

Hand-in Exercise 1 solution

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Abstract

In this document, the solutions for the three problems are given for the Hand-in Exercise 1 in the course Numerical recipes for astrophysics.

1 Cooling rates in cosmological simulations

In this section we look at question Cooling rates in cosmological simulations, we want to do the 3d interpolation to the cooling_rates over Hydrogen density, temperature and redshift. The 3D linear interpolator is given by the function `linear_interp3d(cube,x,y,z,xitp,yitp,zitp)` in the shared modules. For a given new point `(znew,ynew,xnew)`, we use the bisection method to find the positions where we need to do interpolation for each axis. After finding the nearest values for `znew(z1,z2)`, `ynew(y1,y2)` and `xnew(x1,x2)`, we do the linear interpolation along each axis. For example, the `xnew` locates between `x1` and `x2`, then we fix `z1,y1` to do 1D linear interpolation along `x` axis. Then we fix `z1,y2` and also do 1D interpolation along `x` axis. And we use the two interpolated new points to do 1D linear interpolation along `y` axis. Repeat the steps for `z2`, and we interpolate the final two points along the `z` axis.

The shared modules for the sub-question a and b are given by:

```
1 import h5py
2 import numpy as np
3 import os
4 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
5 from tqdm import tqdm
6
7 def bisection(x,x_new):
8     #find the nearest two points to x_new using bisection
9     #return the indexes of these two points in the array x
10    N=x.size
11    #edge1 is the lower point and edge2 is the upper point
12    edge1=0
13    edge2=N-1
14    while (edge2-edge1)>1:
15        middle=int((edge2+edge1)/2)
16        if x_new>x[middle]:
17            #if x_new>x[middle], update the lower edge
18            edge1=middle
19        else:
20            #if x_new<=x[middle], update the upper edge
21            edge2=middle
22
23    return edge1,edge2
24
25 def linear_interp3d(cube,x,y,z,xitp,yitp,zitp):
26    #cube is the 3d array that to be interpolated. axis=0 is z-axis, axis=1 is y-axis and axis
27    #=2 is x-axis
28    #x,y,z are the grids of the cube;
29    #xitp,yitp,zitp are coordinates of new points
30
31    #number of new points
32    num=xitp.size
33    #p is used to store the interpolated values
34    p=np.zeros(num)
35    for i in range(num):
36        z1=zitp[i]
37        y1=yitp[i]
38        x1=xitp[i]
39        #find the nearest points to the new point
40        z1,z2=bisection(z,z1)
```

```

40     yl,yu=bisection(y,yl)
41     xl,xu=bisection(x,xl)
42     #at zl plane
43     #interpolate along x axis
44     #the below linear interpolation already contains: if xl=x[xl],p1=cube[zl,yl,xl]; if xl
    =x[xu], p1=cube[zl,yl,xu]
45     p1=(x1-x[xl])*(cube[zl,yl,xu]-cube[zl,yl,xl])/(x[xu]-x[xl])+cube[zl,yl,xl]
46     p2=(x1-x[xl])*(cube[zl,yu,xu]-cube[zl,yu,xl])/(x[xu]-x[xl])+cube[zl,yu,xl]
47     #interpolate along y axis
48     p3=(y1-y[yl])*(p2-p1)/(y[yu]-y[yl])+p1
49     #at zu plane
50     #interpolate along x axis
51     p4=(x1-x[xl])*(cube[zu,yl,xu]-cube[zu,yl,xl])/(x[xu]-x[xl])+cube[zu,yl,xl]
52     p5=(x1-x[xl])*(cube[zu,yu,xu]-cube[zu,yu,xl])/(x[xu]-x[xl])+cube[zu,yu,xl]
53     #interpolate along y axis
54     p6=(y1-y[yl])*(p5-p4)/(y[yu]-y[yl])+p4
55
56     #interpolate along z axis
57     p[i]=(z1-z[zl])*(p6-p3)/(z[zu]-z[zl])+p3
58
59     return p
60
61
62 #get the filename we need to read
63 z=[]
64 for f_name in os.listdir('CoolingTables'):
65     if f_name.endswith('.hdf5'):
66         if f_name[2:7]=='colli':
67             continue
68         elif f_name[2:7]=='photo':
69             continue
70         elif f_name[2:7] not in z:
71             z.append(f_name[2:7])
72
73 z.sort()
74
75 #create arrays
76 Z=np.array(z,dtype='float')
77 cool_metalfree=np.zeros((Z.size,352,81))
78 cool_metal=np.zeros_like(cool_metalfree)
79 ne_nh=np.zeros_like(cool_metalfree)
80 ne_nh_sol=np.zeros_like(cool_metalfree)
81
82 #read in data
83 f=h5py.File('CoolingTables/z_{:}.hdf5'.format(z[0]),'r')
84 #Temperature bins
85 T=np.array(f['Total.Metals/Temperature.bins'])
86 #Hydrogen density bins
87 H=np.array(f['Total.Metals/Hydrogen.density.bins'])
88 #ne/nH in the solar system
89 ne_nh_sol[0]=np.array(f['Solar/Electron.density.over.n.h'])
90 #He to H mass fraction=0.258([2,])
91 #Because the electron density contributed from heavy elements is very small, I take the
    electron density from He and H as the ne/nH
92 ne_nh[0]=np.array(f['Metal.free/Electron.density.over.n.h'])[2,])
93 cool_metalfree[0]=np.array(f['Metal.free/Net.Cooling'])[2,])
94 #Because the coefficient for every metal element is the same, I use the net_cooling from
    Total.Metals
95 cool_metal[0]=np.array(f['Total.Metals/Net.cooling'])

```

cooling.py

1.1 a

We use the equation (2) in Hand in Exercise 1 to calculate the cooling rate. The cooling rate for H and He is obtained from the metal_free file. Because the coefficient for the second term on the right hand side of equation (2) is the same for every elements, we can use the cooling rate in the Total_metal file as the sum of cooling rate of all heavy elements. The metallicity for this question is 0.25. So we need to do 3D linear interpolation for cooling rate(H,He), cooling rate(total metal), ne/nH and (ne/nH)solar separately. Though (ne/nH)solar is the same for all redshifts, we still copy them into a 3D cube so that we can use the 3D linear interpolator. Because electron density contributed from heavy elements is very small, we simply use the (ne/nH) in the metal_free file.

The code specific to this question is given by:

```

1 metallicity=0.25
2 for i in range(1,Z.size):
3     f=h5py.File('CoolingTables/z-{:}.hdf5'.format(z[i]),'r')
4     ne_nh[i]=np.array(f['Metal_free/Electron_density_over_n_h'][2,])
5     cool_metalfree[i]=np.array(f['Metal_free/Net_Cooling'][2,])
6     cool_metal[i]=np.array(f['Total_Metals/Net_cooling'])
7     ne_nh_sol[i]=np.array(f['Solar/Electron_density_over_n_h'])
8
9
10 #(a)
11 T_new=np.copy(T)
12 Z_new=np.zeros_like(T)
13 Z_new[:]=3
14 H_new=np.zeros_like(T)
15 H_den=np.array([1,1e-2,1e-4,1e-6])
16
17
18 for i in range(H_den.size):
19     H_new[:]=H_den[i]
20     #interpolate
21     cool_metalfree1=linear_interp3d(cool_metalfree,H,T,Z,H_new,T_new,Z_new)
22     cool_metal1=linear_interp3d(cool_metal,H,T,Z,H_new,T_new,Z_new)
23     ne_nh1=linear_interp3d(ne_nh,H,T,Z,H_new,T_new,Z_new)
24     ne_nh_sol1=linear_interp3d(ne_nh_sol,H,T,Z,H_new,T_new,Z_new)
25     #calculate total cooling rate
26     total_cool=cool_metalfree1+metallicity*cool_metal1*ne_nh1/ne_nh_sol1
27     plt.loglog(T,total_cool,label='nH={:}'.format(H_den[i]))
28
29 plt.legend()
30 plt.xlabel('T(K)')
31 plt.ylabel('total cooling rate/n.H^2 (erg s^-1 cm^3)')
32 plt.title('z=3')
33 plt.savefig('./plots/cooling1a.png')
34 plt.close()

```

cooling.py

Setting metallicity=0.25 and at a redshift of $z = 3$, our script produces the following results for densities of $(1 \text{ cm}^{-3}, 10^{-2} \text{ cm}^{-3}, 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-3}, 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^{-3})$, see Figure 1.

1.2 b

Now, we set the metallicity to be 0.5, density to 0.0001 cm^{-3} and calculate the cooling rate as a function of temperature for the allowed redshift (0-8.989) range. We need to make a movie to show the variations with redshift. We used 100 different redshifts and a framerate of 10 in this movie.

The code specific to this question is give by:

```

1 #(b)interpolate z from 0 to 8.989
2 metallicity=0.5
3 Z_b=np.linspace(0,Z[-1],100)
4 H_new[:]=1e-4
5
6
7
8 for i in tqdm(range(100)):
9     Z_new[:]=Z_b[i]
10    #interpolate
11    cool_metalfree1=linear_interp3d(cool_metalfree,H,T,Z,H_new,T_new,Z_new)
12    cool_metal1=linear_interp3d(cool_metal,H,T,Z,H_new,T_new,Z_new)
13    ne_nh1=linear_interp3d(ne_nh,H,T,Z,H_new,T_new,Z_new)
14    ne_nh_sol1=linear_interp3d(ne_nh_sol,H,T,Z,H_new,T_new,Z_new)
15    #calculate total cooling rate
16    total_cool=cool_metalfree1+metallicity*cool_metal1*ne_nh1/ne_nh_sol1
17    plt.loglog(T,total_cool)
18    plt.xlabel('T(K)')
19    plt.ylabel('total cooling rate/n.H^2 (erg s^-1 cm^3)')
20    plt.title('z={:1.4f}'.format(Z_b[i]))
21    plt.ylim(1e-24,1e-19)
22    plt.savefig('./plots/snap%04d.png'%i)
23    plt.close()

```

cooling.py

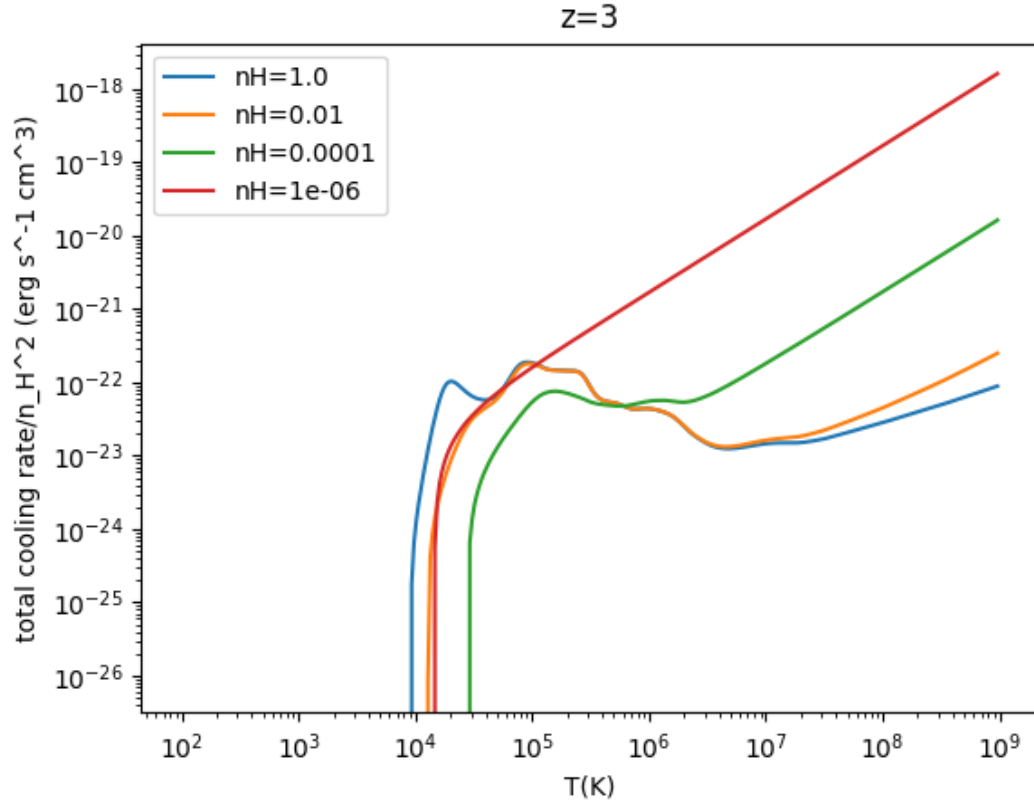


Figure 1: The result of our program shows the total cooling rate as a function of the temperature at $z=3$. It roughly decreases with the Hydrogen density and increases with temperature. The result is similar to Figure 2 in the referenced literature(Wiersma et al.2009).

For the movie see the main directory the file `cooling_ratemovie.mp4`. We can see that the cooling rate increases with redshift.

2 Redshift distribution of galaxies

The shared module is given by:

```
1 #code for question2
2 import numpy as np
```

`solveLU2.py`

2.1 a

We need to write an LU decomposition code to solve the linear equations: $wss \cdot f = wgs$. wss is the matrix needed to do LU decomposition and f is solved by the LU matrix. The size of wss is (16,16) and both sizes of f and wgs are 16.

We used the improved Crout's algorithm on slide14 in lecture2 to calculate the LU matrix. We loop over from k to i to j . At first, we find the $row(\geq k)$ with the largest absolute value as the pivot candidate and swap the row k and $imax$. Record the index of $imax$ because we need it when solve the equations. Then loop over $i > k$ to calculate $\alpha(ik)$. In this loop, loop over $j > k$ and calculate $\alpha(ij)$ and $\beta(ij)$. And we put L and U matrix in one matrix to save memory. Because $\alpha[ii]=1$, we don't need to write them out.

After computing the LU matrix, we can use forward substitution and back substitution to solve f . Because we swapped rows in LU decomposition, we also need to swap wgs in forward substitution.

The code of this subquestion is given by:

```

1 #2(a)
2 def LU_decom(M):
3     #M is the Matrix to be decomposed and should have a size of N*N
4     A=np.copy(M)
5     n1,n2=A.shape
6     if n1!=n2:
7         print('Error: The size of the matrix should be N*N.')
8         return
9     #an array to store the permutation
10    indexmax=np.zeros(n1,dtype=np.int)
11    #Improved Crout's algorithm on slide14 in lecture 2
12    for k in range(n1):
13        # find the row with the largest pivot candidate from row>=k
14        ind=np.argmax(abs(A[k:,k]))+k
15        if ind!=k:
16            #if ind!=k, ind must be large than k. row[ind] has the largest absolute value and
17            swap row ind,k
18            A[[ind,k],:]=A[[k,ind],:]
19            #record the swap: if ind=k, no swap; if ind>k, ind is the swaped row for row k
20            indexmax[k]=ind
21            if A[k,k]==0:
22                print('Error: The matrix is singular.')
23                return
24            for i in range(k+1,n1):
25                #alpha(ik)
26                A[i,k]=A[i,k]/A[k,k]
27                #loop over columns j>k to compute alpha(ij) and beta(ij)
28                A[i,(k+1):]-=A[i,k]*A[k,(k+1):]
29
30    #return A(the LU matrix) and pivot index array
31    return A, indexmax
32
33 def LU_solve(A,pivot,b):
34     #solve x
35     x=np.copy(b)
36     n1=x.size
37     #forward substitution
38     for i in range(n1):
39         #Because we swapped rows in LU decomposition, now also need to swap rows for x
40         mid=x[pivot[i]]
41         x[pivot[i]]=x[i]
42         #alpha(ii)=1, so no need to divide
43         if i==0:
44             x[i]=mid
45         else:
46             x[i]=mid-np.sum(A[i,0:i]*x[0:i])
47
48     #back substitution
49     for i in range(n1-1,-1,-1):
50         #In forward substitution, we swapped row. Don't need to swap in back substitution
51         if i==(n1-1):
52             x[i]=x[i]/A[i,i]
53         else:
54             x[i]=(x[i]-np.sum(A[i,(i+1):]*x[(i+1):]))/A[i,i]
55
56     return x
57
58 #read in data
59 wgs=np.loadtxt('wgs.dat',dtype=np.float32)
60 wss=np.loadtxt("wss.dat",dtype=np.float32)
61 #LU decomposition
62 LU,piv=LU_decom(wss)
63 #solve
64 f=LU_solve(LU,piv,wgs)
65
66
67 np.savetxt('2aLU.txt',LU,fmt='%1.5f')
68 np.savetxt('2af.txt',f)
69 file1=open('2af.txt','a')
70 file1.write('\nThe sum of f is: ')
71 file1.write(str(sum(f)))
72 file1.write('\nThe error is: ')
73 file1.write(str(abs(1-sum(f))))
74 file1.close()

```

solveLU2.py

The LU matrix is given by:

```
1 0.38730 0.35512 0.24105 0.12011 0.09577 0.05575 0.04318 0.04865 0.04628 0.04175 0.01544 0.03499 0.00004 0.03527
2 0.01875 0.01420
3 0.48468 0.64230 0.05264 0.11845 0.05795 -0.01127 0.02097 0.01200 0.02427 0.01136 0.03691 0.01186 0.00893 -0.00717
4 0.02573 0.01420
5 0.34631 0.47914 0.45729 -0.06931 0.14413 0.04300 0.05224 0.00903 0.04434 -0.01293 0.01302 0.01681 0.02572 0.01892
6 -0.00786 0.00789
7 0.29687 0.03688 0.86327 3.00824 0.14909 0.08559 -0.00424 0.00998 -0.02379 0.04312 -0.01242 -0.00905 0.01959 0.02054
8 0.02228 0.00937
9 0.27315 0.03547 -0.02050 0.01041 3.61547 0.21858 0.13999 -0.00797 0.08632 -0.01025 0.06509 0.02821 0.03432 0.03501
10 0.03491 -0.00230
11 0.06264 0.02165 0.28763 0.05982 0.02579 0.92191 0.46947 0.23898 0.07215 0.11446 0.07023 0.01611 0.00997 0.01270
12 0.02929 0.04215
13 0.13199 -0.06135 0.14979 0.04944 0.01549 0.04301 5.43577 0.09383 0.21317 0.14065 0.11458 0.05146 0.05415 0.04697
14 0.04189 0.02309
15 0.13105 -0.06955 -0.05715 0.01569 0.00181 0.20997 0.00004 5.45075 0.35154 0.03294 0.08739 0.09404 0.06962 0.01980
16 0.04656 0.01758
17 0.07501 0.06089 0.12022 0.01315 -0.00763 0.16205 0.01496 0.00252 4.54485 0.30815 0.17478 0.05789 0.01880 0.03235
18 0.01482 0.04238
19 0.03086 0.00936 0.07206 0.00705 0.00526 0.00501 0.02505 0.03606 0.09100 0.85001 0.04817 0.01847 0.07859 0.11493
20 0.04748 0.04253
21 0.01848 0.03526 0.00269 0.01675 0.01850 0.01903 0.00853 0.02217 0.01640 0.51601 10.54105 0.18096 -0.03586 0.07117
22 0.03206 0.00908
23 0.11546 0.00373 0.00989 0.00437 0.01113 0.03540 -0.00266 0.00607 -0.00043 0.02096 0.02787 11.15995 0.39806 0.12652
24 0.09428 0.06148
25 0.01513 0.00448 0.01951 0.01212 0.00302 0.03328 0.00982 0.01611 0.01928 0.14340 0.01979 0.01877 1.63296 0.21451
26 0.18161 0.00147
27 0.05962 0.01924 -0.01971 0.00723 0.00466 0.00218 0.01035 0.00890 0.00775 0.10053 0.01075 0.01673 0.18572 7.57390
28 0.43910 0.19498
29 0.02754 0.01076 0.00710 0.01152 0.00588 0.04470 -0.00359 0.00446 -0.00108 0.06448 0.00682 0.01368 0.08621 0.03908
30 3.69338 0.27488
31 0.02841 0.01361 0.01126 0.01238 0.00315 0.04752 -0.00320 -0.00182 0.00447 0.05138 0.00161 0.00566 0.07079 -0.00065
32 0.04114 3.99064
```

2aLU.txt

The upper triangle represents the U matrix(beta) and the lower triangle represents the L matrix(alpha).

The solution of f is given by:

```
1 3.459609113633632660e-03
2 3.231730684638023376e-02
3 8.087178319692611694e-02
4 1.002292484045028687e-01
5 1.333132982254028320e-01
6 1.232234090566635132e-01
7 1.315599232912063599e-01
8 1.045399680733680725e-01
9 8.667092025279998779e-02
10 5.877323448657989502e-02
11 4.246465489268302917e-02
12 3.845600783824920654e-02
13 1.786364242434501648e-02
14 2.487732656300067902e-02
15 1.350274961441755295e-02
16 7.876945659518241882e-03
17
18 The sum of f is: 1.0000000279396772
19 The error is: 2.7939677238464355e-08
```

2af.txt

We can see that the sum of f is very close to 1. The error is very close to the single precision.

2.2 b

We conducted a single iteration to improve f. Because we already solved the LU matrix, we can use the same LU matrix and pivot permutation from 2(a) to solve this question. The method is described on slide 17 in lecture2. We solve Δf by $LU \cdot \Delta f = LU \cdot f_{\text{wgs}}$ and the improved $f_{\text{new}} = f - \Delta f$.

The code of this subquestion is given by:

```
1 #2(b) single iterative
2 wgs_new=np.dot(wss,f)
3 #use the same LU and piv, no need to do LU decomposition again
4 delt_f=LU_solve(LU,piv,wgs_new-wgs)
5 f_new=f-delt_f
6
7 np.savetxt('2bf.txt',f_new)
8 file2=open('2bf.txt','a')
9 file2.write('\nThe sum of the improved f is: ')
10 file2.write(str(sum(f_new)))
11 file2.write('\nThe error is: ')

```

```

12 file2.write(str(abs(1-sum(f_new))))
13 file2.close()

```

solveLU2.py

The solution of the improved f is given by:

```

1 3.459599567577242851e-03
2 3.231729567050933838e-02
3 8.087176829576492310e-02
4 1.002292558550834656e-01
5 1.333133280277252197e-01
6 1.232233867049217224e-01
7 1.315599083900451660e-01
8 1.045399606227874756e-01
9 8.667092025279998779e-02
10 5.877323821187019348e-02
11 4.246464744210243225e-02
12 3.845601528882980347e-02
13 1.786363869905471802e-02
14 2.487732656300067902e-02
15 1.350274775177240372e-02
16 7.876944728195667267e-03
17
18 The sum of the improved f is: 0.9999999820720404
19 The error is: 1.792795956134796e-08

```

2bf.txt

We can see that the error is very close to that in question a. It seems that f is only slightly improved. I think the reason is that the error almost reached the single precision after the first calculation. So after one iteration, f is improved little under the single precision data type. It shows that this LU decomposition works quite well.

3 Satellite galaxies around a massive central

In this question, we need to write a numerical integrator to solve for A and interpolate the function. In the end, we need to write a function that can return the Poisson probability distribution for a given positive mean λ and integer k.

The shared code is given by:

```

1 #Question3
2
3 import numpy as np
4 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

```

3integral.py

3.1 a

This is a 3D integral, but we can reduce it to a 1D integral. In this case, $dV=4\pi x^2 dx$. The integral becomes $4\pi b^{3-a} \int_0^5 (x^{a-1} \exp(-(x/b)^c) dx$. Because the integral does not contain any singularities from 0 to 5 at a given $a=2.2$, $b=0.5$ and $c=3.1$, we wrote an extended Simpson integrator to solve the integral. Then we can calculate $A = \frac{1}{\text{integral}}$. The algorithm of extended Simpson's rule is given on slide 7 in lecture 3.

The script of this subquestion is given by:

```

1 #(a)
2 #function that need to be integrated
3 def f_intg(x, a=2.2, b=0.5, c=3.1):
4     return np.power(x, a-1)*np.exp(-np.power(x/b, c))
5
6 def simpson(f, a, b, N):
7     #simpson integration
8     #f: integrand; a: lower limit; b: upper limit; N: number of intervals
9     h=(b-a)/N
10    #N+1 points
11    x=np.linspace(a, b, N+1)
12    y=f(x)
13
14    #if N is even

```

```

15     if N%2 ==0:
16         slice1=np.arange(0,N-1,2)
17         slice2=np.arange(1,N,2)
18         slice3=np.arange(2,N+1,2)
19         result=(h/3)*(np.sum(y[slice1])+np.sum(y[slice3])+4*np.sum(y[slice2]))
20
21     else:
22         #if N is odd, the last interval uses the trapzoid
23         slice1=np.arange(0,N-2,2)
24         slice2=np.arange(1,N-1,2)
25         slice3=np.arange(2,N,2)
26         result=(h/3)*(np.sum(y[slice1])+np.sum(y[slice3])+4*np.sum(y[slice2]))+h*0.5*(y[N-1]+y
27         [N])
28
29     return result
30
31 b=0.5
32 a=2.2
33 #1000 intervals can already gives a very good resutls
34 integ=np.power(b,3-a)*4*np.pi*simpson(f_intg,0,5,1000)
35 A=1/integ
36 fA=open('A.txt','w')
37 fA.write(str(A))
38 fA.close()

```

3integral.py

We set the number of intervals between 0 and 5 to be 1000. A is given by:

```

1 1.5382202236720077

```

A.txt

3.2 b

Because we only have 5 points that span in a large range, I chose to do interpolation in loglog space. I used the linear interpolator because there are only 5 points and they show piecewise patterns: changes relatively slowly when $x < 1$ while changes dramatically when $x > 1$.

The code is given by:

```

1 #(b)
2 def linear_interp(x1,y1,x_new1,log):
3     #boolean:log. If log=True, then do interpolation in log space
4     #x1 and y1 are known points, x_new1 are x coordinates of new points
5     if log==True:
6         x=np.log(x1)
7         y=np.log(y1)
8         x_new=np.log(x_new1)
9     else:
10        #otherwise do interpolation in linear space
11        x=np.copy(x1)
12        y=np.copy(y1)
13        x_new=np.copy(x_new1)
14
15    num=x_new.size
16    y_new=np.zeros_like(x_new)
17    N=x.size
18    for i in range(num):
19        #bisection: find the nearest two points
20        edgel=0
21        edge2=N-1
22        while (edge2-edgel)>1:
23            middle=int((edge2+edgel)/2)
24            if x_new[i]>x[middle]:
25                edgel=middle
26            else:
27                edge2=middle
28        #calculate slope and interpolate
29        y_new[i]=(x_new[i]-x[edge1])*(y[edge2]-y[edge1])/(x[edge2]-x[edge1])+y[edge1]
30
31    if log==True:
32        return np.exp(y_new)
33    else:
34        return y_new

```



```

35
36 #function n(x)
37 def f(x, a=2.2, b=0.5, c=3.1):
38     return np.power(x/b, a-3)*np.exp(-np.power(x/b, c))
39
40 Nsat=100
41 x1=np.array([1e-4, 1e-2, 1e-1, 1, 5])
42 y1=A*Nsat*f(x1)
43 #Because f(5) is extremely close to 0 and underflows in the 64bit float type, I truncate f(5)
44   to be 1e-30.
45 #Though it causes an error, I know the error instead of unknown underflow error.
46 y1[-1]=1e-30
47 plt.loglog(x1, y1, 'o')
48 #The five data points change dramatically in linear space. When we plot them in log space,
49 #they show piecewise patterns. Point 1-4 decreases slowly, but the last point is very small
50 #compared to the former 4 points.
51 #Because there are only 5 points and x,y span in a large range, I chose to do interpolation in
52   loglog space.
53 #It is a piecewise function based on just these points, lagrange polynomial like Neville's
54   algorithm can
55 #produce large wrinkles between these points. Cubic spline can interpolate piecewise functions
56   when
57 #the functions are smooth (1st and 2nd derivatives are continuous.)
58 #Cubic spline takes all points into consideration and
59 #can also cause large wrinkles between points if points change dramatically, which is our case
60   .
61 #So cubic spline is not a good choice. Akima spline should be a good choice in this case
62   because it
63 #can give natural and smooth results based on a small number of points. However, I have little
64   time
65 #to implement it. Instead, I chose to do the linear interpolation in log space, because it can
66   also produce
67 #results that do not deviate far from the known points, which is a convenient way to do
68   interpolation when
69 #there are only a few points and changes dramatically at some range.
70
71 #produce points for interpolation
72 x=np.linspace(0.0001, 0.01, 10)
73 x=np.append(x, np.linspace(0.02, 0.1, 10))
74 x=np.append(x, np.linspace(0.2, 1.3, 10))
75 x=np.append(x, 5)
76
77 #linear interpolate in loglog space
78 yitp=linear_interp(x1, y1, x, log=True)
79
80 plt.loglog(x, yitp, '-', label='linear interp')
81 plt.xlabel('x')
82 plt.ylabel('n(x)')
83 plt.legend()
84 plt.savefig('./plots/3binterp.png')
85 plt.close()

```

3integral.py

Figure 2 shows the five points and the results of linear interpolation.

3.3 c

The Poisson probability distribution $P_{\lambda}(k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$ is easy to underflow because its denominator $k!$ can be very large and overflows even in float64 type. The numerator λ^k can also be very large and $\exp(-\lambda)$ can be very small. Because we calculate the three parts separately in the computer, any part overflows or underflows will cause a huge relative error to P , though P itself is not easy to underflow. So I chose to calculate P at log space and return it back to linear space.

The code is given by:

```

1 #c
2 def poisson(lm, k):
3     #lm: lambda(mean), k
4     if k==0:
5         #because of factorial, we need to calculate differently when k=0
6         return np.exp(-lm)
7     else:
8         #to prevent overflow, calculate at log space
9         arr=np.arange(1, k+1)
10        p=k*np.log(lm)-lm-np.sum(np.log(arr))

```

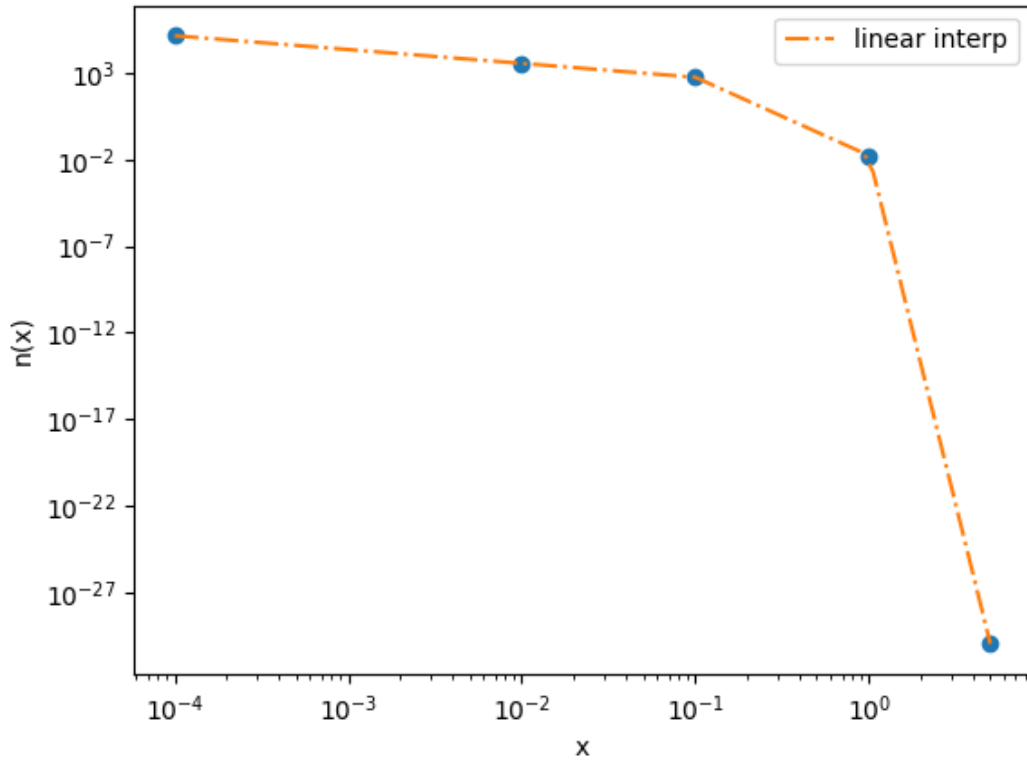


Figure 2: The loglog plot of interpolation. I chose to do linear interpolation at loglog space and truncate at $x=5$. Although the curve of linear interpolation is not smooth, it does not deviate far from the five points and does not cause large wrinkles between points. It also follows the overall trend of these points.

```

11         #return p to linear
12         return np.exp(p)
13
14 #write out results to 3c.txt
15 file=open('3c.txt','w')
16 file.write('\nP(1,0)='+str(poisson(1,0)))
17 file.write('\nP(5,10)='+str(poisson(5,10)))
18 file.write('\nP(3,21)='+str(poisson(3,21)))
19 file.write('\nP(2.6,40)='+str(poisson(2.6,40)))
20 file.write('\nP(101,200)='+str(poisson(101,200)))
21 file.close()

```

3integral.py

The results of given (λ, k) are given by:

```

1 P(1,0)=0.36787944117144233
2 P(5,10)=0.018132788707821885
3 P(3,21)=1.01933982411102e-11
4 P(2.6,40)=3.6151239949376635e-33
5 P(101,200)=1.2695313920467071e-18

```

3c.txt

We can see that this log function can return $P_\lambda(k)$ correctly in a large range by using numpy float64 type, which is much better than calculating P straight from its definition.