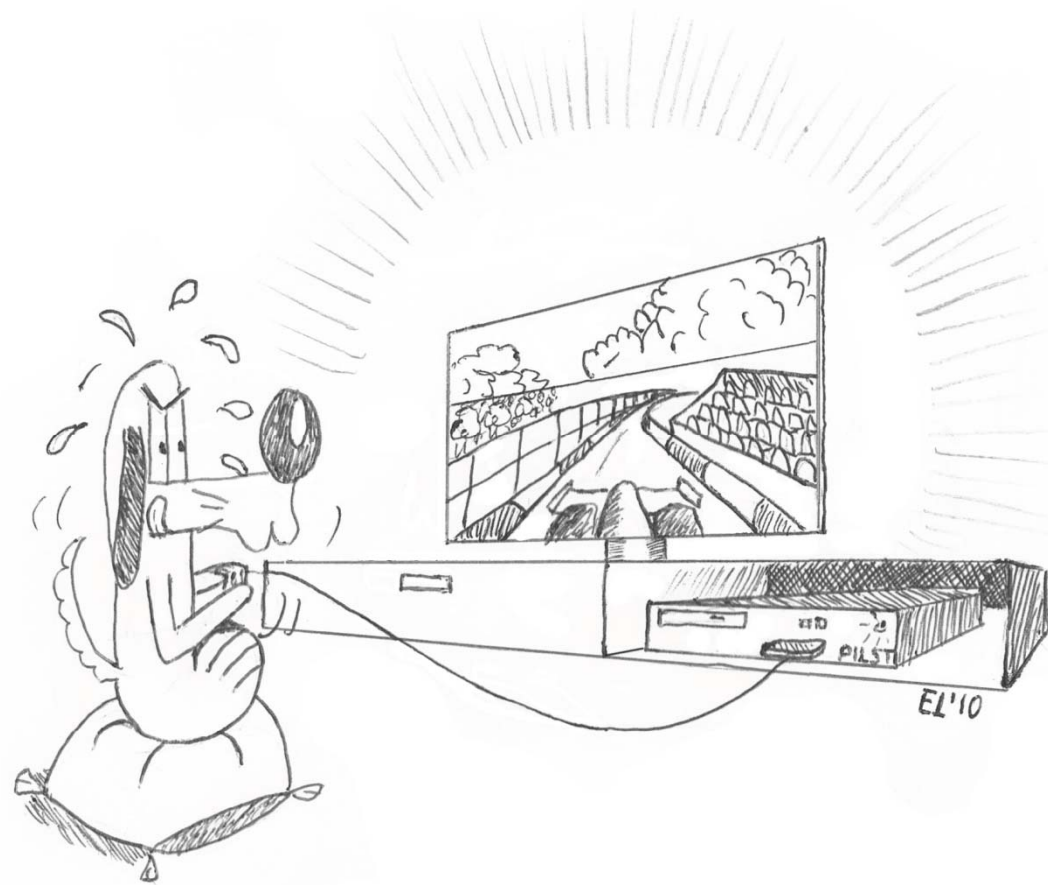


Simulation



Where real stuff
starts

ToC

1. What is a simulation ?
2. Accuracy of output
3. Random Number Generators
4. How to sample
5. Monte Carlo
6. Bootstrap

1. What is a simulation ?

Two simulation examples. What is the difference ?

Simulation 1: Time to complete N jobs

N customers arrive (at the same time) at Joe's shop and download a file. We want to estimate the time T it takes to serve the N customers

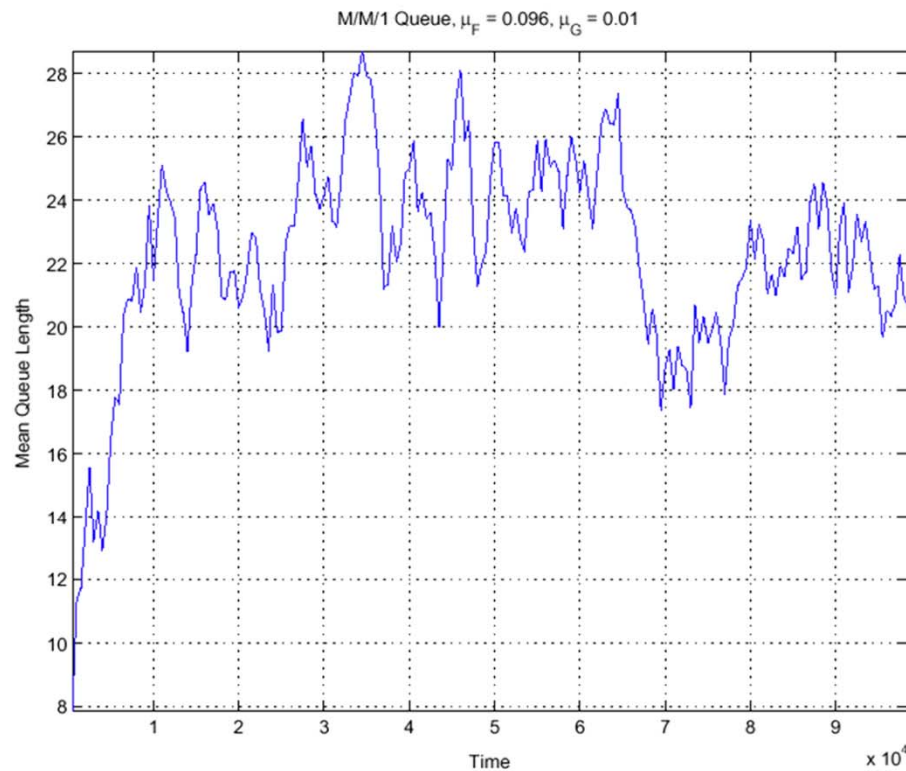
Simulation 2: Delay at a server

An information server handles requests according to some scheduling policy. We want to estimate the time it takes to serve one request

Two Simulation Runs

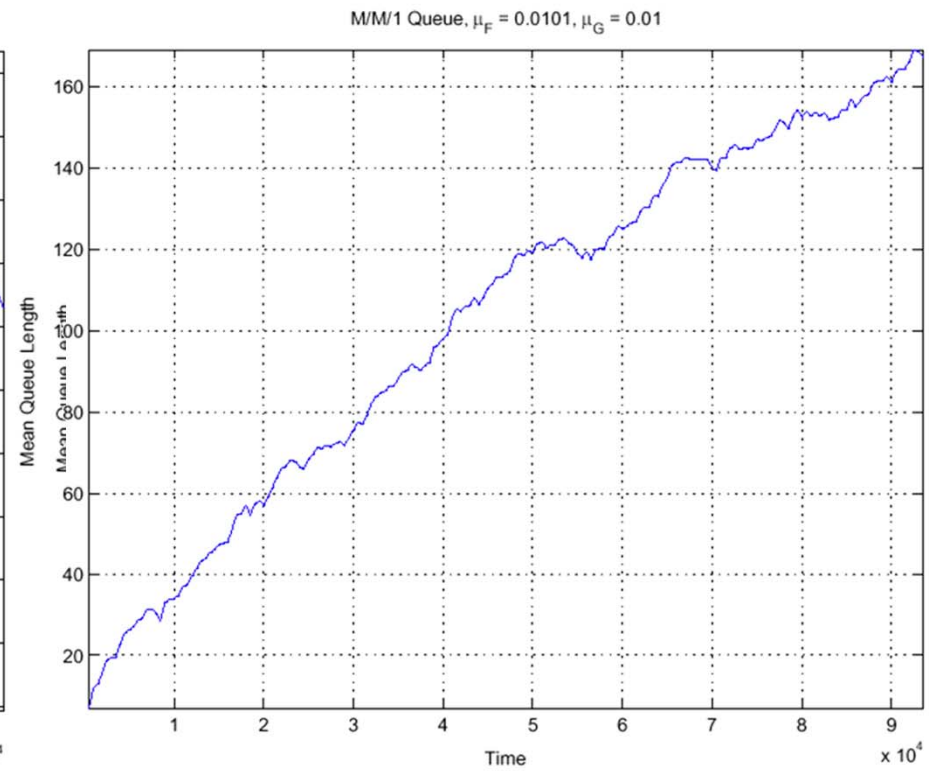
What is the difference ?

Scenario 1



Average service time = 96 ms

Scenario 2



Average service time = 101 ms

Request arrival rate = 10 /s

Definition of Stationarity

A property of a stochastic model X_t

Let X_t be a stochastic model that represents the state of the simulator at time t . It is **stationary** iff

for any $s > 0$

$(X_{t_1}, X_{t_2}, \dots, X_{t_n})$ has same distribution as $(X_{t_1+s}, X_{t_2+s}, \dots, X_{t_n+s})$

i.e. simulation does not get “**old**”

Classical Cases

Markov models

Definition: State X_t is sufficient to draw the future of the simulation --
Common case for all simulations

For a Markov model, over a discrete state space

If you run the simulation long enough it will either walk to infinity (unstable) or converge to a stationary regime

Ex: queue with $\rho > 1$: unstable

queue with $\rho < 1$: becomes stationary after transient

If the state space is strongly connected (any state can be reached from any state) then there is 0 or 1 stationary regime

Ex: queue

Else, there may be several distinct stationary regimes

Ex: system with failure modes

Stationarity and Transience

Knowing whether a model has a stationary regime is sometimes a hard problem

We will see important models where this is solved

Ex: some queuing systems

Ex: time series models

Reasoning about your system may give you indications

Do you expect growth ?

Do you expect seasonality ?

Once you believe your model is stationary, you should handle transients in order to eliminate the impact of initial conditions

Remove (how ? Look at your output and guess)

Sometimes it is possible to avoid transients at all (perfect simulation – see later “Importance of the View Point”)

Typical Reasons For Non Stationarity

Obvious dependency on time

Seasonality, growth

Can be ignored at small time scale (minute)

Non Stability: Explosion

Queue with utilization factor >1

Non Stability: Freezing Simulation

System becomes slower with time (**aging**)

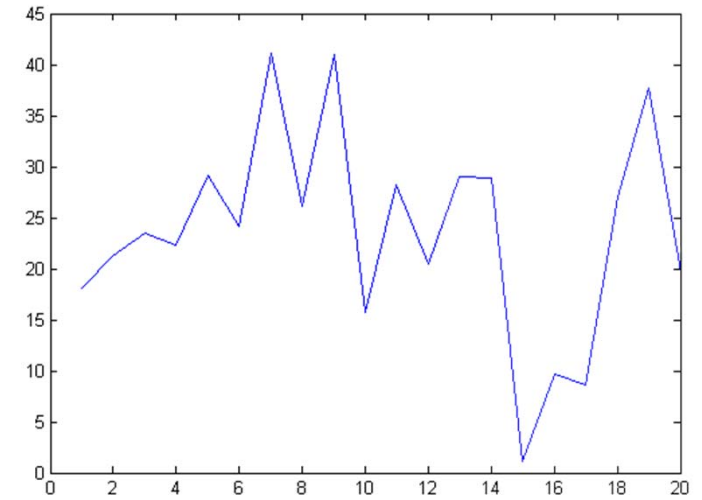
Typically because there are rare events of large impact
(« Kings »)

The longer the simulation, the larger the largest king

We'll come back to this in the chapter « Importance of the View Point »

The state of a simulation at time $t = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ is drawn at random from a distribution $F()$. Is this a stationary simulation ?

- A. Yes
- B. It depends on the distribution $F()$
- C. It depends if the simulation terminates or not
- D. No
- E. I don't know

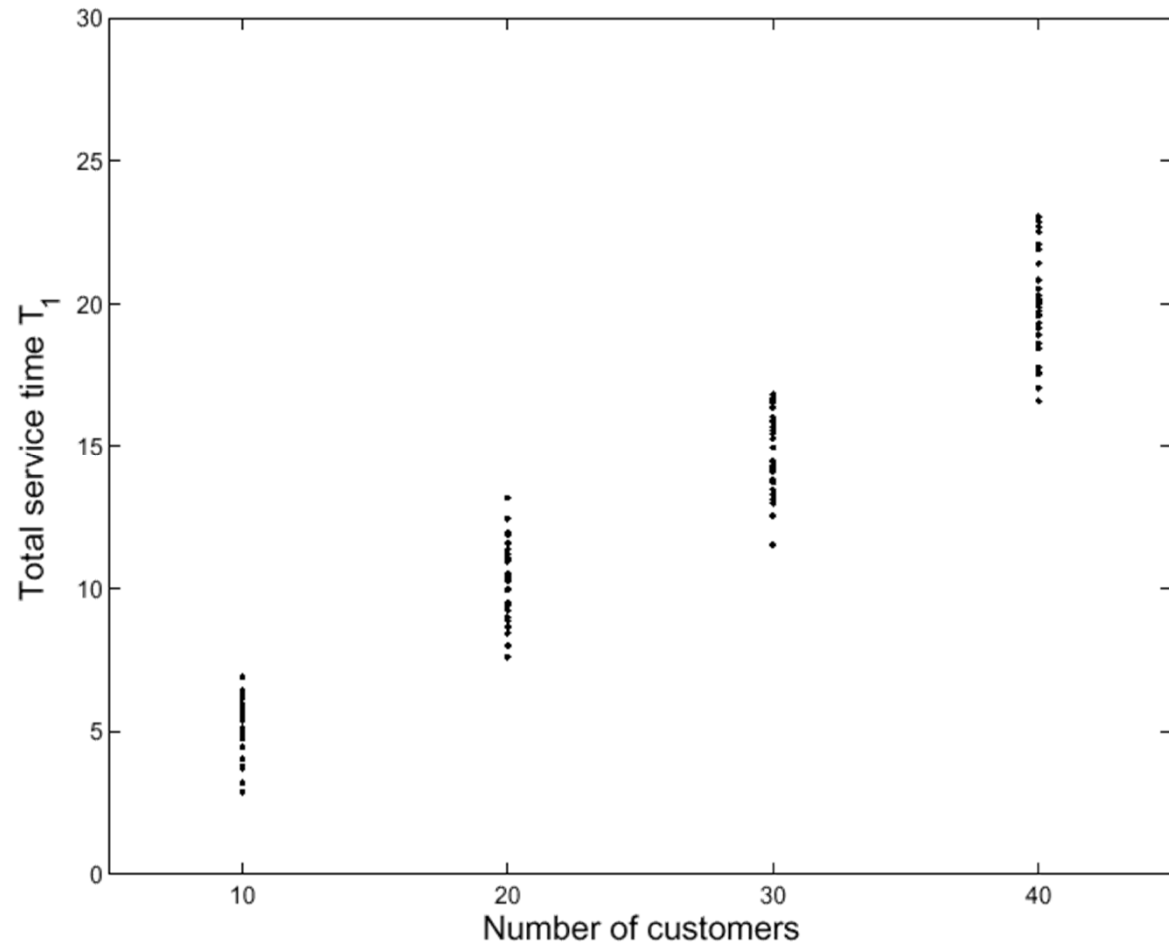


X_t is a sample drawn from the distribution $N(23, 100)$

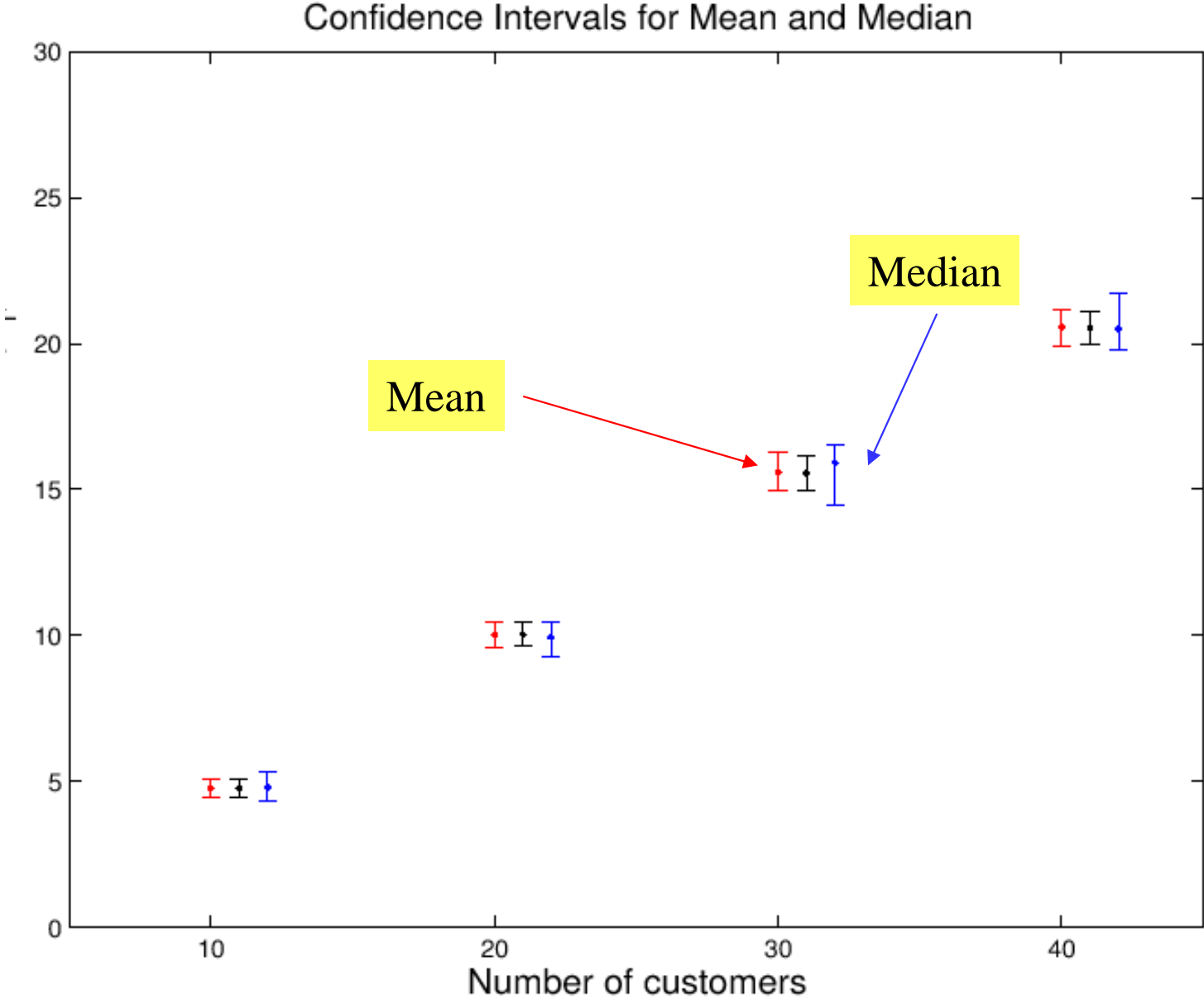
2 Accuracy of Simulation Output

A stochastic simulation produces a random output, we need confidence intervals

30 runs of
Joe's shop:
estimate the
time to
serve a batch
of N customers

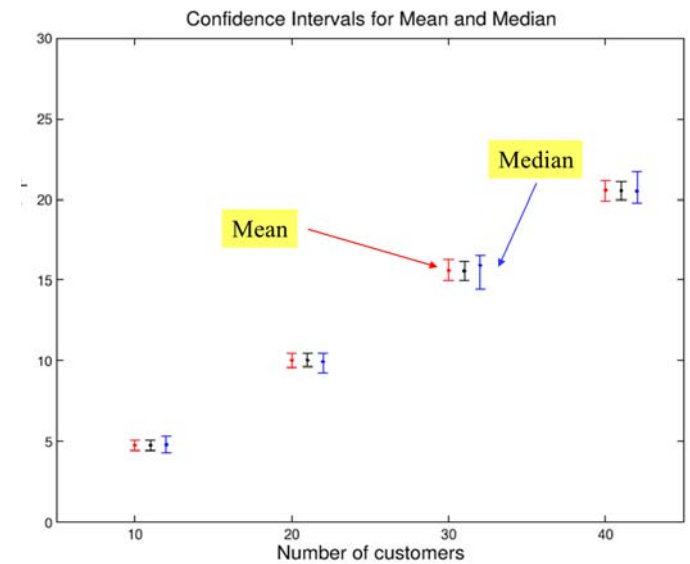


Confidence Intervals



When computing these confidence intervals we need to make sure that...

- A. ... the simulation runs are independent
- B. ... the output is normally distributed
- C. Both
- D. None
- E. I don't know



3 Random Number Generator

A stochastic simulation does not use truly random numbers but use pseudo-random numbers

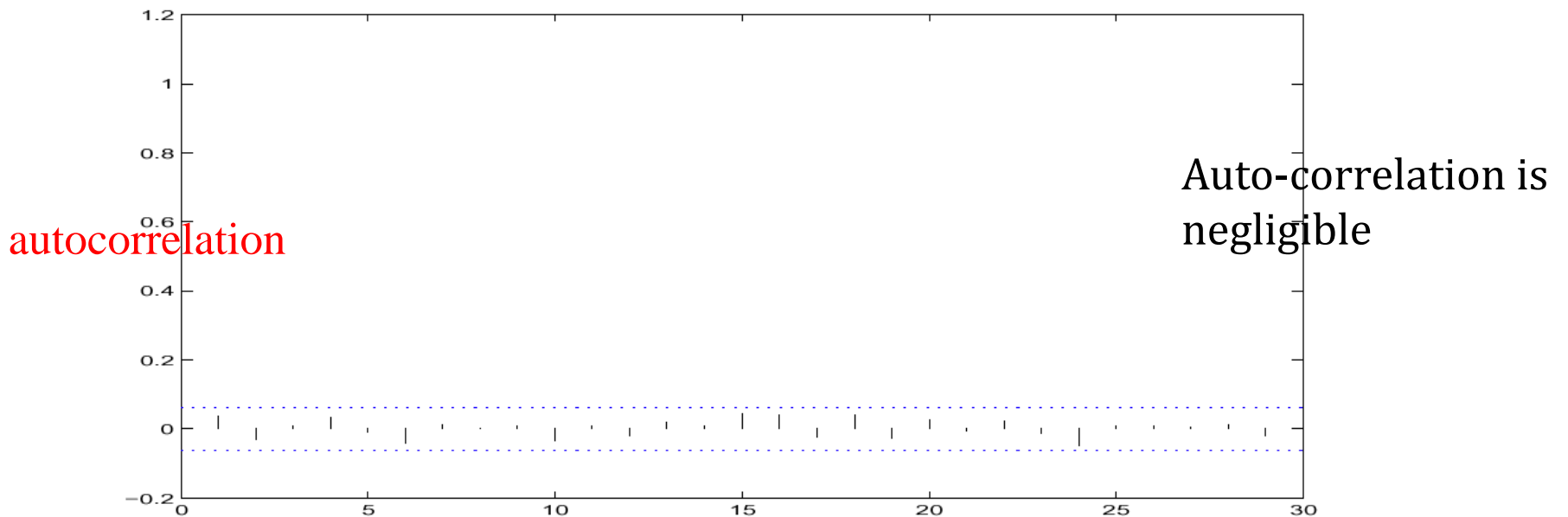
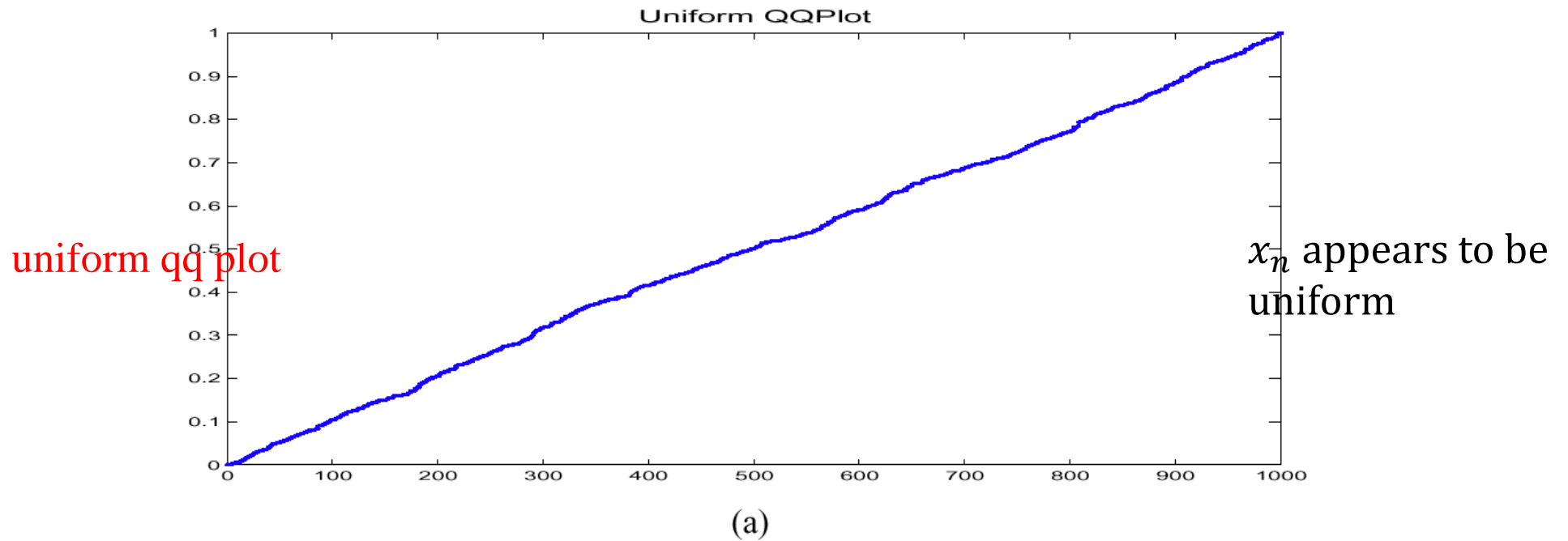
The Random Number Generator produces a random number $\sim U(0,1)$ based on a chaotic sequence

Example (obsolete but commonly used, eg in ns2:)

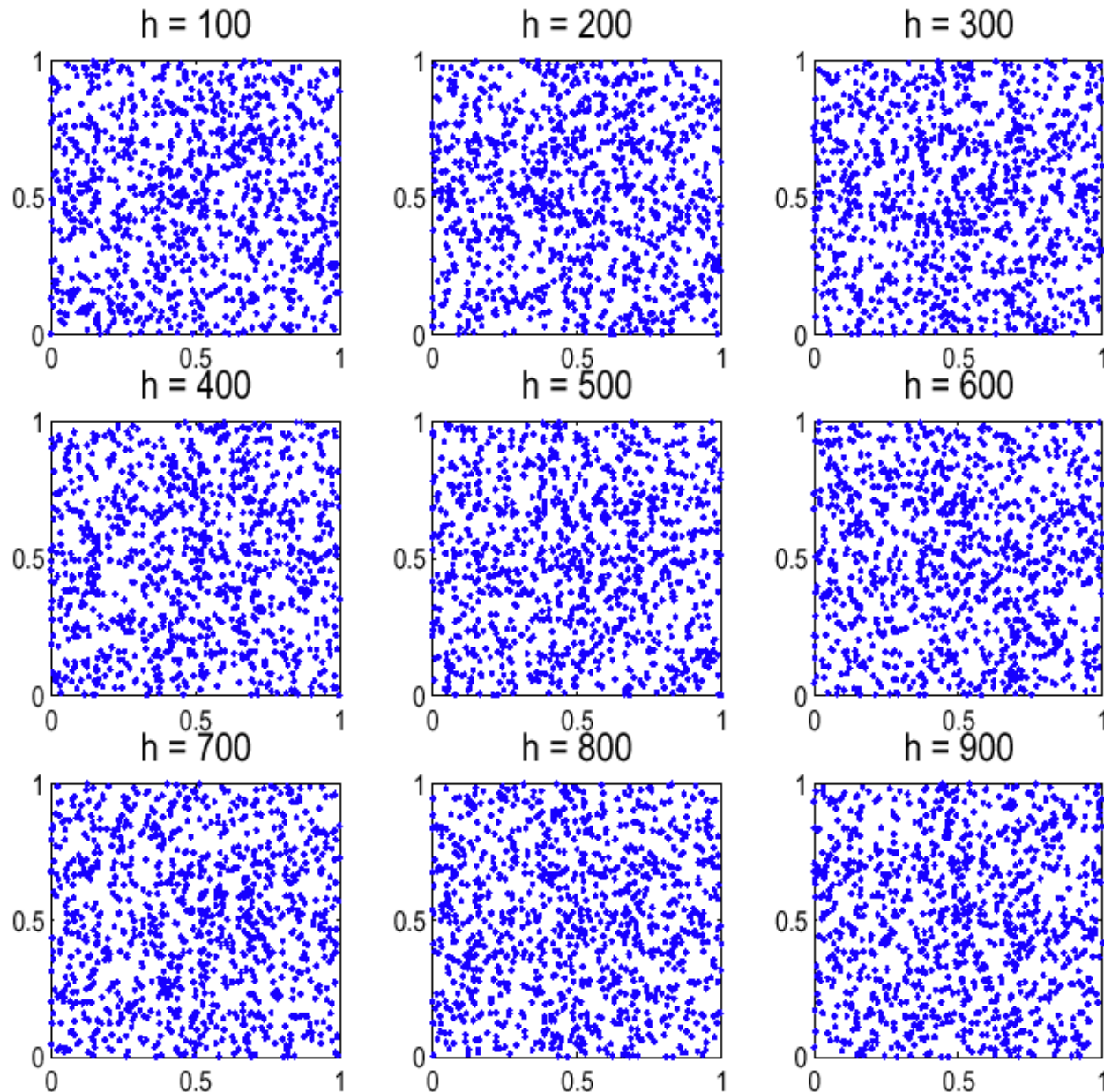
EXAMPLE 6.8: LINEAR CONGRUENCE. A widespread generator (for example the default in ns2) has $a = 16'807$ and $m = 2^{31} - 1$. The sequence is $x_n = \frac{sa^n \bmod m}{m}$ where s is the seed. m is a prime number, and the smallest exponent h such that $a^h = 1 \bmod m$ is $m - 1$. It follows that for any value of the seed s , the period of x_n is exactly $m - 1$. Figure 6.5 shows that the sequence x_n indeed looks random.

Let us check if output looks random

The Linear Congruential Generator of ns2



Lag Diagram (x_n, x_{n+h}) , 1000 points



x_n appears to be independent of x_{n+h}

Period of RNG

This RNG appears to produce an iid, uniform output

However, it is in fact periodic

Any sequence generated from a deterministic algorithm in a given computer must be periodic (because the number of states is finite)

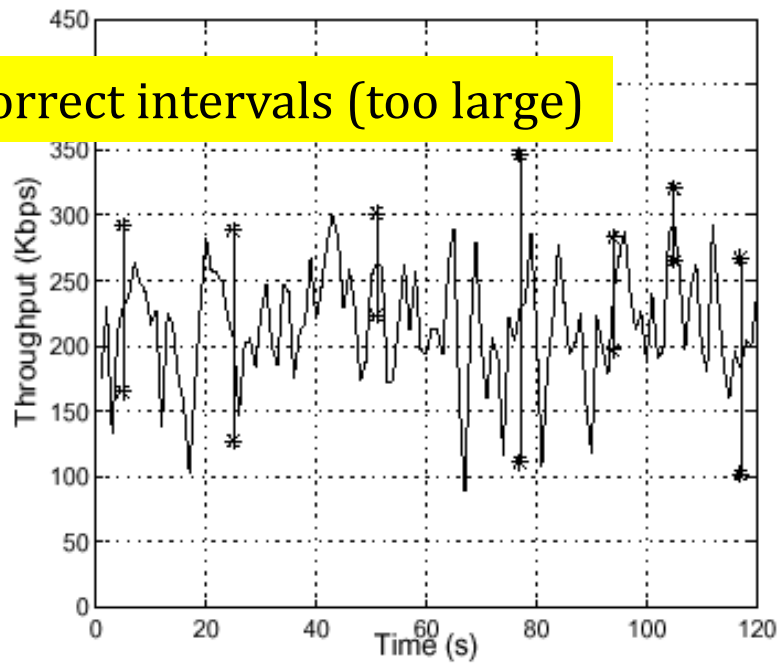
But we can require that the period should be much larger than maximum number of uses

The ns2 simulator has period $\approx 2 \cdot 10^9$, which is too small

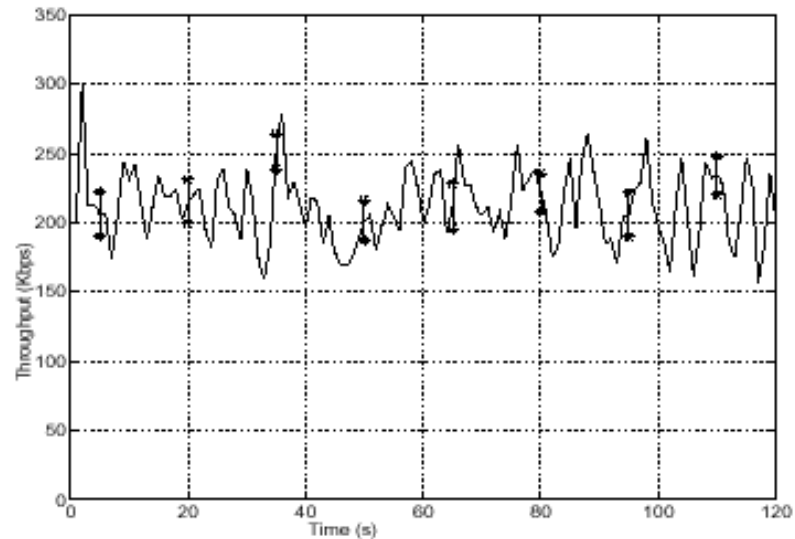
The “Mersenne twister” (matlab’s default) has period $2^{19937} - 1 \approx 10^{6000}$

Example when the period is too small

Incorrect intervals (too large)

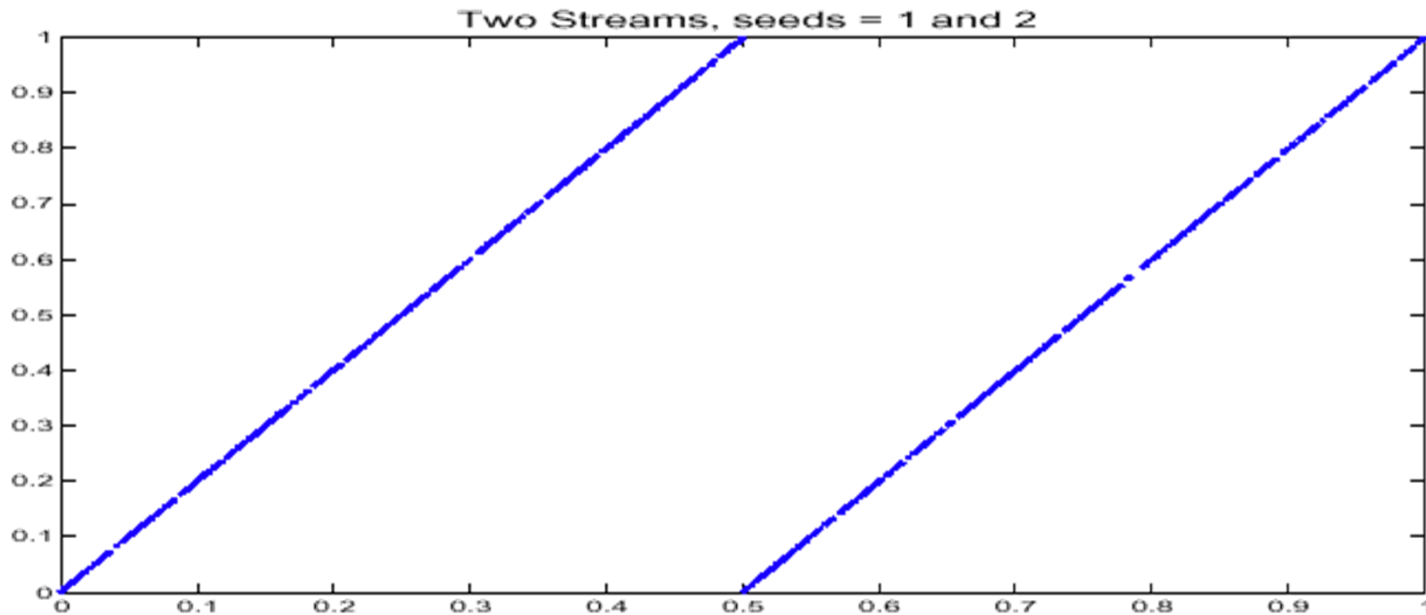


Correct intervals

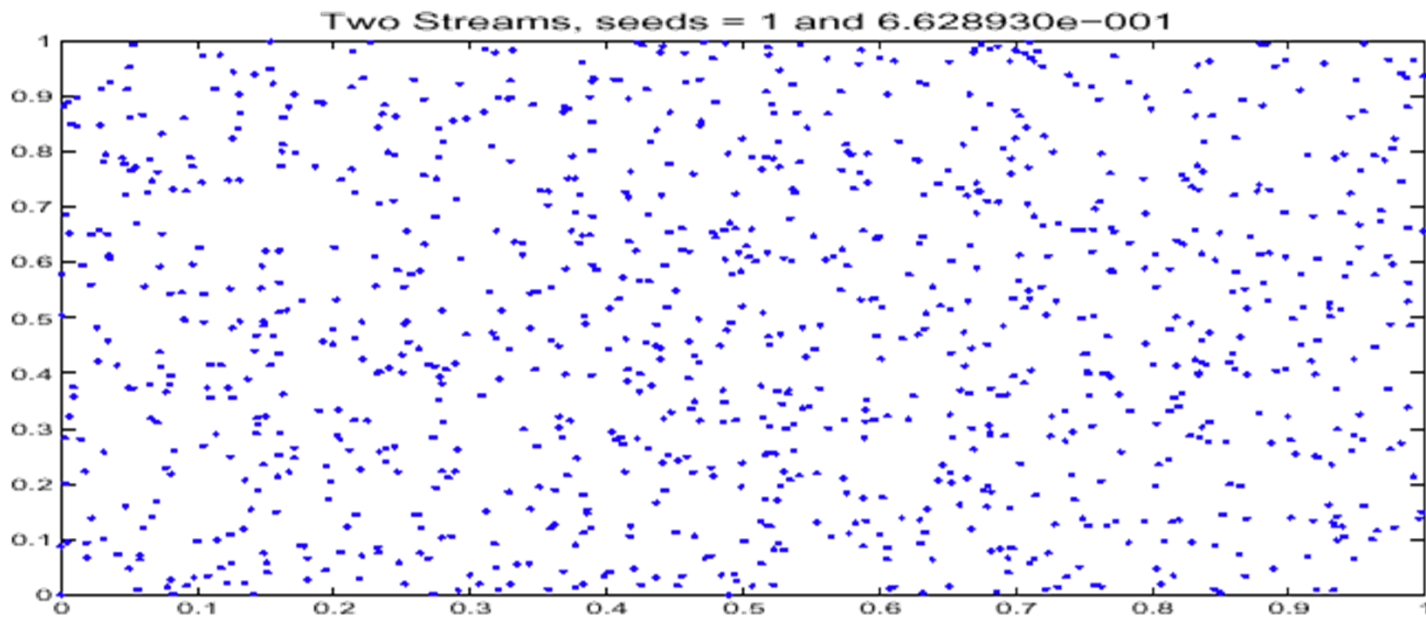


(a) Linear Congruence with $a = 16'807$ and $m = 2^{31} - 1$ and (b) L'Ecuyer's generator[LecuyerSimConf-01]

(x_n, x'_n) for two parallel streams with the ns2 RNG



(a)



Using RNGs

Be careful to have a RNG that has a period orders of magnitude larger than what you will ever use in the simulation – choose your RNG carefully

The RNG must have a period several orders of magnitude larger than the maximum number of times you will call it

The RNG uses a seed -- for independent replications you need independent seeds; sequential runs usually are sufficient. If you use **parallel** runs, you must find an way to obtain **truly independent seeds**

Eg based on clock

Or by using an RNG that supports parallel streams

4 Sampling From A Distribution

Problem is:

Given a distribution $F()$, and a RNG, produce some sample X that is drawn from this distribution

A common task in simulation

Matlab does it for us most of the time, but not always

Two generic methods

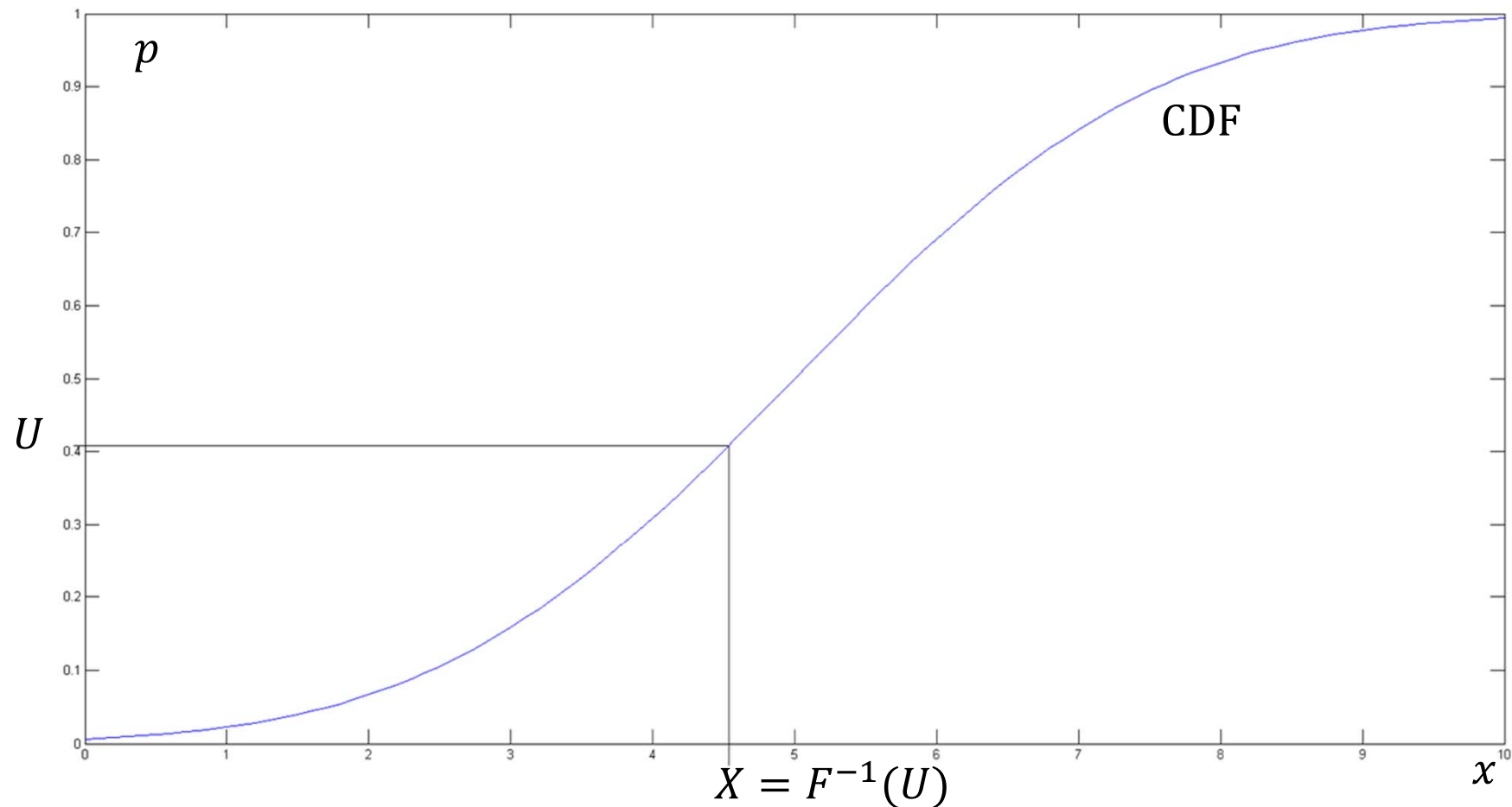
CDF inversion

Rejection sampling

CDF Inversion for distribution with CDF $F()$

Applies to real or integer valued random variable

For a continuous distribution: draw $U \sim U(0,1)$ using RNG; then $X = F^{-1}(U)$ is drawn from the distribution with CDF $F()$



Proof

U is uniformly distributed: $P(U \leq u) = u$ for $u \in [0,1]$

We define X by $X = F^{-1}(U)$, i.e. $U = F(X)$

Let us compute the CDF of X

$(X \leq x) \Leftrightarrow (F(X) \leq F(x))$ because F is monotonic increasing

Therefore

$$P(X \leq x) = P(F(X) \leq F(x)) = F(x)$$

EXAMPLE 7.10: **EXPONENTIAL RANDOM VARIABLE.** The CDF of the *exponential distribution* with parameter λ is $F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$. The pseudo-inverse is obtained by solving the equation

$$1 - e^{-\lambda x} = p$$

where x is the unknown. The solution is $x = -\frac{\ln(1-p)}{\lambda}$. Thus a sample X of the exponential distribution is obtained by letting $X = -\frac{\ln(1-U)}{\lambda}$, or, since U and $1 - U$ have the same distribution:

$$X = -\frac{\ln(U)}{\lambda} \tag{7.9}$$

where U is the output of the random number generator.

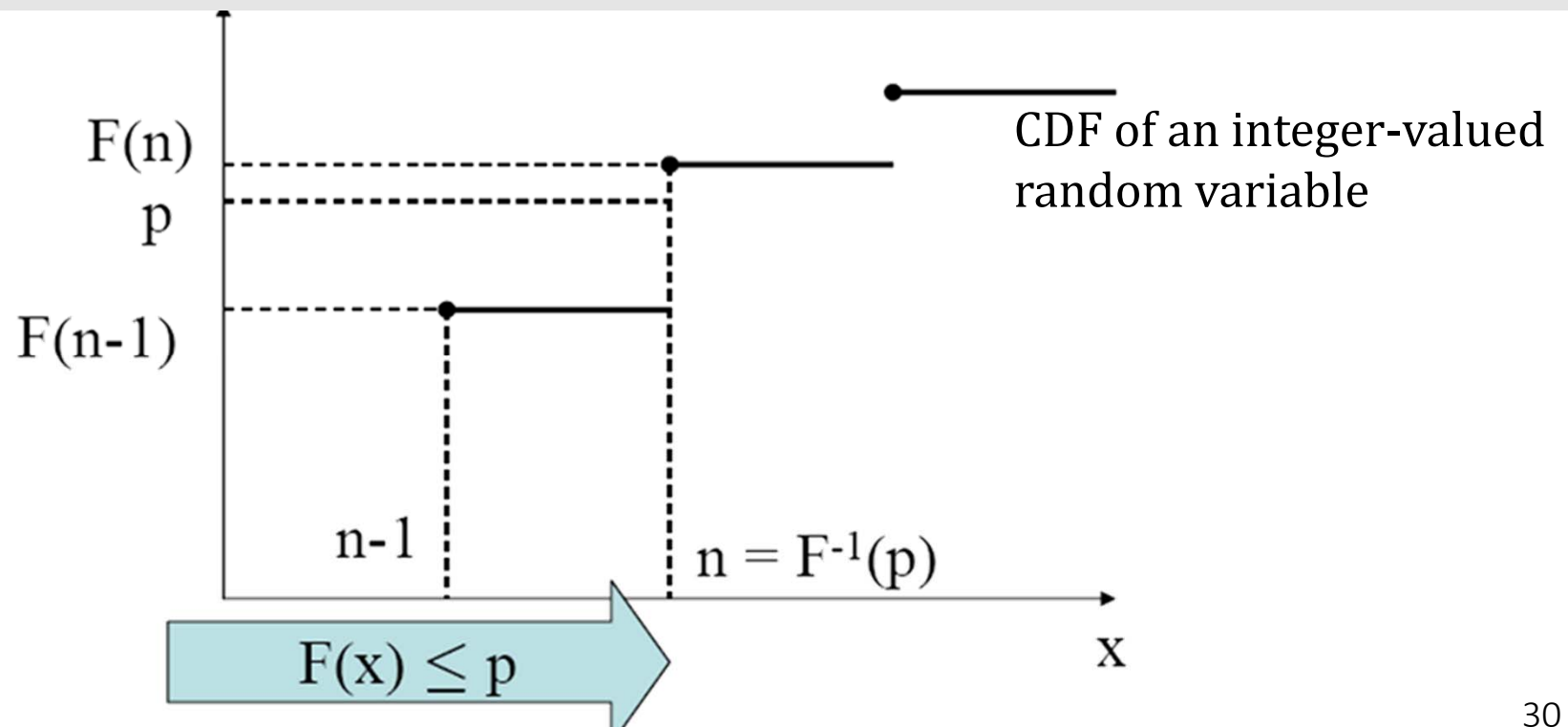
CDF Inversion, when $F()$ has jumps

Replace inverse by pseudo-inverse

THEOREM 6.1. Let F be the CDF of a random variable X with values in \mathbb{R} . Define the **pseudo-inverse**, F^{-1} of F by

$$F^{-1}(p) = \sup\{x : F(x) \leq p\}$$

Let U be a sample of a random variable with uniform distribution on $(0, 1)$; $F^{-1}(U)$ is a sample of X .



Sampling an integer valued RV

We want to draw a sample of the random integer $N \geq 0$ such that $p_k = P(N = k)$.

Let $F_n = \sum_{i=0}^n p_i$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ and $F_{-1} = 0$

1. Draw U using the RNG
2. Output is n such that $F_{n-1} \leq U < F_n$

EXAMPLE 7.11: **GEOMETRIC RANDOM VARIABLE.** Here X takes integer values $0, 1, 2, \dots$. The *geometric distribution* with parameter θ satisfies $\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \theta(1 - \theta)^k$, thus for $n \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$F(n) = \sum_{k=0}^n \theta(1 - \theta)^k = 1 - (1 - \theta)^{n+1}$$

by application of Eq.(7.10):

$$F^{-1}(p) = n \Leftrightarrow n \leq \frac{\ln(1 - p)}{\ln(1 - \theta)} < n + 1$$

hence

$$F^{-1}(p) = \left\lfloor \frac{\ln(1 - p)}{\ln(1 - \theta)} \right\rfloor$$

and, since U and $1 - U$ have the same distribution, a sample X of the geometric distribution is

$$X = \left\lfloor \frac{\ln(U)}{\ln(1 - \theta)} \right\rfloor \tag{7.11}$$

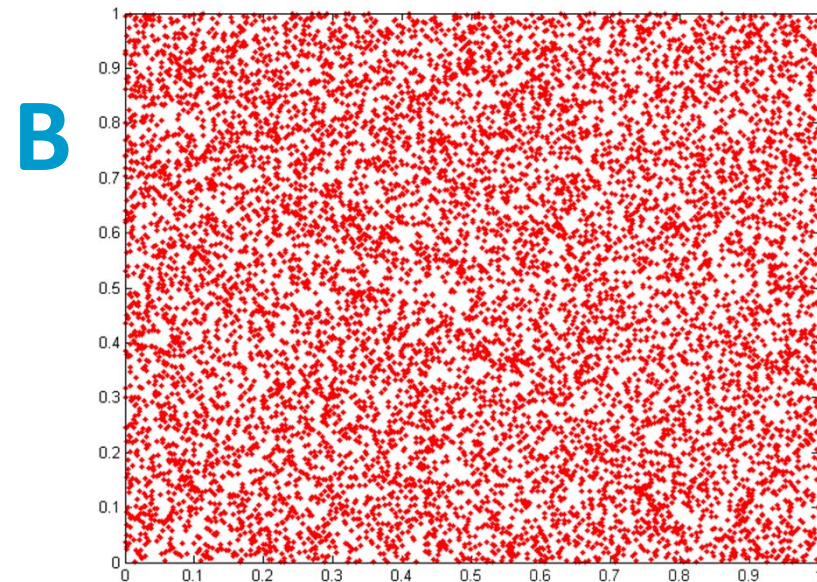
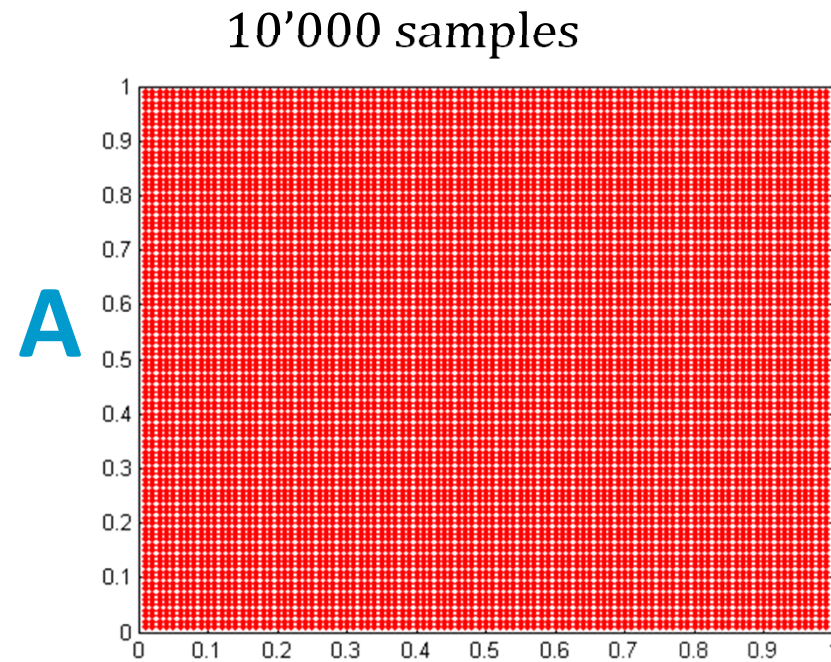
What does this function compute ?

$\text{myfun}(p) = \text{if rand}() < p \text{ } 0 \text{ else } 1$

- A. The flip of a coin where 1 is obtained with proba p and 0 with proba $1-p$
- B. The flip of a coin where 1 is obtained with proba $1-p$ and 0 with proba p
- C. A sample of a geometric random variable with mean $\frac{1}{p}$
- D. A sample of a geometric random variable with mean $\frac{1}{1-p}$
- E. I don't know

Which one is a uniform random point ?

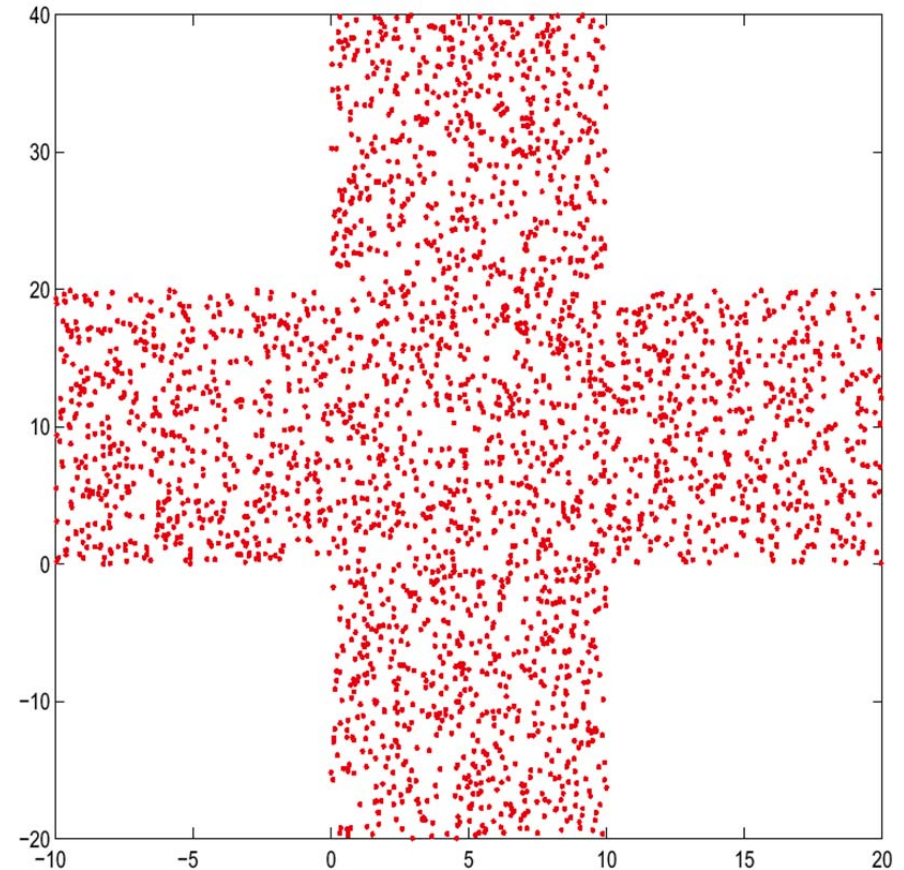
- A. A
- B. B
- C. Both
- D. None
- E. I don't know



How do you sample a uniform point in a rectangle ?

We sample a point $M = (X, Y)$ uniformly in some arbitrary area. Are X and Y independent ?

- A. Yes
- B. It depends on the area
- C. No
- D. I don't know



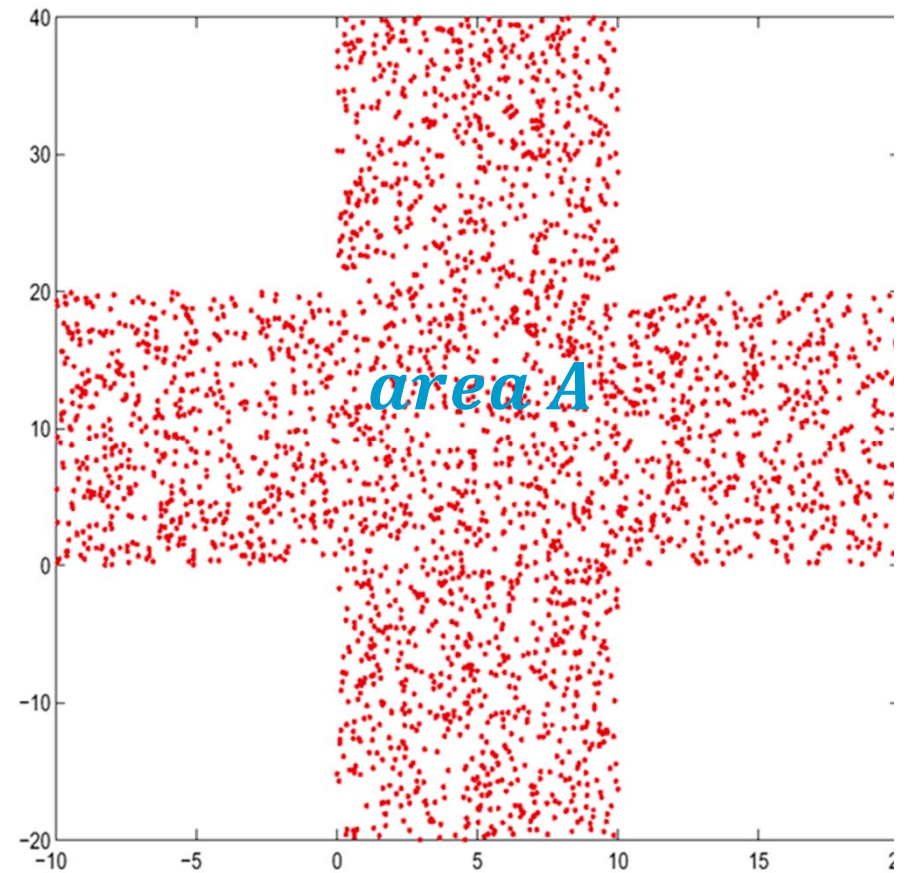
What is the PDF of the uniform distribution in A ?

A. $f_{X,Y}(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (x, y) \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

B. $f_{X,Y}(x, y) = \begin{cases} xy & \text{if } (x, y) \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

C. Something else

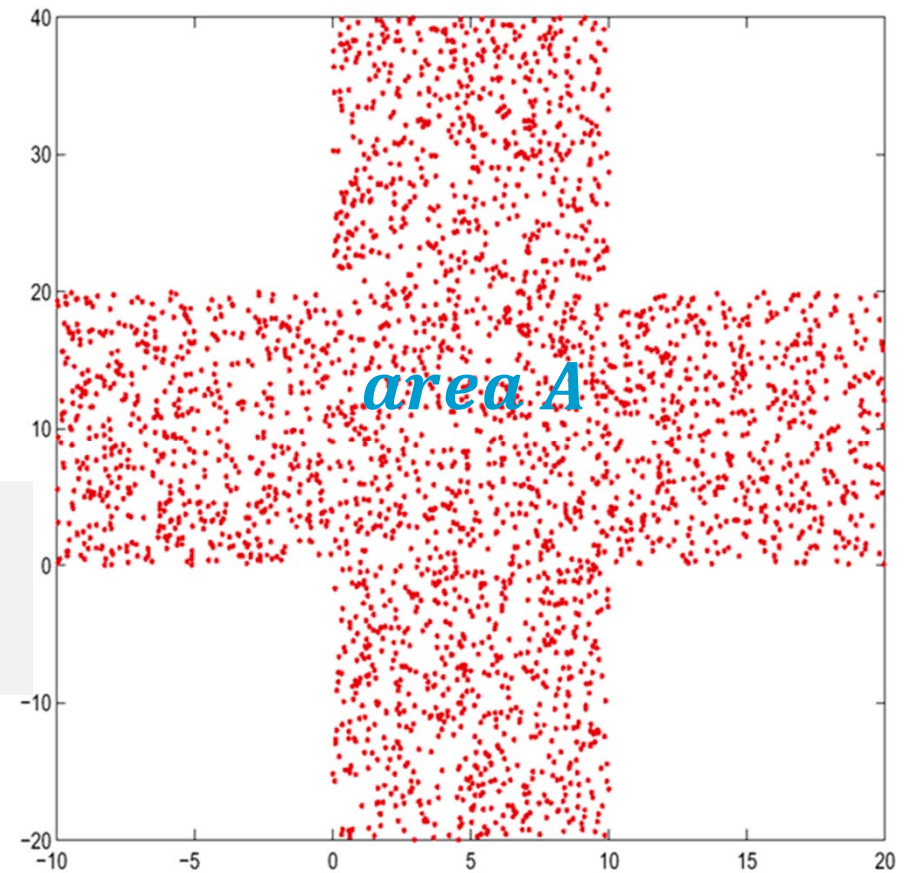
D. I don't know



How can we sample a point uniformly distributed in this area A ?

A draw $X \sim U(-10, 20)$
if $X \in [0; 10]$ draw $Y \sim U(-20; 40)$
else draw $Y \sim U(0; 20)$

B repeat
draw $X \sim U(-10, 20), Y \sim U(-20; 40)$
until $(X, Y) \in A$



- A. A
- B. B
- C. Both
- D. None
- E. I don't know

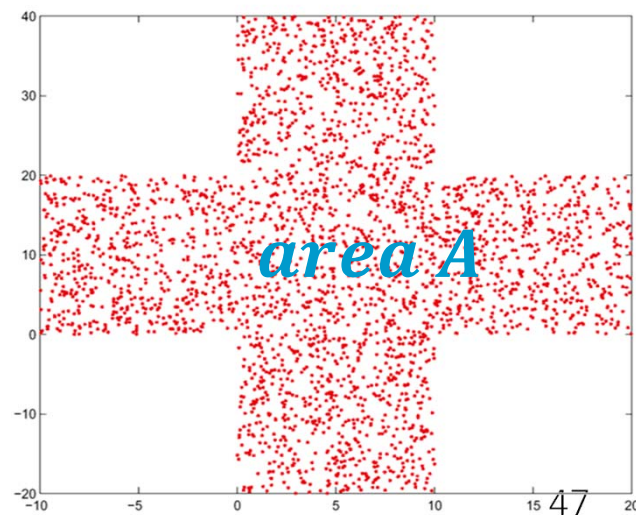
Rejection Sampling for Conditional Distribution

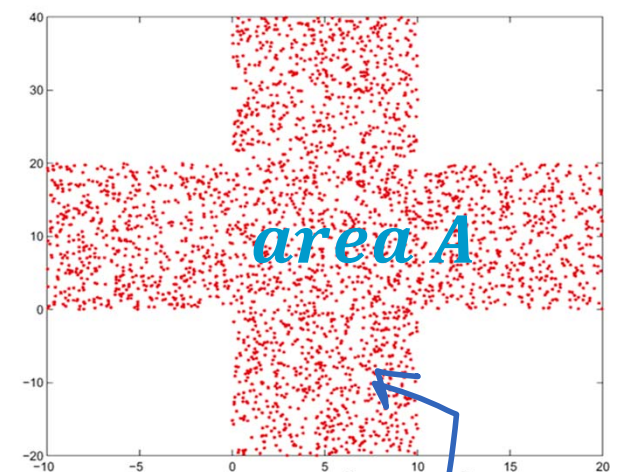
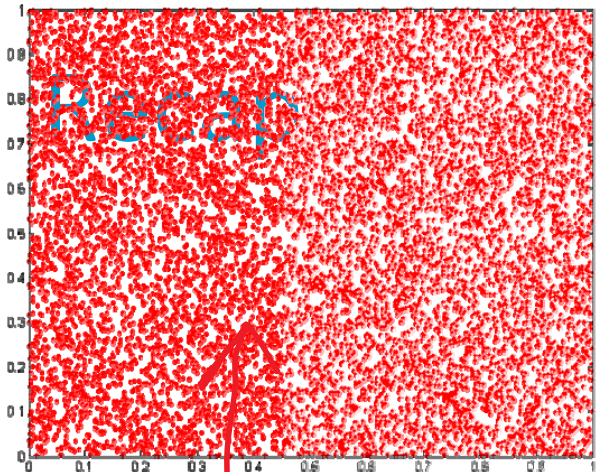
THEOREM 6.2 (Rejection Sampling for a Conditional Distribution). *Let X be a random variable in some space S such that the distribution of X is the conditional distribution of \tilde{X} given that $\tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{A}$, where (\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) is a random variable in $S \times S'$ and \mathcal{A} is a measurable subset of S' . A sample of X is obtained by the following algorithm:*

do
 draw a sample of (\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})
until $\tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{A}$
return (\tilde{X})

The expected number of iterations of the algorithm is $\frac{1}{\mathbb{P}(\tilde{Y} \in \mathcal{A})}$.

Notation in this theorem	Previous example
\tilde{X}	$(X, Y) \sim \text{Unif}(\text{rectangle})$
\tilde{Y}	$(X, Y) \sim \text{Unif}(\text{rectangle})$
X	$(X, Y) \sim \text{Unif}(A)$





A uniformly distributed point in an area A has pdf equal to $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \mathbf{1}_{(x,y) \in A} \times \frac{1}{\text{area}(A)}$

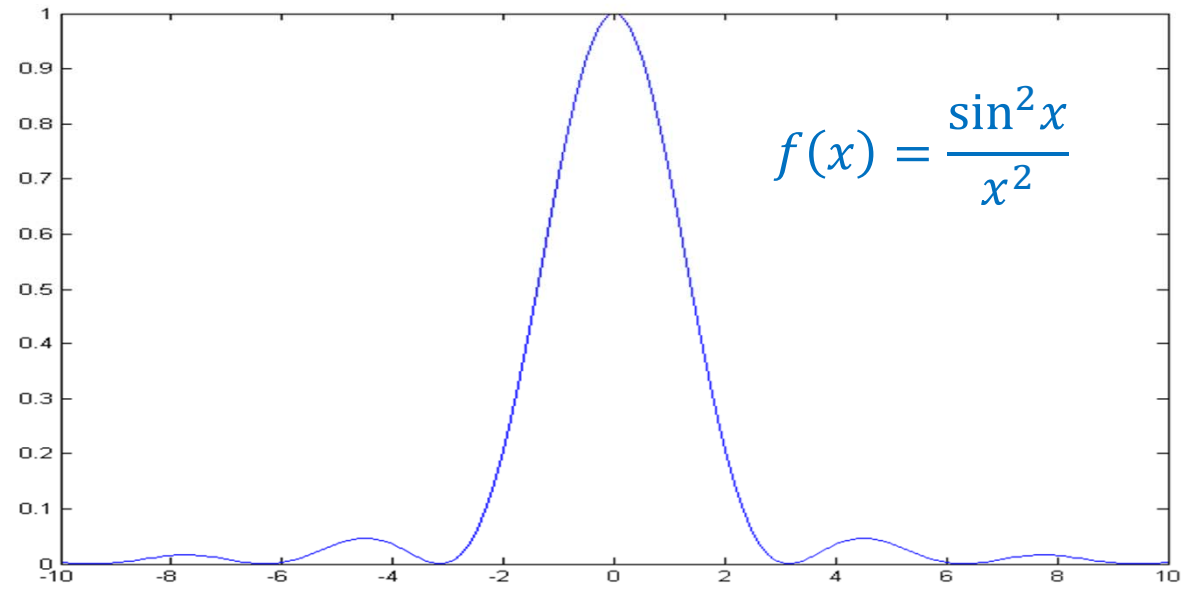
It can be sampled by *rejection sampling*

sample a point (X, Y) uniform in a bounding box around A
 reject (X, Y) if not in A
 until $(X, Y) \in A$
 return (X, Y)

Note: the distribution *here* is not the same as *there*

What does this algorithm compute ?

1. sample X uniformly in $[-10,10]$;
2. compute $q = f(X)$
3. with probability q
 return (X)
 with probability $1 - q$
 goto 1



- A. A sample of the random variable with pdf = $Kf(x)$ for some constant K
- B. A sample of the random variable with pdf = $K|x|f(x)$ for some constant K
- C. A sample of the random variable with pdf = $K|1 - x|f(x)$ for some constant K
- D. Nothing, it never terminates
- E. None of the above
- F. I don't know

Rejection Sampling for General Distributions

THEOREM 6.3 (Rejection Sampling for Distribution with Density). *Consider two random variables X, Y with values in the same space, that both have densities. Assume that:*

- *we know a method to draw a sample of X*
- *the density of Y is known up to a normalization constant K : $f_Y(y) = K f_Y^n(y)$, where f_Y^n is a known function*
- *there exist some $c > 0$ such that*

$$\frac{f_Y^n(x)}{f_X(x)} \leq c$$

A sample of Y is obtained by the following algorithm:

do

draw independent samples of X and U , where $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, c)$

until $U \leq \frac{f_Y^n(X)}{f_X(X)}$

return(X)

The expected number of iterations of the algorithm is $\frac{c}{K}$.

Example: use rejection sampling to draw a sample of Y with pdf $f_Y(y) = K \left(\frac{\sin(y)}{y}\right)^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{-a \leq y \leq a\}}$

some $c > 0$ such that

$$\frac{f_Y^n(x)}{f_X(x)} \leq c$$

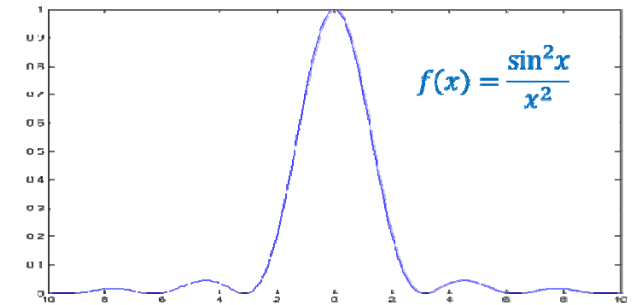
obtained by the following algorithm:

```

do
    draw independent samples of  $X$  and  $U$ , where  $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, c)$ 
until  $U \leq \frac{f_Y^n(X)}{f_X(X)}$ 
return( $X$ )
    
```

$$X \sim \text{Unif}(-a, a), f_X(x) = \frac{1}{2a} \text{ for } -a \leq x \leq a$$

$$f_Y^n(y) = \left(\frac{\sin(y)}{y}\right)^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{-a \leq y \leq a\}} \frac{f^n(x)}{f_X(x)} = \frac{f^n(x)}{\frac{1}{2a}} \leq 2a \text{ we take } c = 2a$$



The rejection sampling algorithm is:

1. Sample $X \sim \text{Unif}(-a, a)$ and $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 2a)$
2. If $U \leq \frac{f_X^n(X)}{1/2a}$ return(X) else goto 1

Example: use rejection sampling to draw a sample of Y with pdf $f_Y(y) = K \left(\frac{\sin(y)}{y} \right)^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{-a \leq y \leq a\}}$

The rejection sampling algorithm is:

1. Sample $X \sim \text{Unif}(-a, a)$ and $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 2a)$
2. If $U \leq \frac{f_X^n(X)}{1/2a}$ return(X) else goto 1

Replace U by $V = \frac{U}{2a}$, we obtain the equivalent algorithm:

1. Sample $X \sim \text{Unif}(-a, a)$ and $V \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$
2. If $V \leq f_X^n(X)$ return(X) else goto 1

some $c > 0$ such that

$$\frac{f_Y^n(x)}{f_X(x)} \leq c$$

is obtained by the following algorithm:

```

do
    draw independent samples of  $X$  and  $U$ , where  $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, c)$ 
until  $U \leq \frac{f_Y^n(X)}{f_X(X)}$ 
return( $X$ )

```

The rejection sampling algorithm is:

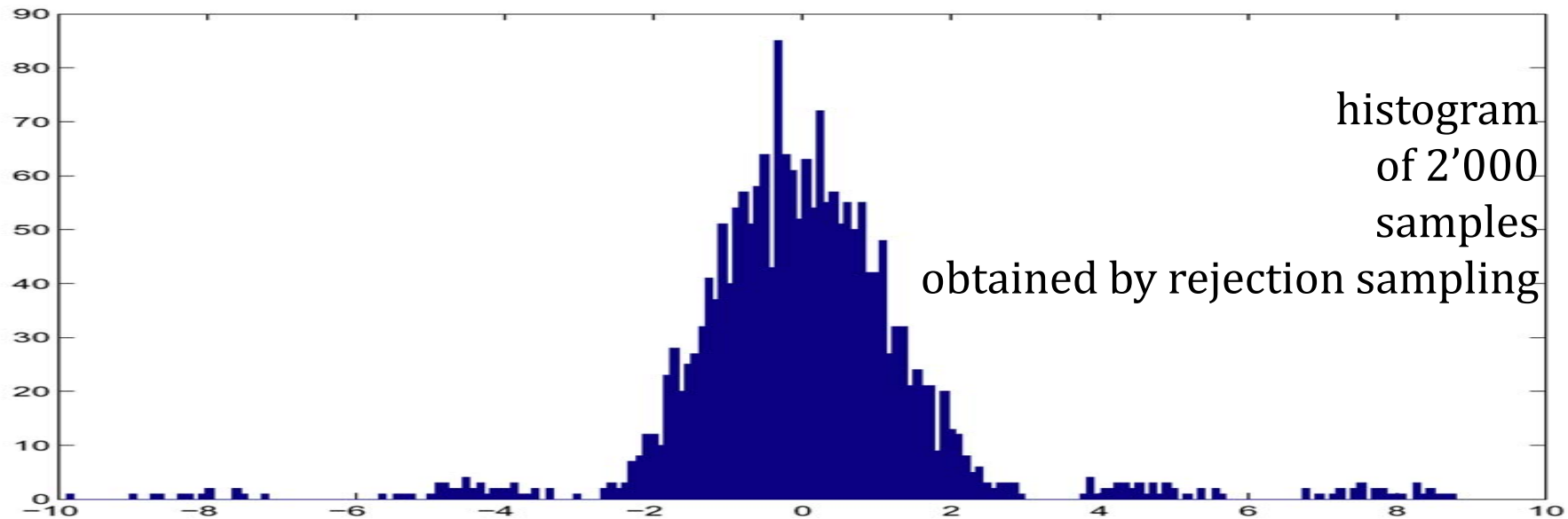
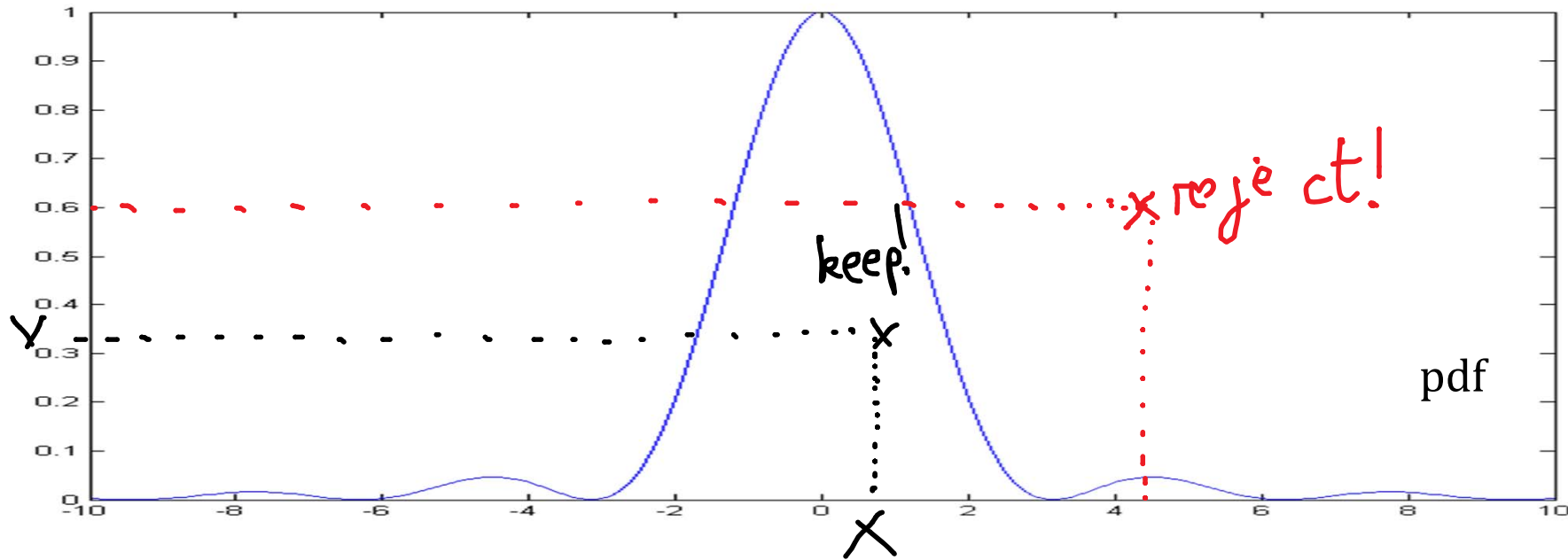
1. Sample $X \sim \text{Unif}(-a, a)$ and $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 2a)$
2. If $U \leq \frac{f_X^n(X)}{1/2a}$ return(X) else goto 1

Replace U by $V = \frac{U}{2a}$, we obtain the equivalent algorithm:

1. Sample $X \sim \text{Unif}(-a, a)$ and $V \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$
2. If $V \leq f_X^n(X)$ return(X) else goto 1

Interpretation

1. Sample $X \sim \text{Unif}(-a, a)$ and $V \sim \text{Unif}(0,1)$
2. If $V \leq f_X^n(X)$ return (X) else goto 1



(a)

ARBITRARY DISTRIBUTION WITH DENSITY Assume that we want a sample of Y , which takes values in the bounded interval $[a, b]$ and has a density $f_Y = K f_Y^n(y)$. Assume that $f_Y^n(y)$ (non normalized density) can easily be computed, but not the normalization constant K which is unknown. Also assume that we know an upper bound M on f_Y^n .

We take X uniformly distributed over $[a, b]$ and obtain the sampling method:

```
do
    draw  $X \sim \text{Unif}(a, b)$  and  $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, M)$ 

until  $U \leq f_Y^n(X)$ 
return( $X$ )
```

Note that we do *not* need to know the multiplicative constant K . For example, consider the distribution with density

$$f_Y(y) = K \frac{\sin^2(y)}{y^2} \mathbf{1}_{\{-a \leq y \leq a\}} \quad (6.13)$$

K is hard to compute, but a bound M on f_Y^n is easy to find ($M = 1$) (Figure 6.10).

We sampled 5'000 points from the distribution in $[0 ; 1]^2$ with pdf A, B or C . Who's what ?

A. ABC

B. ACB

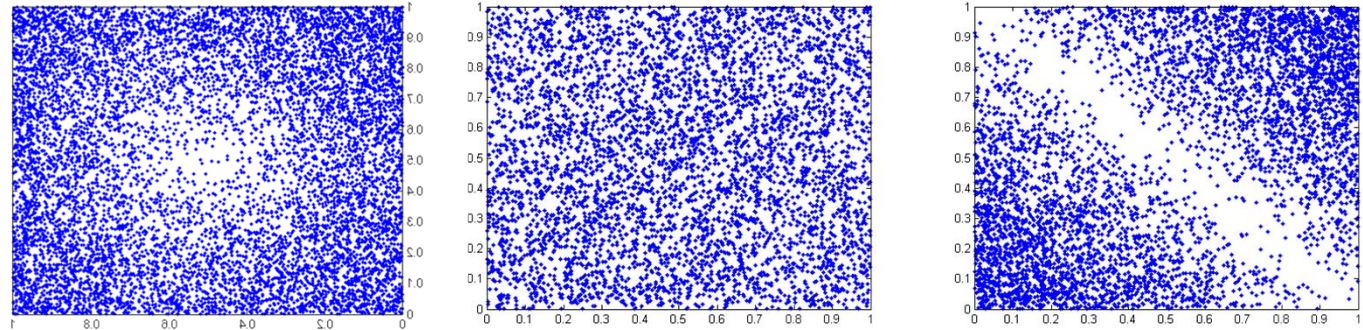
C. BAC

D. CAB

E. BCA

F. CBA

G. I don't know



$$A(x, y) = K_1 \times |x + y - 1|$$

$$B(x, y) = K_2$$

$$C(x, y) = K_3 \times \sqrt{(x - 0.5)^2 + (y - 0.5)^2}$$

Which algorithm is a correct sampling of the distribution in $[0; 1]^2$ with pdf proportional to C ?

A. A

B. B

C. Both

D. None

E. I don't know

$$C(x, y) = \sqrt{(x - 0.5)^2 + (y - 0.5)^2}$$

A

1. Sample X and Y uniformly in $[0,1]$ and $U \sim \text{Unif}(1, 1/\sqrt{2})$;
2. If $U \leq C(X, Y)$ return (X, Y) else goto 1

B

1. Sample X and Y uniformly in $[0,1]$ and $U \sim \text{Unif}(0,1)$;
2. If $U \leq C(X, Y)$ return (X, Y) else goto 1

EXAMPLE 6.14: A STOCHASTIC GEOMETRY EXAMPLE. We want to sample the random vector (X_1, X_2) that takes values in the rectangle $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ and whose distribution has a density proportional to $|X_1 - X_2|$. We take $f_X =$ the uniform density over $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ and $f_Y^n(x_1, x_2) = |x_1 - x_2|$. An upper bound on the ratio $\frac{f_Y^n(x_1, x_2)}{f_X(x_1, x_2)}$ is 1. The sampling algorithm is thus:

```
do
    draw  $X_1, X_2$  and  $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ 
until  $U \leq |X_1 - X_2|$ 
return  $(X_1, X_2)$ 
```

Figure 6.10 shows an example. Note that there is no need to know the normalizing constant to apply the sampling algorithm.

Another Sample from a Weird Distribution

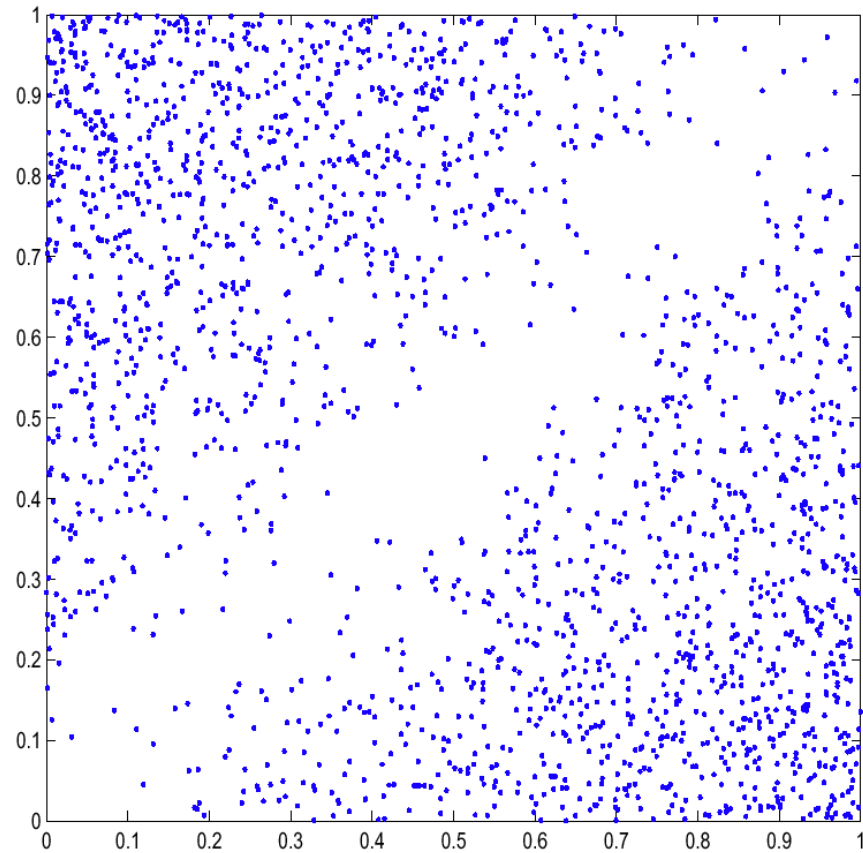


Figure 3.8: (a) Empirical histogram (bin size = 10) of 2000 samples of the distribution with density $f_X(x)$ proportional to $\frac{\sin^2(x)}{x^2} 1_{\{-a \leq y \leq a\}}$ with $a = 10$. (b) 2000 independent samples of the distribution on the rectangle with density $f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2)$ proportional to $|x_1 - x_2|$.

6.3 Ad-Hoc Methods

Optimized methods exist for some common distributions

Optimization = reduce computing time

If implemented in your tool, use them !

Example: simulating a normal distribution

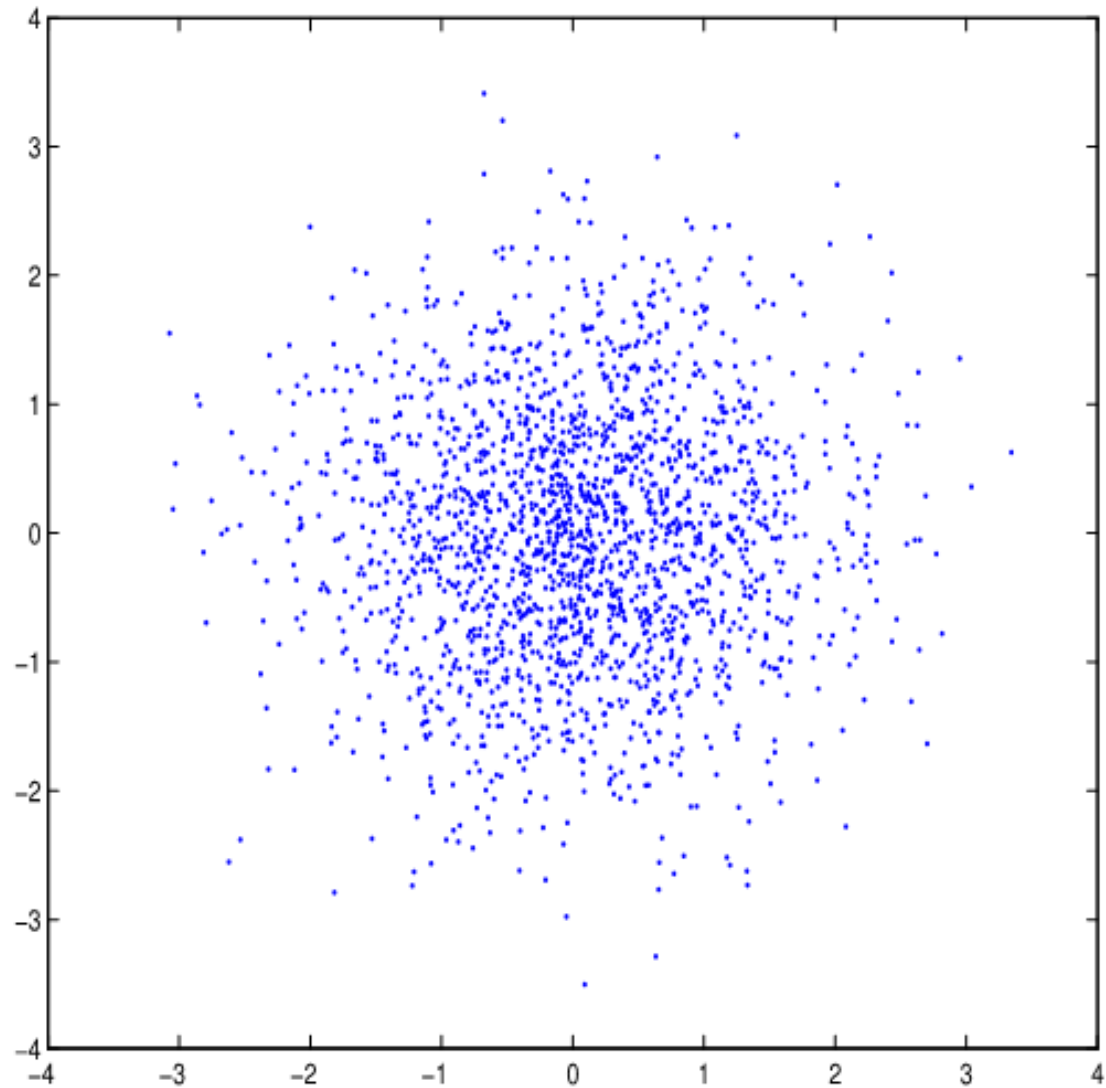
Inversion method is not simple (no closed form for F^{-1})

Rejection method is possible

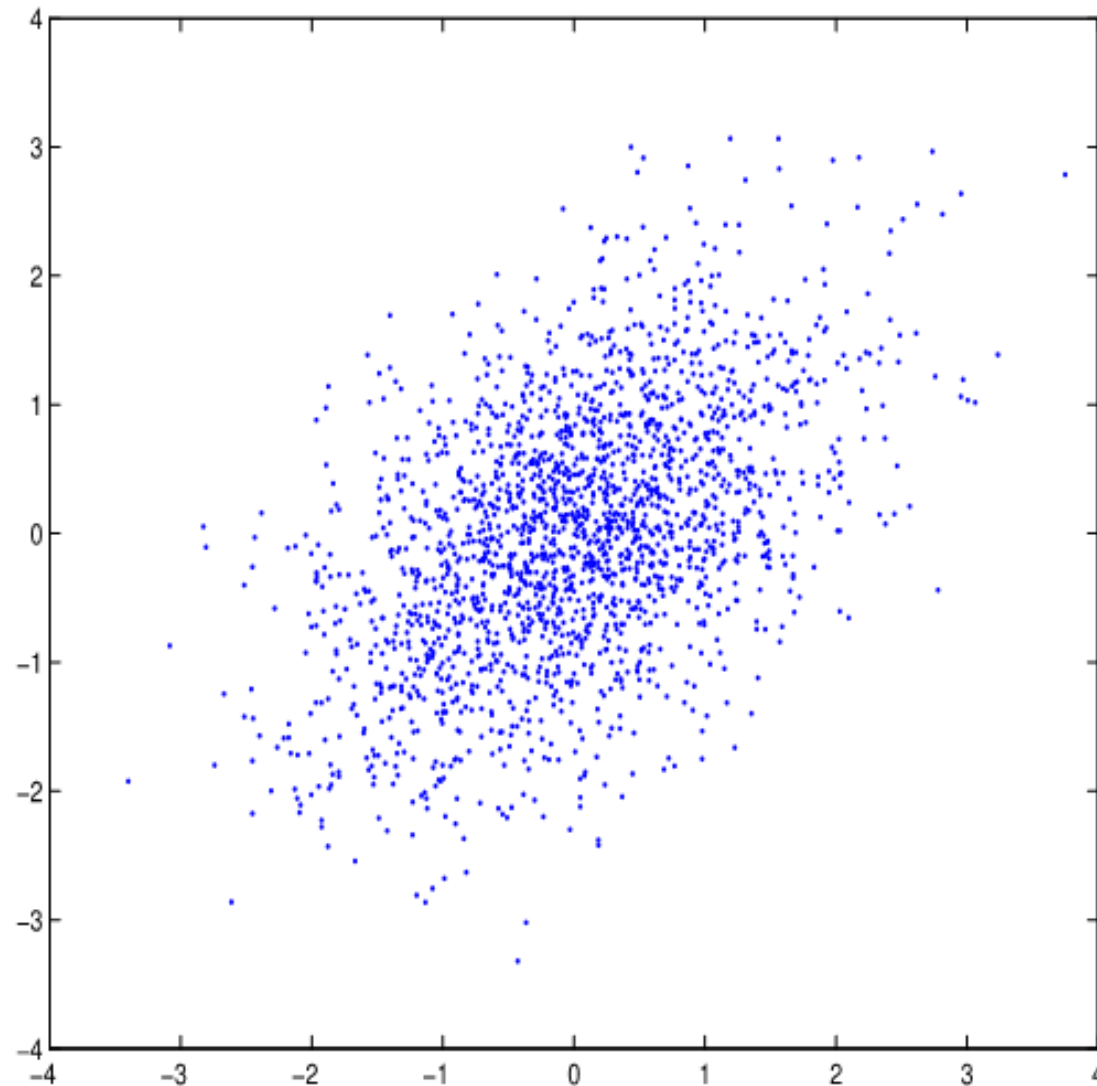
But a more efficient method exists, for drawing jointly **2** independent normal RVs

There are also ad-hoc methods for n-dimensional normal distributions (gaussian vectors)

1'000 samples of the random Gaussian vector (X, Y) with zero mean
and covariance matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
 $X \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}), Y \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$ and X, Y are independent

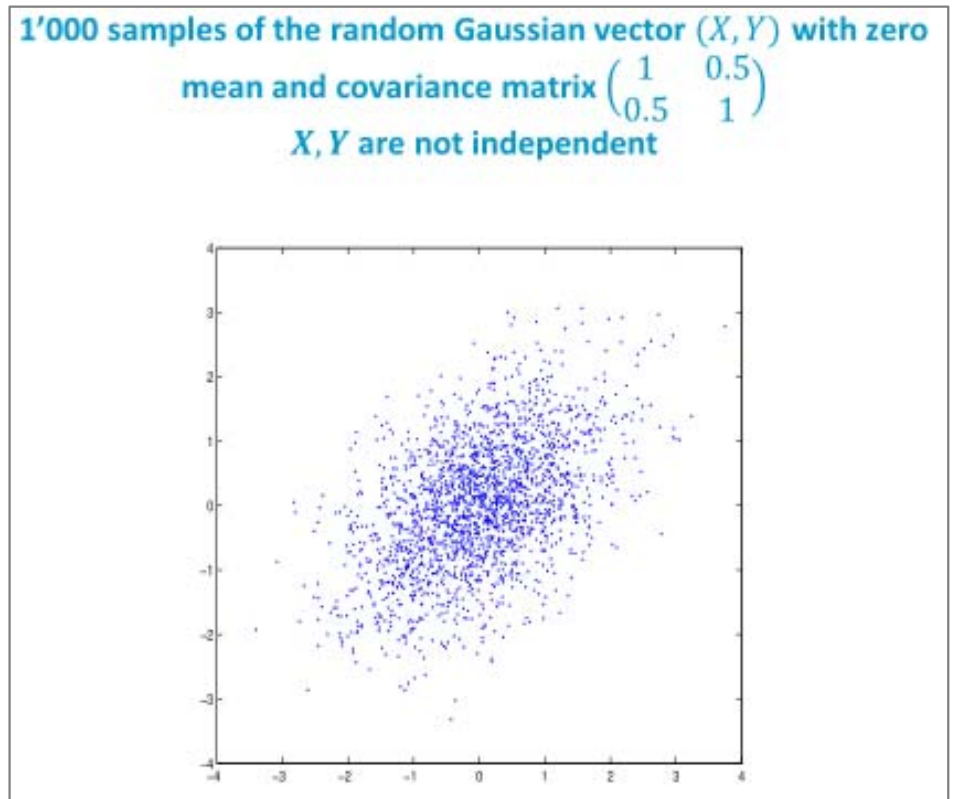


1'000 samples of the random Gaussian vector (X, Y) with zero mean
and covariance matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
 X, Y are not independent



What is the distribution of Y ?

- A. Normal with $\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 1$
- B. Normal with $\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 0.5$
- C. Normal but with other parameters
- D. Non normal
- E. I don't know



4 Monte Carlo Simulation

A simple method to compute integrals and probabilities

Idea:

interpret the integral or probability β as $\beta = E(\varphi(X))$

simulate as many independent samples of X as you want
estimate the expectation by the mean

1. generate R replicates $X^r, r = 1 \dots R$

2. the Monte-Carlo estimate of β is

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^R \varphi(X_r)$$

3. compute a confidence interval for the mean (since β is the mean of the distribution of $\varphi(X)$)

Example: Compute $\beta =$

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2} dx_1 dx_2 dy_1 dy_2$$

i.e. the average distance between two points uniformly distributed in the unit square $[0; 1]^2$. Say which one is a correct implementation of the Monte-Carlo method:

- A**
1. Draw R points M^r, N^r random uniform in $[0,1]^2$
 2. $\hat{\beta} = \text{mean}(d(M^r, N^r), r = 1:R)$
 3. $\hat{\sigma} = \text{std}(d(M^r, N^r), r = 1:R)$
 4. $CI = \hat{\beta} \pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}$

$$b = 0, s = 0$$

B

do R times

sample (X_1, Y_1, X_2, Y_2) iid \sim Unif $(0,1)$

$$b = b + \sqrt{(X_1 - X_2)^2 + (Y_1 - Y_2)^2}$$

$$s = s + (X_1 - X_2)^2 + (Y_1 - Y_2)^2$$

end

$$\hat{\beta} = b/R$$

$$\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{s}{R} - \hat{\beta}^2}$$

$$CI = \hat{\beta} \pm 1.96 \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{R}}$$

- A. A
- B. B
- C. Both
- D. None
- E. I don't know

Example

Compute $\beta =$

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2} dx_1 dx_2 dy_1 dy_2$$

i.e. the average distance between two points uniformly distributed in the unit square $[0 ; 1]^2$.

We obtain the following Monte Carlo estimates

R	$\hat{\beta}$	95% confidence interval	
1'000	0.5254	0.5102	0.5405
10'000	0.5227	0.5178	0.5276
100'000	0.5206	0.5190	0.5221
1'000'000	0.5216	0.5211	0.5221

(The answer is known and is equal to 0.5214 [Ghosh B. 1943, On the distribution of random distances in a rectangle])

Is it a good idea to use a confidence interval for the mean ?

- A. Yes when R is large
- B. Yes but it would be safer to use a CI for median
- C. No because we don't know if the output is normally distributed
- D. I don't know

4 Monte Carlo Simulation

■ A simple method to compute integrals and probabilities

■ Idea:

- ▶ interpret the integral or probability β as $\beta = E(\varphi(X))$
- ▶ and assume you can *simulate* as many independent samples of X as you want:

1. generate R replicates X^r

2. the Monte-Carlo estimate of β is

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^R \varphi(X_r)$$

3. compute a confidence interval for the mean (since β is the mean of the distribution of $\varphi(X)$)

FR

Conclusion

Simulating well requires knowing the concepts of

Transience

Confidence intervals

Sampling methods (Rejection sampling, CDF inversion)

Monte Carlo simulation is an efficient way to compute by simulation quantities that can be expressed as integrals