    # iterate over hypercubes: compute variance for each,
    # and accumulate for final result
    for i in range(hcube[0], hcube[-1] + 1):
        idx = (hcube == i)          # select array items for h-cube i
        nwf = np.sum(idx)           # number of points in h-cube i
        wf = wgt_fx[idx]
        sum_wf = np.sum(wf)         # sum of wgt * f(x) for h-cube i
        sum_wf2 = np.sum(wf ** 2)   # sum of (wgt * f(x)) ** 2
        integral += sum_wf
        variance += (sum_wf2 * nwf - sum_wf ** 2) / (nwf - 1.)
# answer = integral; standard deviation = variance ** 0.5
result = gvar.gvar(integral, variance ** 0.5)
```

Here $hcube[i]$ identifies the hypercube containing $x[i, d]$.

1.8 Integrands in C or Fortran

Older implementations of the *vegas* algorithm have been used extensively in C and Fortran codes. The Python implementation described here uses a more powerful algorithm. It is relatively straightforward to combine this version with integrands coded in C or Fortran. Such integrands are usually substantially faster than integrands coded directly in Python; they are similar in speed to optimized Cython code. There are many ways to access C and Fortran integrands from Python. Here we review a few of the options.

1.8.1 ctypes for C

The simplest way to access an integrand coded in C is to use the Python *ctypes* module. To illustrate, consider the following integrand, written in C and stored in file *cfcn.c*:

```
// file cfcn.c
#include <math.h>

double fcn(double x[], int dim)
{
    int i;
    double xsq = 0.0;
    for(i=0; i<dim; i++)
        xsq += x[i] * x[i] ;
    return exp(-100. * sqrt(xsq)) * pow(100.,dim);
}
```

This file needs to be compiled into a shared library using something like:

```
cc -fPIC -shared -o cfcn.so cfcn.c
```

The exact compilation command depends on the operating system and compiler being used. The function in this library is then wrapped in Python function `f`, and integrated using *vegas*:

```
import vegas
import numpy as np

import ctypes

# import cfcn.so
cfcn = ctypes.CDLL('cfcn.so')
# specify argument types and result type for cfcn.fcn
cfcn.fcn.argtypes = (ctypes.POINTER(ctypes.c_double), ctypes.c_int)
cfcn.fcn.restype = ctypes.c_double

# Python wrapper for function cfcn.fcn
def f(x):
    global cfcn
    n = len(x)
    array_type = ctypes.c_double * n
    return cfcn.fcn(array_type(*x), ctypes.c_int(n))

def main():
    integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0., 1.]])
    print(integ(f, neval=1e4, nitn=10).summary())
    print(integ(f, neval=1e4, nitn=10).summary())

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

The output shows 10 iterations that are used to adapt *vegas* to the integrand, and then an additional 10 iterations to generate the final result:

itn	integral	wgt average	chi2/dof	Q
1	8.6 (7.1)	8.6 (7.1)	0.00	1.00
2	8.2 (1.7)	8.2 (1.7)	0.00	0.96
3	7.14 (76)	7.32 (69)	0.18	0.84
4	7.88 (38)	7.75 (33)	0.29	0.84
5	7.39 (13)	7.44 (12)	0.47	0.76
6	7.359 (81)	7.383 (68)	0.43	0.82
7	7.400 (55)	7.393 (43)	0.37	0.90
8	7.392 (51)	7.393 (33)	0.32	0.95

9	7.427 (48)	7.404 (27)	0.32	0.96
10	7.388 (41)	7.399 (23)	0.30	0.98
itn	integral	wgt average	chi2/dof	Q
1	7.429 (34)	7.429 (34)	0.00	1.00
2	7.412 (32)	7.420 (24)	0.13	0.72
3	7.413 (28)	7.417 (18)	0.08	0.92
4	7.366 (25)	7.400 (15)	0.96	0.41
5	7.366 (23)	7.390 (12)	1.12	0.34
6	7.410 (22)	7.395 (11)	1.02	0.40
7	7.395 (20)	7.3951 (95)	0.85	0.53
8	7.425 (19)	7.4011 (85)	1.02	0.42
9	7.394 (19)	7.3998 (77)	0.91	0.51
10	7.386 (17)	7.3976 (71)	0.86	0.56

The final estimate for the integral is 7.3976 (71) (1000 times more accurate than the very first iteration).

The `ctypes` implementation is probably the slowest of the implementations shown here.

1.8.2 Cython for C

A more flexible (and often faster) interface to a C integrand can be created using Cython. To increase efficiency (slightly, in this case), we use Cython code in file `cfcn.pyx` to convert the original function (in `cfcn.c`) into a batch integral:

```
# file cfcn.pyx
import numpy as np
import vegas

cdef extern double fcn (double[] x, int n)

@vegas.batchintegrand
def f(double[:, ::1] x):
    cdef double[:] ans
    cdef int i, dim=x.shape[1]
    ans = np.empty(x.shape[0], type(x[0,0]))
    for i in range(x.shape[0]):
        ans[i] = fcn(&x[i, 0], dim)
    return ans
```

We also have to tell Cython how to construct the `cfcn` Python module since that module needs to include compiled code from `cfcn.c`. This is done with a `.pyxbl` file:

```
# file cfcn.pyxbl
import numpy as np

def make_ext(modname, pyxfilename):
    from distutils.extension import Extension
    return Extension(name = modname,
                     sources=[pyxfilename, 'cfcn.c'],
                     libraries=[],
                     include_dirs=[np.get_include()],
                     )

def make_setup_args():
    return dict()
```


Finally the integral is evaluated using the Python code

```
import vegas

# compile cfcn, if needed, at import
import pyximport
pyximport.install(inplace=True)

import cfcn

def main():
    integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0,1]])
    print(integ(cfcn.f, neval=1e4, nitn=10).summary())
    print(integ(cfcn.f, neval=1e4, nitn=10).summary())

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

where, again, `pyximport` guarantees that the `cfcn` module is compiled the first time the code is run.

This implementation is probably the fastest of those presented here. Cython also works with C++.

1.8.3 f2py for Fortran

The `f2py` package, which is distributed with `numpy`, makes it relatively easy to compile Fortran code directly into Python modules. Consider a Fortran implementation of integrand discussed above, stored in file `ffcn.f`:

```
c file ffcn.f
c
    function fcn(x, dim)
    integer i, dim
    real*8 x(dim), x2, fcn
    x2 = 0.0
    do i=1,dim
        x2 = x2 + x(i) ** 2
    end do
    fcn = exp(-100. * sqrt(x2)) * 100. ** dim
    return
end
```

This code is compiled into a Python module using

```
f2py -m ffcn -c ffcn.f
```

and the resulting module provides access to the integrand from Python:

```
import vegas
import ffcn

def main():
    integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0,1]])
    print(integ(ffcn.fcn, neval=1e4, nitn=10).summary())
    print(integ(ffcn.fcn, neval=1e4, nitn=10).summary())

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

Again you can make the code somewhat faster by converting the integrand into a batch integrand inside the Fortran module. Adding the following function to the end of file `ffcn.f` above :

```
c part 2 of file ffcn.f --- batch form of integrand

      subroutine batch_fcn(ans, x, dim, nbatch)
      integer dim, nbatch, i, j
      real*8 x(nbatch, dim), xi(dim), ans(nbatch), fcn
cf2py intent(out) ans
      do i=1,nbatch
          do j=1,dim
              xi(j) = x(i, j)
          end do
          ans(i) = fcn(xi, dim)
      end do
      end
```

results in a second Python function `ffcn.batch_fcn(x)` that takes the integration points `x[i,d]` as input and returns an array of integrand values `ans[i]`. (The second Fortran comment tells `f2py` that array `ans` should be returned by the corresponding Python function; `f2py` also has the function automatically deduce `dim` and `nbatch` from the shape of `x`.) The corresponding Python script for doing the integral is then:

```
import vegas
import ffcn_f2py
import numpy as np

def main():
    integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0,1]])
    batch_fcn = vegas.batchintegrand(ffcn_f2py.batch_fcn)
    print(integ(batch_fcn, neval=1e4, nitn=10).summary())
    print(integ(batch_fcn, neval=1e4, nitn=10).summary())

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

This runs roughly twice as fast as the original when `neval` is large (eg, `1e6`).

1.8.4 f2py for C

`f2py` can also be used to compile C code directly into Python modules, but usually needs an interface file to specify how the C is turned into Python. The interface file `cfcn.pyf` for the C file `cfcn.c` (above) is:

```
python module cfcn
interface
    real*8 function fcn(x, n)
        intent(c) fcn                ! fcn is a C function
        intent(c)                    ! all fcn arguments are
                                     ! considered as C based
        integer intent(hide), depend(x) :: n=len(x) ! n is the length
                                                ! of input array x
        real*8 intent(in) :: x(n)      ! x is input array
    end function fcn
end interface
end python module cfcn
```

More information is available in the documentation for `f2py`. The module is created using

```
f2py -m cfcn -c cfcn.pyf cfcn.c
```

and the integral evaluated using Python code:

```
import vegas
import cfcn

def main():
    integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0,1]])
    print(integ(cfcn.fcn, neval=1e4, nitn=10).summary())
    print(integ(cfcn.fcn, neval=1e4, nitn=10).summary())

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

1.9 Implementation Notes

This implementation relies upon Cython for its speed and numpy for array processing. It also uses `matplotlib` for graphics and `mpi4py` for MPI support, but graphics and MPI are optional.

vegas also uses the `gvar` module (`pip install gvar`). Integration results are returned as objects of type `gvar.GVar`, which is a class representing Gaussian random variables (i.e., something with a mean and standard deviation). These objects can be combined with numbers and with each other in arbitrary arithmetic expressions to get new `gvar.GVars` with the correct standard deviations, and properly correlated with other `gvar.GVars` — that is the tricky part.

HOW VEGAS WORKS

vegas uses two adaptive strategies: importance sampling, and adaptive stratified sampling. Here we discuss the ideas behind each, in turn.

2.1 Importance Sampling

The most important adaptive strategy *vegas* uses is its remapping of the integration variables in each direction, before it makes Monte Carlo estimates of the integral. This is equivalent to a standard Monte Carlo optimization called “importance sampling.”

vegas chooses transformations for each integration variable that minimize the statistical errors in Monte Carlo estimates whose integrand samples are uniformly distributed in the new variables. The idea in one-dimension, for example, is to replace the original integral over x ,

$$I = \int_a^b dx f(x),$$

by an equivalent integral over a new variable y ,

$$I = \int_0^1 dy J(y) f(x(y)),$$

where $J(y)$ is the Jacobian of the transformation. A simple Monte Carlo estimate of the transformed integral is given by

$$I \approx S^{(1)} \equiv \frac{1}{M} \sum_y J(y) f(x(y))$$

where the sum is over M random points uniformly distributed between 0 and 1.

The estimate $S^{(1)}$ is itself a random number from a distribution whose mean is the exact integral and whose variance is:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_I^2 &= \frac{1}{M} \left(\int_0^1 dy J^2(y) f^2(x(y)) - I^2 \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \left(\int_a^b dx J(y(x)) f^2(x) - I^2 \right) \end{aligned}$$

The standard deviation σ_I is an estimate of the possible error in the Monte Carlo estimate. A straightforward variational calculation, constrained by

$$\int_a^b \frac{dx}{J(y(x))} = \int_0^1 dy = 1,$$

shows that σ_I is minimized if

$$J(y(x)) = \frac{\int_a^b dx |f(x)|}{|f(x)|}.$$

Such transformations greatly reduce the standard deviation when the integrand has high peaks. Since

$$1/J = \frac{dy}{dx} \propto |f(x)|,$$

the regions in x space where $|f(x)|$ is large are stretched out in y space. Consequently, a uniform Monte Carlo in y space places more samples in the peak regions than it would if were we integrating in x space — its samples are concentrated in the most important regions, which is why this is called “importance sampling.” The product $J(y) f(x(y))$ has no peaks when the transformation is optimal.

The distribution of the Monte Carlo estimates $S^{(1)}$ becomes Gaussian in the limit of large M . Non-Gaussian corrections vanish like $1/M$. For example, it is easy to show that

$$\langle (S^{(1)} - I)^4 \rangle = 3\sigma_I^4 \left(1 - \frac{1}{M}\right) + \frac{1}{M^3} \int_0^1 dy (J(y) f(x(y)) - I)^4$$

This moment would equal $3\sigma_I^4$, which falls like $1/M^2$, if the distribution was Gaussian. The corrections to the Gaussian result fall as $1/M^3$ and so become negligible at large M . These results assume that $(J(y) f(x(y)))^n$ is integrable for all n , which need not be the case if $f(x)$ has (integrable) singularities.

2.2 The vegas Grid

vegas implements the transformation of an integration variable x into a new variable y using a grid in x space:

$$\begin{aligned} x_0 &= a \\ x_1 &= x_0 + \Delta x_0 \\ x_2 &= x_1 + \Delta x_1 \\ &\dots \\ x_N &= x_{N-1} + \Delta x_{N-1} = b \end{aligned}$$

The grid specifies the transformation function at the points $y = i/N$ for $i = 0, 1 \dots N$:

$$x(y=i/N) = x_i$$

Linear interpolation is used between those points. The Jacobian for this transformation function is piecewise constant:

$$J(y) = J_i = N \Delta x_i$$

for $i/N < y < (i+1)/N$.

The variance for a Monte Carlo estimate using this transformation becomes

$$\sigma_I^2 = \frac{1}{M} \left(\sum_i J_i \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} dx f^2(x) - I^2 \right)$$

Treating the J_i as independent variables, with the constraint

$$\sum_i \frac{\Delta x_i}{J_i} = \sum_i \Delta y_i = 1,$$

it is trivial to show that the standard deviation is minimized when

$$\frac{J_i^2}{\Delta x_i} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} dx f^2(x) = N^2 \Delta x_i \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} dx f^2(x) = \text{constant}$$

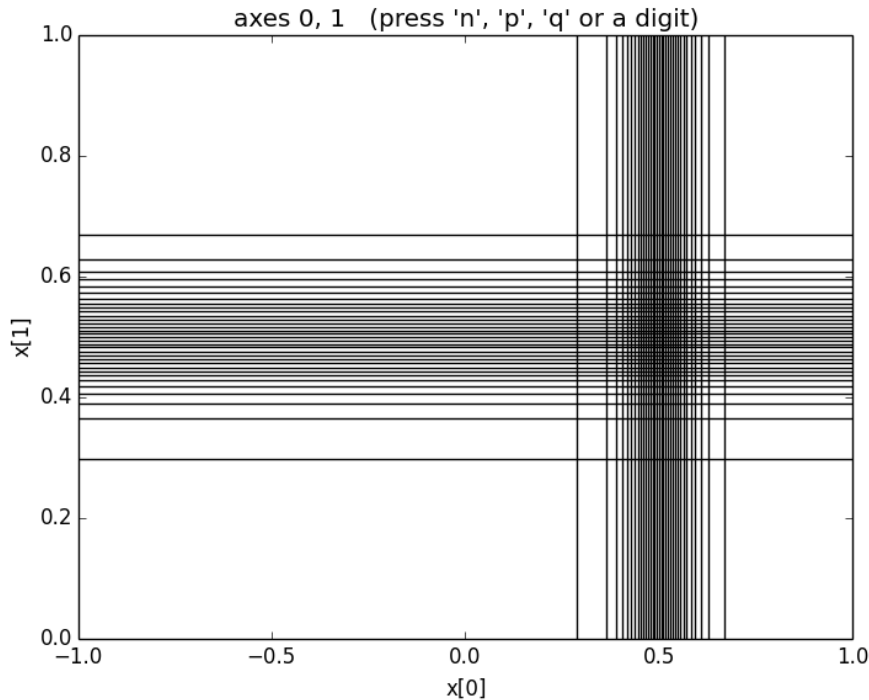
for all i .

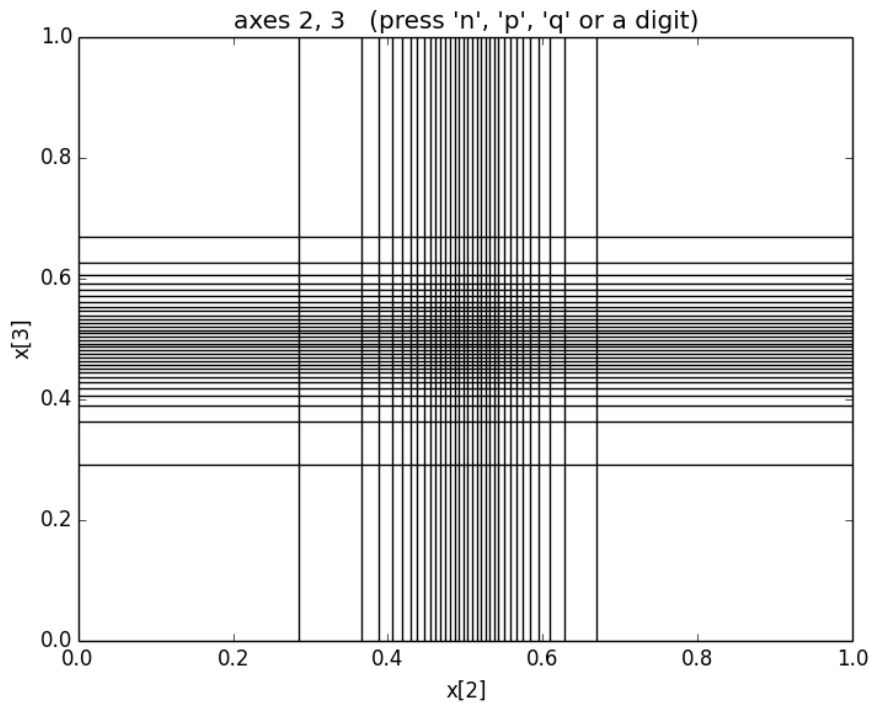
vegas adjusts the grid until this last condition is satisfied. As a result grid increments Δx_i are small in regions where $|f(x)|$ is large. *vegas* typically has no knowledge of the integrand initially, and so starts with a uniform x grid. As it samples the integrand it also estimates the integrals

$$\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} dx f^2(x),$$

and use this information to refine its choice of Δx_i s, bringing them closer to their optimal values, for use in subsequent iterations. The grid usually converges, after several iterations, to the optimal grid.

This analysis generalizes easily to multi-dimensional integrals. *vegas* applies a similar transformation in each direction, and the grid increments along an axis are made smaller in regions where the projection of the integral onto that axis is larger. For example, the optimal grid for the four-dimensional Gaussian integral in the previous section looks like:





These grids transform into uniformly-spaced grids in y space. Consequently a uniform, y -space Monte Carlo places the same number of integrand evaluations, on average, in every rectangle of these pictures. (The average number is typically much less one in higher dimensions.) Integrand evaluations are concentrated in regions where the x -space rectangles are small (and therefore numerous) — here in the vicinity of $x = [0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 0.5]$, where the peak is.

These plots were obtained by including the line

```
integ.map.show_grid(30)
```

in the integration code after the integration is finished. It causes `matplotlib` (if it is installed) to create images showing the locations of 30 nodes of the grid in each direction. (The grid uses 99 nodes in all on each axis, but that is too many to display at low resolution.)

2.3 Adaptive Stratified Sampling

A limitation of *vegas*'s remapping strategy becomes obvious if we look at the grid for the following integral, which has two Gaussians arranged along the diagonal of the hypercube:

```
import vegas
import math

def f2(x):
    dx2 = 0
    for d in range(4):
        dx2 += (x[d] - 1/3.) ** 2
    ans = math.exp(-dx2 * 100.) * 1013.2167575422921535
    dx2 = 0
    for d in range(4):
        dx2 += (x[d] - 2/3.) ** 2
```



```

ans += math.exp(-dx2 * 100.) * 1013.2167575422921535
return ans / 2.

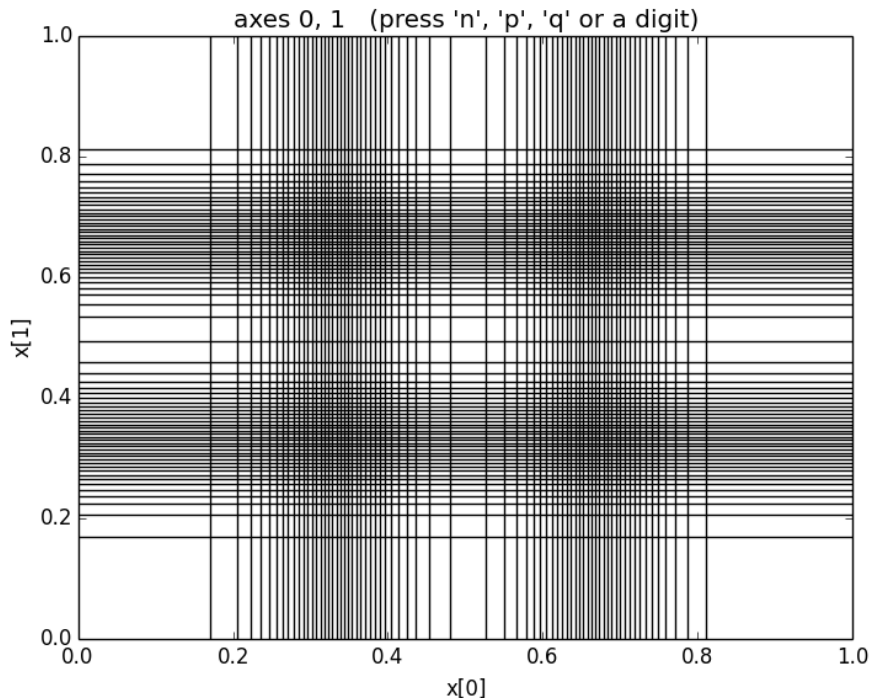
integ = vegas.Integrator(4 * [[0, 1]])

integ(f2, nitn=10, neval=4e4)
result = integ(f2, nitn=30, neval=4e4)
print('result = %s    Q = %.2f' % (result, result.Q))

integ.map.show_grid(70)

```

This code gives the following grid, now showing 70 nodes in each direction:



The grid shows that *vegas* is concentrating on the regions around $x = [0.33, 0.33, 0.33, 0.33]$ and $x = [0.67, 0.67, 0.67, 0.67]$, where the peaks are. Unfortunately it is also concentrating on regions around points like $x = [0.67, 0.33, 0.33, 0.33]$ where the integrand is very close to zero. There are 14 such phantom peaks that *vegas*'s new integration variables emphasize, in addition to the 2 regions where the integrand actually is large. This grid gives much better results than using a uniform grid, but it obviously wastes integration resources. The waste occurs because *vegas* remaps the integration variables in each direction separately. Projected on the $x[0]$ axis, for example, this integrand appears to have two peaks and so *vegas* will focus on both regions of $x[0]$, independently of what it does along the $x[1]$ axis.

vegas uses axis-oriented remappings because other alternatives are much more complicated and expensive; and *vegas*'s principal adaptive strategy has proven very effective in many realistic applications.

An axis-oriented strategy will always have difficulty adapting to structures that lie along diagonals of the integration volume. To address such problems, the new version of *vegas* introduces a second adaptive strategy, based upon another standard Monte Carlo technique called “stratified sampling.” *vegas* divides the d -dimensional y -space volume into M_{st}^d hypercubes using a uniform y -space grid with M_{st} stratifications on each axis. It estimates the integral by doing a separate Monte Carlo integration in each of the hypercubes, and adding the results together to provide an estimate for the integral over the entire integration region. Typically this y -space grid is much coarser than the x -space

grid used to remap the integration variables. This is because *vegas* needs at least two integrand evaluations in each y -space hypercube, and so must keep the number of hypercubes M_{st}^d smaller than $\text{neval}/2$. This can restrict M_{st} severely when d is large.

Older versions of *vegas* also divide y -space into hypercubes and do Monte Carlo estimates in the separate hypercubes. These versions, however, use the same number of integrand evaluations in each hypercube. In the new version, *vegas* adjusts the number of evaluations used in a hypercube in proportion to the standard deviation of the integrand estimates (in y space) from that hypercube. It uses information about the hypercube's standard deviation in one iteration to set the number of evaluations for that hypercube in the next iteration. In this way it concentrates integrand evaluations where the potential statistical errors are largest.

In the two-Gaussian example above, for example, the new *vegas* shifts integration evaluations away from the phantom peaks, into the regions occupied by the real peaks since this is where all the error comes from. This improves *vegas*'s ability to estimate the contributions from the real peaks and reduces statistical errors, provided neval is large enough to permit a large number (more than 2 or 3) M_{st} of stratifications on each axis. With $\text{neval}=4\text{e}4$, statistical errors for the two-Gaussian integral are reduced by more than a factor of 3 relative to what older versions of *vegas* give. This is a relatively easy integral; the difference can be much larger for more difficult (and realistic) integrals.

VEGAS MODULE

3.1 Introduction

The key Python objects supported by the *vegas* module are:

- *vegas.Integrator* — an object describing a multidimensional integration operator. Such objects contain information about the integration volume, and also about optimal remappings of the integration variables based upon the last integral evaluated using the object.
- *vegas.AdaptiveMap* — an object describing the remappings used by *vegas*.
- *vegas.RAvg* — an object describing the result of a *vegas* integration. *vegas* returns the weighted average of the integral estimates from each *vegas* iteration as an object of class *vegas.RAvg*. These are Gaussian random variables — that is, they have a mean and a standard deviation — but also contain information about the iterations *vegas* used in generating the result.
- *vegas.RAvgArray* — an array version of *vegas.RAvg* used when the integrand is array-valued.
- *vegas.RAvgDict* — a dictionary version of *vegas.RAvg* used when the integrand is dictionary-valued.
- *vegas.PDFIntegrator* — a specialized integrator for evaluating Gaussian expectation values.

These are described in detail below.

3.2 Integrator Objects

The central component of the *vegas* package is the integrator class:

class *vegas.Integrator*

Adaptive multidimensional Monte Carlo integration.

vegas.Integrator objects make Monte Carlo estimates of multidimensional functions $f(x)$ where $x[d]$ is a point in the integration volume:

```
integ = vegas.Integrator(integration_region)

result = integ(f, nitn=10, neval=10000)
```

The integrator makes *nitn* estimates of the integral, each using at most *neval* samples of the integrand, as it adapts to the specific features of the integrand. Successive estimates (iterations) typically improve in accuracy until the integrator has fully adapted. The integrator returns the weighted average of all *nitn* estimates, together with an estimate of the statistical (Monte Carlo) uncertainty in that estimate of the integral. The result is an object of type *RAvg* (which is derived from *gvar.GVar*).

Integrands `f(x)` return numbers, arrays of numbers (any shape), or dictionaries whose values are numbers or arrays (any shape). Each number returned by an integrand corresponds to a different integrand. When arrays are returned, *vegas* adapts to the first number in the flattened array. When dictionaries are returned, *vegas* adapts to the first number in the value corresponding to the first key.

vegas can generate integration points in batches for integrands built from classes derived from *vegas.BatchIntegrand*, or integrand functions decorated by *vegas.batchintegrand()*. Batch integrands are typically much faster, especially if they are coded in Cython.

vegas.Integrators have a large number of parameters but the only ones that most people will care about are: the number `nitn` of iterations of the *vegas* algorithm; the maximum number `neval` of integrand evaluations per iteration; and the damping parameter `alpha`, which is used to slow down the adaptive algorithms when they would otherwise be unstable (e.g., with very peaky integrands). Setting parameter `analyzer=vegas.reporter()` is sometimes useful, as well, since it causes *vegas* to print (on `sys.stdout`) intermediate results from each iteration, as they are produced. This helps when each iteration takes a long time to complete (e.g., longer than an hour) because it allows you to monitor progress as it is being made (or not).

Parameters

- **map** (array or *vegas.AdaptiveMap* or *vegas.Integrator*) – The integration region as specified by an array `map[d, i]` where `d` is the direction and `i=0, 1` specify the lower and upper limits of integration in direction `d`.

`map` could also be the integration map from another *vegas.Integrator*, or that *vegas.Integrator* itself. In this case the grid is copied from the existing integrator.

- **nitn** (*positive int*) – The maximum number of iterations used to adapt to the integrand and estimate its value. The default value is 10; typical values range from 10 to 20.
- **neval** (*positive int*) – The maximum number of integrand evaluations in each iteration of the *vegas* algorithm. Increasing `neval` increases the precision: statistical errors should fall at least as fast as `sqrt(1./neval)` and often fall much faster. The default value is 1000; real problems often require 10–1000 times more evaluations than this.
- **alpha** (*float*) – Damping parameter controlling the remapping of the integration variables as *vegas* adapts to the integrand. Smaller values slow adaptation, which may be desirable for difficult integrands. Small or zero `alphas` are also sometimes useful after the grid has adapted, to minimize fluctuations away from the optimal grid. The default value is 0.5.
- **beta** (*float*) – Damping parameter controlling the redistribution of integrand evaluations across hypercubes in the stratified sampling of the integral (over transformed variables). Smaller values limit the amount of redistribution. The theoretically optimal value is 1; setting `beta=0` prevents any redistribution of evaluations. The default value is 0.75.
- **adapt** (*bool*) – Setting `adapt=False` prevents further adaptation by *vegas*. Typically this would be done after training the *vegas.Integrator* on an integrand, in order to stabilize further estimates of the integral. *vegas* uses unweighted averages to combine results from different iterations when `adapt=False`. The default setting is `adapt=True`.
- **nhcube_batch** (*positive int*) – The number of hypercubes (in *y* space) whose integration points are combined into a single batch to be passed to the integrand, together, when using *vegas* in batch mode. The default value is 1000. Larger values may lead to faster evaluations, but at the cost of more memory for internal work arrays.
- **minimize_mem** (*bool*) – When `True`, *vegas* minimizes internal workspace at the cost of extra evaluations of the integrand. This can increase execution time by 50–100% but might be desirable when the number of evaluations is very large (e.g., `neval=1e9`). Normally *vegas* uses internal work space that grows in proportion to `neval`. If that

work space exceeds the size of the RAM available to the processor, *vegas* runs much more slowly. Setting `minimize_mem=True` greatly reduces the internal storage used by *vegas*; in particular memory becomes independent of `neval`. The default setting (`minimize_mem=False`), however, is much superior unless memory becomes a problem. (The large memory is needed for adaptive stratified sampling, so memory is not an issue if `beta=0`.)

- **adapt_to_errors** (*bool*) – `adapt_to_errors=False` causes *vegas* to remap the integration variables to emphasize regions where $|f(x)|$ is largest. This is the default mode.

`adapt_to_errors=True` causes *vegas* to remap variables to emphasize regions where the Monte Carlo error is largest. This might be superior when the number of the number of stratifications (`self.nstrat`) in the y grid is large ($> 50?$). It is typically useful only in one or two dimensions.

- **maxinc_axis** (*positive int*) – The maximum number of increments per axis allowed for the x-space grid. The default value is 1000; there is probably little need to use other values.
- **max_nhcube** (*positive int*) – Maximum number of y-space hypercubes used for stratified sampling. Setting `max_nhcube=1` turns stratified sampling off, which is probably never a good idea. The default setting (1e9) was chosen to correspond to the point where internal work arrays become comparable in size to the typical amount of RAM available to a processor (in a laptop in 2014). Internal memory usage is large only when `beta>0` and `minimize_mem=False`; therefore `max_nhcube` is ignored if `beta=0` or `minimize_mem=True`.
- **max_neval_hcube** (*positive int*) – Maximum number of integrand evaluations per hypercube in the stratification. The default value is 1e7. Larger values might allow for more adaptation (when `neval` is larger than $2 * \text{max_neval_hcube}$), but also can result in very large internal work arrays.
- **rtol** (*non-negative float*) – Relative error in the integral estimate at which point the integrator can stop. The default value is 0.0 which turns off this stopping condition. This stopping condition can be quite unreliable in early iterations, before *vegas* has converged. Use with caution, if at all.
- **atol** (*non-negative float*) – Absolute error in the integral estimate at which point the integrator can stop. The default value is 0.0 which turns off this stopping condition. This stopping condition can be quite unreliable in early iterations, before *vegas* has converged. Use with caution, if at all.

- **analyzer** – An object with methods

```
analyzer.begin(itn, integrator)
analyzer.end(itn_result, result)
```

where: `begin(itn, integrator)` is called at the start of each *vegas* iteration with `itn` equal to the iteration number and `integrator` equal to the integrator itself; and `end(itn_result, result)` is called at the end of each iteration with `itn_result` equal to the result for that iteration and `result` equal to the cumulative result of all iterations so far. Setting `analyzer=vegas.reporter()`, for example, causes *vegas* to print out a running report of its results as they are produced. The default is `analyzer=None`.

- **ran_array_generator** – Function that generates numpy arrays of random numbers distributed uniformly between 0 and 1. `ran_array_generator(shape)` should cre-

ate an array whose dimensions are specified by the integer-valued tuple `shape`. The default generator is `numpy.random.random`.

- **`sync_ran`** – If `True`, the default random number generator is synchronized across all processors when using MPI. If `False`, *vegas* does no synchronization (but the random numbers should be synchronized some other way).

vegas.Integrator objects have attributes for each of these parameters. In addition they have the following methods:

`__call__` (*fcn*, ***kargs*)
Integrate integrand *fcn*.

A typical integrand has the form, for example:

```
def f(x):
    return x[0] ** 2 + x[1] ** 4
```

The argument `x[d]` is an integration point, where index `d=0 . . .` represents direction within the integration volume.

Integrands can be array-valued, representing multiple integrands: e.g.,

```
def f(x):
    return [x[0] ** 2, x[0] / x[1]]
```

The return arrays can have any shape. Dictionary-valued integrands are also supported: e.g.,

```
def f(x):
    return {'a':x[0] ** 2, 'b':[x[0] / x[1], x[1] / x[0]]}
```

Integrand functions that return arrays or dictionaries are useful for multiple integrands that are closely related, and can lead to substantial reductions in the errors for ratios or differences of the results.

It is usually much faster to use *vegas* in batch mode, where integration points are presented to the integrand in batches. A simple batch integrand might be, for example:

```
@vegas.batchintegrand
def f(x):
    return x[:, 0] ** 2 + x[:, 1] ** 4
```

where decorator `@vegas.batchintegrand` tells *vegas* that the integrand processes integration points in batches. The array `x[i, d]` represents a collection of different integration points labeled by `i=0 . . .` (The number of points is controlled *vegas.Integrator* parameter `nhcube_batch`.) The batch index is always first.

Batch integrands can also be constructed from classes derived from *vegas.BatchIntegrand*.

Batch mode is particularly useful (and fast) when the class derived from *vegas.BatchIntegrand* is coded in Cython. Then loops over the integration points can be coded explicitly, avoiding the need to use numpy's whole-array operators if they are not well suited to the integrand.

Any *vegas* parameter can also be reset: e.g., `self(fcn, nitn=20, neval=1e6)`.

`set` (*ka={}*, ***kargs*)
Reset default parameters in integrator.

Usage is analogous to the constructor for *vegas.Integrator*: for example,

```
old_defaults = integ.set(neval=1e6, nitn=20)
```

resets the default values for `neval` and `nitn` in `vegas.Integrator` `integ`. A dictionary, here `old_defaults`, is returned. It can be used to restore the old defaults using, for example:

```
integ.set(old_defaults)
```

settings (*ngrid=0*)

Assemble summary of integrator settings into string.

Parameters `ngrid` (*int*) – Number of grid nodes in each direction to include in summary.
The default is 0.

Returns String containing the settings.

random (*yield_hcube=False, yield_y=False*)

Iterator over integration points and weights.

This method creates an iterator that returns integration points from `vegas`, and their corresponding weights in an integral. Each point `x[d]` is accompanied by the weight assigned to that point by `vegas` when estimating an integral. Optionally it will also return the index of the hypercube containing the integration point and/or the y-space coordinates:

```
integ.random() yields x, wgt

integ.random(yield_hcube=True) yields x, wgt, hcube

integ.random(yield_y=True) yields x, y, wgt

integ.random(yield_hcube=True, yield_y=True) yields x, y, wgt, hcube
```

The number of integration points returned by the iterator corresponds to a single iteration.

random_batch (*yield_hcube=False, yield_y=False*)

Iterator over integration points and weights.

This method creates an iterator that returns integration points from `vegas`, and their corresponding weights in an integral. The points are provided in arrays `x[i, d]` where `i=0...` labels the integration points in a batch and `d=0...` labels direction. The corresponding weights assigned by `vegas` to each point are provided in an array `wgt[i]`.

Optionally the integrator will also return the indices of the hypercubes containing the integration points and/or the y-space coordinates of those points:

```
integ.random() yields x, wgt

integ.random(yield_hcube=True) yields x, wgt, hcube

integ.random(yield_y=True) yields x, y, wgt

integ.random(yield_hcube=True, yield_y=True) yields x, y, wgt, hcube
```

The number of integration points returned by the iterator corresponds to a single iteration. The number in a batch is controlled by parameter `nhcube_batch`.

3.3 AdaptiveMap Objects

`vegas`'s remapping of the integration variables is handled by a `vegas.AdaptiveMap` object, which maps the original integration variables `x` into new variables `y` in a unit hypercube. Each direction has its own map specified by a grid in `x` space:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_0 &= a \\
 x_1 &= x_0 + \Delta x_0 \\
 x_2 &= x_1 + \Delta x_1 \\
 &\dots \\
 x_N &= x_{N-1} + \Delta x_{N-1} = b
 \end{aligned}$$

where a and b are the limits of integration. The grid specifies the transformation function at the points $y = i/N$ for $i = 0, 1 \dots N$:

$$x(y=i/N) = x_i$$

Linear interpolation is used between those points. The Jacobian for this transformation is:

$$J(y) = J_i = N\Delta x_i$$

vegas adjusts the increments sizes to optimize its Monte Carlo estimates of the integral. This involves training the grid. To illustrate how this is done with *vegas.AdaptiveMaps* consider a simple two dimensional integral over a unit hypercube with integrand:

```
def f(x):
    return x[0] * x[1] ** 2
```

We want to create a grid that optimizes uniform Monte Carlo estimates of the integral in y space. We do this by sampling the integrand at a large number ny of random points $y[j, d]$, where $j=0 \dots ny-1$ and $d=0, 1$, uniformly distributed throughout the integration volume in y space. These samples be used to train the grid using the following code:

```
import vegas
import numpy as np

def f(x):
    return x[0] * x[1] ** 2

m = vegas.AdaptiveMap([[0, 1], [0, 1]], ninc=5)

ny = 1000
y = np.random.uniform(0., 1., (ny, 2)) # 1000 random y's

x = np.empty(y.shape, float) # work space
jac = np.empty(y.shape[0], float)
f2 = np.empty(y.shape[0], float)

print('intial grid:')
print(m.settings())

for itn in range(5): # 5 iterations to adapt
    m.map(y, x, jac) # compute x's and jac

    for j in range(ny): # compute training data
        f2[j] = (jac[j] * f(x[j])) ** 2
```



```
m.add_training_data(y, f2)          # adapt
m.adapt(alpha=1.5)

print('iteration %d:' % itn)
print(m.settings())
```

In each of the 5 iterations, the `vegas.AdaptiveMap` adjusts the map, making increments smaller where `f2` is larger and larger where `f2` is smaller. The map converges after only 2 or 3 iterations, as is clear from the output:

```
initial grid:
  grid[ 0] = [ 0.   0.2  0.4  0.6  0.8  1. ]
  grid[ 1] = [ 0.   0.2  0.4  0.6  0.8  1. ]

iteration 0:
  grid[ 0] = [ 0.   0.412 0.62  0.76  0.883 1. ]
  grid[ 1] = [ 0.   0.506 0.691 0.821 0.91  1. ]

iteration 1:
  grid[ 0] = [ 0.   0.428 0.63  0.772 0.893 1. ]
  grid[ 1] = [ 0.   0.531 0.713 0.832 0.921 1. ]

iteration 2:
  grid[ 0] = [ 0.   0.433 0.63  0.772 0.894 1. ]
  grid[ 1] = [ 0.   0.533 0.714 0.831 0.922 1. ]

iteration 3:
  grid[ 0] = [ 0.   0.435 0.631 0.772 0.894 1. ]
  grid[ 1] = [ 0.   0.533 0.715 0.831 0.923 1. ]

iteration 4:
  grid[ 0] = [ 0.   0.436 0.631 0.772 0.895 1. ]
  grid[ 1] = [ 0.   0.533 0.715 0.831 0.924 1. ]
```

The grid increments along direction 0 shrink at larger values `x[0]`, varying as $1/x[0]$. Along direction 1 the increments shrink more quickly varying like $1/x[1]**2$.

`vegas` samples the integrand in order to estimate the integral. It uses those same samples to train its `vegas.AdaptiveMap` in this fashion, for use in subsequent iterations of the algorithm.

class `vegas.AdaptiveMap`

Adaptive map $y \rightarrow x(y)$ for multidimensional y and x .

An `AdaptiveMap` defines a multidimensional map $y \rightarrow x(y)$ from the unit hypercube, with $0 \leq y[d] \leq 1$, to an arbitrary hypercube in x space. Each direction is mapped independently with a Jacobian that is tunable (i.e., “adaptive”).

The map is specified by a grid in x -space that, by definition, maps into a uniformly spaced grid in y -space. The nodes of the grid are specified by `grid[d, i]` where d is the direction ($d=0, 1 \dots \text{dim}-1$) and i labels the grid point ($i=0, 1 \dots N$). The mapping for a specific point y into x space is:

$$y[d] \rightarrow x[d] = \text{grid}[d, i(y[d])] + \text{inc}[d, i(y[d])] * \text{delta}(y[d])$$

where $i(y) = \text{floor}(y*N)$, $\text{delta}(y) = y*N - i(y)$, and $\text{inc}[d, i] = \text{grid}[d, i+1] - \text{grid}[d, i]$. The Jacobian for this map,

$$dx[d]/dy[d] = \text{inc}[d, i(y[d])] * N,$$

is piece-wise constant and proportional to the x -space grid spacing. Each increment in the x -space grid maps into an increment of size $1/N$ in the corresponding y space. So regions in x space where $inc[d, i]$ is small are stretched out in y space, while larger increments are compressed.

The x grid for an *AdaptiveMap* can be specified explicitly when the map is created: for example,

```
m = AdaptiveMap([[0, 0.1, 1], [-1, 0, 1]])
```

creates a two-dimensional map where the $x[0]$ interval $(0, 0.1)$ and $(0.1, 1)$ map into the $y[0]$ intervals $(0, 0.5)$ and $(0.5, 1)$ respectively, while $x[1]$ intervals $(-1, 0)$ and $(0, 1)$ map into $y[1]$ intervals $(0, 0.5)$ and $(0.5, 1)$.

More typically an initially uniform map is trained with data $f[j]$ corresponding to ny points $y[j, d]$, with $j=0 \dots ny-1$, uniformly distributed in y space: for example,

```
m.add_training_data(y, f)
m.adapt(alpha=1.5)
```

`m.adapt(alpha=1.5)` shrinks grid increments where $f[j]$ is large, and expands them where $f[j]$ is small. Typically one has to iterate over several sets of ys and fs before the grid has fully adapted.

The speed with which the grid adapts is determined by parameter `alpha`. Large (positive) values imply rapid adaptation, while small values (much less than one) imply slow adaptation. As in any iterative process, it is usually a good idea to slow adaptation down in order to avoid instabilities.

Parameters

- **grid** – Initial x grid, where $grid[d, i]$ is the i -th node in direction d .
- **ninc** (int or None) – Number of increments along each axis of the x grid. A new grid is generated if `ninc` differs from `grid.shape[1]`. The new grid is designed to give the same Jacobian $dx(y)/dy$ as the original grid. The default value, `ninc=None`, leaves the grid unchanged.

dim

Number of dimensions.

ninc

Number of increments along each grid axis.

grid

The nodes of the grid defining the maps are `self.grid[d, i]` where $d=0 \dots$ specifies the direction and $i=0 \dots self.ninc$ the node.

inc

The increment widths of the grid:

```
self.inc[d, i] = self.grid[d, i + 1] - self.grid[d, i]
```

adapt (*alpha=0.0, ninc=None*)

Adapt grid to accumulated training data.

`self.adapt(...)` projects the training data onto each axis independently and maps it into x space. It shrinks x -grid increments in regions where the projected training data is large, and grows increments where the projected data is small. The grid along any direction is unchanged if the training data is constant along that direction.

The number of increments along a direction can be changed by setting parameter `ninc`.

The grid does not change if no training data has been accumulated, unless `ninc` is specified, in which case the number of increments is adjusted while preserving the relative density of increments at different values of x .

Parameters

- **alpha** (*double or None*) – Determines the speed with which the grid adapts to training data. Large (positive) values imply rapid evolution; small values (much less than one) imply slow evolution. Typical values are of order one. Choosing `alpha<0` causes adaptation to the unmodified training data (usually not a good idea).
- **ninc** (*int or None*) – Number of increments along each direction in the new grid. The number is unchanged from the old grid if `ninc` is omitted (or equals `None`).

add_training_data (*y, f, ny=-1*)

Add training data `f` for `y`-space points `y`.

Accumulates training data for later use by `self.adapt()`. Grid increments will be made smaller in regions where `f` is larger than average, and larger where `f` is smaller than average. The grid is unchanged (converged?) when `f` is constant across the grid.

Parameters

- **y** (*contiguous 2-d array of floats*) – `y` values corresponding to the training data. `y` is a contiguous 2-d array, where `y[j, d]` is for points along direction `d`.
- **f** (*contiguous 2-d array of floats*) – Training function values. `f[j]` corresponds to point `y[j, d]` in `y`-space.
- **ny** (*int*) – Number of `y` points: `y[j, d]` for `d=0...dim-1` and `j=0...ny-1`. `ny` is set to `y.shape[0]` if it is omitted (or negative).

__call__ (*y*)

Return `x` values corresponding to `y`.

`y` can be a single `dim`-dimensional point, or it can be an array `y[i, j, ..., d]` of such points (`d=0...dim-1`).

If `y=None` (default), `y` is set equal to a (uniform) random point in the volume.

jac (*y*)

Return the map's Jacobian at `y`.

`y` can be a single `dim`-dimensional point, or it can be an array `y[d, i, j, ...]` of such points (`d=0...dim-1`).

make_uniform (*ninc=None*)

Replace the grid with a uniform grid.

The new grid has `ninc` increments along each direction if `ninc` is specified. Otherwise it has the same number of increments as the old grid.

map (*y, x, jac, ny=-1*)

Map `y` to `x`, where `jac` is the Jacobian.

`y[j, d]` is an array of `ny` `y`-values for direction `d`. `x[j, d]` is filled with the corresponding `x` values, and `jac[j]` is filled with the corresponding Jacobian values. `x` and `jac` must be preallocated: for example,

```
x = numpy.empty(y.shape, numpy.float_)
jac = numpy.empty(y.shape[0], numpy.float_)
```

Parameters

- **y** (*contiguous 2-d array of floats*) – `y` values to be mapped. `y` is a contiguous 2-d array, where `y[j, d]` contains values for points along direction `d`.

- **x** (*contiguous 2-d array of floats*) – Container for x values corresponding to y .
- **jac** (*contiguous 1-d array of floats*) – Container for Jacobian values corresponding to y .
- **ny** (*int*) – Number of y points: $y[j, d]$ for $d=0 \dots \text{dim}-1$ and $j=0 \dots \text{ny}-1$. ny is set to $y.\text{shape}[0]$ if it is omitted (or negative).

show_grid (*ngrid=40, shrink=False*)

Display plots showing the current grid.

Parameters

- **ngrid** (*int*) – The number of grid nodes in each direction to include in the plot. The default is 40.
- **axes** – List of pairs of directions to use in different views of the grid. Using `None` in place of a direction plots the grid for only one direction. Omitting **axes** causes a default set of pairings to be used.
- **shrink** – Display entire range of each axis if `False`; otherwise shrink range to include just the nodes being displayed. The default is `False`.

settings (*ngrid=5*)

Create string with information about grid nodes.

Creates a string containing the locations of the nodes in the map grid for each direction. Parameter `ngrid` specifies the maximum number of nodes to print (spread evenly over the grid).

3.4 PDFIntegrator Objects

Expectation values using probability density functions defined by collections of Gaussian random variables (see `gvar`) can be evaluated using the following specialized integrator:

class `vegas.PDFIntegrator` (*g, limit=1e15, scale=1., svdcut=1e-15*)

vegas integrator for PDF expectation values.

`PDFIntegrator(g)` is a *vegas* integrator that evaluates expectation values for the multi-dimensional Gaussian distribution specified by `g`, which is a `gvar.GVar` or an array of `gvar.GVars` or a dictionary whose values are `gvar.GVars` or arrays of `gvar.GVars`.

`PDFIntegrator` integrates over the entire parameter space of the distribution but reexpresses integrals in terms of variables that diagonalize `g`'s covariance matrix and are centered at its mean value. This greatly facilitates integration over these variables using the *vegas* module, making integrals over 10s or more of parameters feasible.

A simple illustration of `PDFIntegrator` is given by the following code:

```
import vegas
import gvar as gv

# multi-dimensional Gaussian distribution
g = gv.BufferDict()
g['a'] = gv.gvar([0., 1.], [[1., 0.9], [0.9, 1.]])
g['b'] = gv.gvar('1(1)')

# integrator for expectation values in distribution g
g_expval = vegas.PDFIntegrator(g)
```

```
# want expectation value of [fp, fp**2]
def f_f2(p):
    fp = p['a'][0] * p['a'][1] + p['b']
    return [fp, fp ** 2]

# adapt integrator to f_f2
warmup = g_expval(f_f2, neval=1000, nitn=5)

# <f_f2> in distribution g
results = g_expval(f_f2, neval=1000, nitn=5, adapt=False)
print(results.summary())
print('results =', results, '\n')

# mean and standard deviation of f(p)'s distribution
fmean = results[0]
fsdev = gv.sqrt(results[1] - results[0] ** 2)
print ('f.mean =', fmean, '    f.sdev =', fsdev)
print ("Gaussian approx'n for f(g) =", f_f2(g)[0])
```

where the warmup calls to the integrator are used to adapt it to the integrand, and the final results are in results. Here neval is the (approximate) number of function calls per iteration of the *vegas* algorithm and nitn is the number of iterations. We use the integrator to calculate the expectation value of fp and fp**2, so we can compute the standard deviation for the distribution of fps. The output from this code shows that the Gaussian approximation (1.0(1.4)) for the mean and standard deviation of the fp distribution is not particularly accurate here (correct value is 1.9(2.0)), because of the large uncertainties in g:

itn	integral	average	chi2/dof	Q
1	1.893 (38)	1.893 (38)	0.00	1.00
2	1.905 (35)	1.899 (26)	0.25	0.78
3	1.854 (41)	1.884 (22)	0.47	0.76
4	1.921 (36)	1.893 (19)	0.44	0.85
5	1.913 (37)	1.897 (17)	0.35	0.94

results = [1.897(17) 7.48(10)]

f.mean = 1.897(17) f.sdev = 1.969(21)
 Gaussian approx'n for f(g) = 1.0(1.4)

In general functions being integrated can return a number, or an array of numbers, or a dictionary whose values are numbers or arrays of numbers. This allows multiple expectation values to be evaluated simultaneously.

See the documentation with the *vegas* module for more details on its use, and on the attributes and methods associated with integrators. The example above sets adapt=False when computing final results. This gives more reliable error estimates when neval is small. Note that neval may need to be much larger (tens or hundreds of thousands) for more difficult high-dimension integrals.

Parameters

- **g** – gvar.GVar, array of gvar.GVars, or dictionary whose values are gvar.GVars or arrays of gvar.GVars that specifies the multi-dimensional Gaussian distribution used to construct the probability density function.
- **limit** (positive float) – Limits the integrations to a finite region of size limit times the standard deviation on either side of the mean. This can be useful if the functions being integrated misbehave for large parameter values (e.g., numpy.exp overflows for a large range of arguments). Default is 1e15.

- **scale** (*positive float*) – The integration variables are rescaled to emphasize parameter values of order `scale` times the standard deviation. The rescaling does not change the value of the integral but it can reduce uncertainties in the `vegas` estimate. Default is `1.0`.
- **svdcut** (*non-negative float or None*) – If not `None`, replace covariance matrix of `g` with a new matrix whose small eigenvalues are modified: eigenvalues smaller than `svdcut` times the maximum eigenvalue `eig_max` are replaced by `svdcut*eig_max`. This can ameliorate problems caused by roundoff errors when inverting the covariance matrix. It increases the uncertainty associated with the modified eigenvalues and so is conservative. Setting `svdcut=None` or `svdcut=0` leaves the covariance matrix unchanged. Default is `1e-15`.

__call__ (*f, nopdf=False, **kargs*)

Estimate expectation value of function $f(p)$.

Uses module `vegas` to estimate the integral of $f(p)$ multiplied by the probability density function associated with g (i.e., $\text{pdf}(p)$). The probability density function is omitted if `nopdf=True` (default setting is `False`).

Parameters

- **f** (*function*) – Function $f(p)$ to integrate. Integral is the expectation value of the function with respect to the distribution. The function can return a number, an array of numbers, or a dictionary whose values are numbers or arrays of numbers.
- **nopdf** (*bool*) – If `True` drop the probability density function from the integrand (so no longer an expectation value). This is useful if one wants to use the optimized integrator for something other than a standard expectation value (e.g., an expectation value with a non-Gaussian PDF). Default is `False`.

All other keyword arguments are passed on to a `vegas` integrator; see the `vegas` documentation for further information.

3.5 Other Objects and Functions

class `vegas.RAvg`

Running average of scalar-valued Monte Carlo estimates.

This class accumulates independent Monte Carlo estimates (e.g., of an integral) and combines them into a single average. It is derived from `gvar.GVar` (from the `gvar` module if it is present) and represents a Gaussian random variable.

Different estimates are weighted by their inverse variances if parameter `weight=True`; otherwise straight, unweighted averages are used.

mean

The mean value of the weighted average.

sdev

The standard deviation of the weighted average.

chi2

chi^2 of weighted average.

dof

Number of degrees of freedom in weighted average.

Q

Q or p -value of weighted average's chi^2 .

itn_results

A list of the results from each iteration.

add(g)

Add estimate g to the running average.

summary (*weighted=None*)

Assemble summary of results, iteration-by-iteration, into a string.

Parameters **weighted** (*bool*) – Display weighted averages of results from different iterations if *True*; otherwise show unweighted averages. Default behavior is determined by *vegas*.

class *vegas*.RAvgArray

Running average of array-valued Monte Carlo estimates.

This class accumulates independent arrays of Monte Carlo estimates (e.g., of an integral) and combines them into an array of averages. It is derived from `numpy.ndarray`. The array elements are `gvar.GVars` (from the `gvar` module if present) and represent Gaussian random variables.

Different estimates are weighted by their inverse covariance matrices if parameter `weight=True`; otherwise straight, unweighted averages are used.

chi2

chi^2 of weighted average.

dof

Number of degrees of freedom in weighted average.

Q

Q or p -value of weighted average's chi^2 .

itn_results

A list of the results from each iteration.

add(g)

Add estimate g to the running average.

summary (*extended=False*, *weighted=None*)

Assemble summary of results, iteration-by-iteration, into a string.

Parameters

- **extended** (*bool*) – Include a table of final averages for every component of the integrand if *True*. Default is *False*.
- **weighted** (*bool*) – Display weighted averages of results from different iterations if *True*; otherwise show unweighted averages. Default behavior is determined by *vegas*.

class *vegas*.RAvgDict

Running average of dictionary-valued Monte Carlo estimates.

This class accumulates independent dictionaries of Monte Carlo estimates (e.g., of an integral) and combines them into a dictionary of averages. It is derived from `gvar.BufferDict`. The dictionary values are `gvar.GVars` or arrays of `gvar.GVars`.

Different estimates are weighted by their inverse covariance matrices if parameter `weight=True`; otherwise straight, unweighted averages are used.

chi2

chi^2 of weighted average.

dof

Number of degrees of freedom in weighted average.

Q

Q or *p-value* of weighted average's χ^2 .

itn_results

A list of the results from each iteration.

add(*g*)

summary (*extended=False*, *weighted=None*)

Assemble summary of results, iteration-by-iteration, into a string.

Parameters

- **extended** (*bool*) – Include a table of final averages for every component of the integrand if *True*. Default is *False*.
- **weighted** (*bool*) – Display weighted averages of results from different iterations if *True*; otherwise show unweighted averages. Default behavior is determined by *vegas*.

vegas.batchintegrand()

Decorator for batch integrand functions.

Applying *vegas.batchintegrand()* to a function *fcn* repackages the function in a format that *vegas* can understand. Appropriate functions take a numpy array of integration points *x*[*i*, *d*] as an argument, where *i*=0... labels the integration point and *d*=0... labels direction, and return an array *f*[*i*] of integrand values (or arrays of integrand values) for the corresponding points. The meaning of *fcn*(*x*) is unchanged by the decorator.

An example is

```
import vegas
import numpy as np

@vegas.batchintegrand
def f(x):
    return np.exp(-x[:, 0] - x[:, 1])
```

for the two-dimensional integrand $\exp(-x_0 - x_1)$.

This decorator provides an alternative to deriving an integrand class from *vegas.BatchIntegrand*.

class vegas.BatchIntegrand

Base class for classes providing batch integrands.

A class derived from *vegas.BatchIntegrand* will normally provide a `__call__(self, x)` method that returns an array *f* where:

x[*i*, *d*] is a contiguous numpy array where *i*=0... labels different integration points and *d*=0... labels different directions in the integration space.

f[*i*] is a contiguous array containing the integrand values corresponding to the integration points *x*[*i*, :]. *f*[*i*] is either a number, for a single integrand, or an array (of any shape) for multiple integrands (i.e., an array-valued integrand).

An example is

```
import vegas
import numpy as np

class batchf(vegas.BatchIntegrand):
    def __call__(x):
        return np.exp(-x[:, 0] - x[:, 1])
```



```
f = batchf()      # the integrand
```

for the two-dimensional integrand $\exp(-x_0 - x_1)$.

Deriving from `vegas.BatchIntegrand` is the easiest way to construct integrands in Cython, and gives the fastest results.

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