

# Numerical Recipes: Hand-In 1

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## Abstract

In this report we present the problems, solutions and scripts for the exercises from the first handout for the course Numerical Recipes.

Plotting styles in this report are set using the following code

```
1 def set_styles():
2     """For consistent plotting scheme"""
3     plt.style.use('default')
4     mpl.rcParams['axes.grid'] = True
5     plt.style.use('seaborn-darkgrid')
6     mpl.rcParams['font.family'] = 'serif'
7     mpl.rcParams['lines.linewidth'] = 1.5
8     mpl.rcParams['font.size'] = 14
```

Listing 1: Matplotlib Plotting Styles

# 1 Poisson Distribution

The Poisson probability distribution for any given positive integer  $k$  and positive mean  $\lambda$  is given as

$$P_\lambda(k) = \frac{\lambda^k \exp^{-\lambda}}{k!}. \quad (1)$$

This distribution is normalized such that  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_\lambda(k) = 1$ . This distribution is implemented in an existing Python package as `scipy.stats.poisson.scipy`, but in this report we will implement this distribution using only pure Python, and `numpy.exponent`. For memory reasons we will limit the variables to only use 32 bits. As a test of the implementation, we will compute  $P_\lambda(k)$  for the values presented in Table 1.

$\lambda$	$k$
1	0
5	10
3	21
2.6	40
101	200

Table 1:  $\lambda$  and  $k$  values at which  $P_\lambda(k)$  is evaluated in this report.

Before we start programming, we can already see a potential memory issue in the parameters at which we want to evaluate the probability distribution. For  $k = 200$  we have to compute  $200! = 7.9 \times 10^{374}$  which is a lot larger than the maximum size of a 32-bit signed integer,  $2^{31} = 2.1 \times 10^9$ . This issue starts even earlier, the factorial function overtakes this maximum size already at  $k \sim 12$ . To combat this potential overflow error we will instead compute  $\ln P_\lambda(k)$ . To denote this in a smart way, we have to rewrite the factorial by realizing that  $k! = \prod_{i=1}^k i$ . Therefore  $\ln k! = \ln \prod_{i=1}^k i = \sum_{i=1}^k \ln(i)$ . We apply this trick only if  $k > 5$  as a generous underlimit for when overflow starts becoming an issue.

$$\ln P_\lambda(k) = \ln \left( \frac{\lambda^k \exp^{-\lambda}}{k!} \right) = k \cdot \ln(\lambda) - \lambda - \sum_{i=1}^k \ln(i) \quad (2)$$

Combining all of the above we can code this as such:

```
1 import numpy as np
2 import scipy.stats
3
4 def factorial(k, dtype=np.int64):
5     """Computes the factorial k! for any integer k"""
6     if k == 0:
7         return dtype(1)
8     else:
9         prod = dtype(1)
10        for i in range(1, k+1):
11            prod *= dtype(i)
12        return prod
13
14 def log_factorial(k, dtype=np.int64):
15     """Computes the factorial k! for any integer k in log-space"""
16     if k == 0:
```

```

17         return dtype(1)
18     else:
19         logsum = dtype(0)
20         for i in range(1, k+1):
21             logsum += np.log(i, dtype=dtype)
22         return logsum
23
24
25 def poisson(lmda, k, dtype_int, dtype_float):
26     """Returns the Poisson function with mean lamda, evaluated at
27     the integer point k.
28
29     
$$P_{\text{lmda}}(k) = \text{lmda}^k * \exp(-\text{lmda}) / k!$$

30
31     If k is too large we compute the function evaluated at k in log
32     -space first, and then return the exponent of the
33     result to dodge overflow errors, which occur at  $k \sim 12$ . The
34     converted function to log space looks like:
35
36     
$$\ln(P_{\text{lmda}}(k)) = k * \ln(\text{lmda}) - \text{lmda} - \sum_{i=1}^k \ln(i)$$

37
38     All function calls are wrapped in dtypes to limit the amount of
39     memory usage
40     """
41     if k > 5:
42         res = dtype_float(
43             dtype_int(k) * np.log(lmda, dtype=dtype_float) -
44             dtype_float(lmda) - log_factorial(k, dtype=dtype_float))
45         res = np.exp(res, dtype=dtype_float)
46     else:
47         res = dtype_float(((lmda ** k) * np.exp(-lmda, dtype=
48             dtype_float)) / factorial(k, dtype=dtype_int))
49     return res
50
51
52 def compute_poisson_values(dtype_int=np.int32, dtype_float=np.
53     float32):
54     """Compute the Poisson values for the points provided in Q1 of
55     hand-in assignment 1.
56     For testing purposes we compare our values to those from an
57     official library
58     """
59
60     values = [[1, 0], [5, 10], [3, 21], [2.6, 40], [101, 200]]
61     poisson_prob_ar_self = np.zeros(len(values))
62     poisson_prob_ar_scipy = np.zeros(len(values))
63     for i, vals in enumerate(values):
64         lmda = dtype_float(vals[0])
65         k = dtype_int(vals[1])
66
67         poisson_prob_ar_self[i] = poisson(lmda, k, dtype_int,
68             dtype_float)
69         poisson_prob_ar_scipy[i] = scipy.stats.poisson.pmf(k, lmda)
70
71     # Print table in Latex ready format
72     table = """$\lambda$ & k & Self & Scipy \\\n\hline\n"""
73
74     for i in range(poisson_prob_ar_self.shape[0]):
75         table += f'{{values[i][0]} & {{values[i][1]} & {{
76             poisson_prob_ar_self[i]:.6E} & {{poisson_prob_ar_scipy[i]:.6E}
77             \\\n'
78     table = table[:-4] # Remove the last two \\ for a nicer Latex

```

```

67     file
68
69     with open('results/poisson_tab.txt', 'w') as file:
70         file.write(table)
71
72
73 def main():
74     compute_poisson_values()
75
76
77 if __name__ == '__main__':
78     main()

```

Listing 2: All code for Poisson Distribution calculations

As visible in the code we compute both the Poisson distribution evaluated by our code, and by the Scipy implementation and compare them in a table. We present these results in Table 2. We can see that for low values of  $\lambda$ ,  $k$  the results match up exactly up to six digits. When moving towards higher values we can see that the "true" Scipy values and our estimates are the same up to the fourth decimal digit. In both cases we only consider the number, not the exponent.

$\lambda$	k	Self	Scipy
1	0	3.678795E-01	3.678794E-01
5	10	1.813280E-02	1.813279E-02
3	21	1.019340E-11	1.019340E-11
2.6	40	3.615103E-33	3.615119E-33
101	200	1.269728E-18	1.269531E-18

Table 2: Results of the Poisson distribution code presented in this work, and the implementation from `scipy.stats.poisson.pmf`.

## 2 Vandermonde Matrix

We start by presenting the background code and miscellaneous functions for matrices and linear algebra.

```
1 class Matrix():
2     """Matrix Class for linear algebra"""
3
4     def __init__(self, values=None, num_rows=None, num_columns=None
5         , dtype=np.float64):
6         """Check inputs and create a corresponding matrix or vector
7         """
8         if values is not None:
9             self.num_rows = values.shape[0]
10            try:
11                self.num_columns = values.shape[1]
12            except IndexError:
13                self.num_columns = 1
14                #print(f'Warning! Values has dim=1. Making vector
15                with shape ({self.num_rows}, {self.num_columns})')
16            if type(values) == np.ndarray:
17                self.matrix = np.array(values, dtype=dtype)
18            else:
19                print(f'Datatype of values {type(values)} not
20                recognized. Initializing matrix with zeros.')
21                self.matrix = np.zeros((num_rows, num_columns),
22                    dtype=dtype)
23            else:
24                self.num_rows = num_rows
25                self.num_columns = num_columns
26                self.matrix = np.zeros((num_rows, num_columns))
27
28            # Use row order to track rows that have been shuffled
29            self.row_order = np.arange(self.num_rows)
30
31        def swap_rows(self, idx1, idx2):
32            """Extract rows from a matrix, and switch them. Track the
33            change in row_order"""
34            self.matrix[[idx1, idx2]] = self.matrix[[idx2, idx1]]
35            self.row_order[[idx1, idx2]] = self.row_order[[idx2, idx1]]
36
37        def scale_row(self, idx, scalar):
38            """Multiply all elements of row {idx} by a factor {scalar}
39            """
40            self.matrix[idx] *= scalar
41
42        def add_rows(self, idx1, idx2, scalar):
43            """Add row {idx2} multiplied by scalar to row {idx1}"""
44            self.matrix[idx1] += scalar * self.matrix[idx2]
```

Listing 3: Code for the Matrix class used throughout this work

```
1 def check_solution(A, x, b, epsilon=1e-10):
2     """Checks a proposed solution to a system of linear equations
3     by computing  $Ax - b$  and checking
4     if all elements are below some threshold"""
5     return (np.abs(mat_vec_mul(A, x) - b) < epsilon).all()
6
7 def mat_vec_mul(mat, vec):
8     """Computes the product between a matrix of shape MxN and a
9     vector of shape Nx1.
10
11     Inputs:
```

```

9         mat: ndarray of shape MxN
10        vec: ndarray of shape Nx1
11
12    Outputs
13        res: The result of mat x vec, ndarray of shape Mx1
14
15    """
16
17    res = np.zeros_like(vec)
18    for i in range(mat.shape[0]):
19        for j in range(mat.shape[1]):
20            res[i] += mat[i, j] * vec[j]
21
22    return res
23
24
25 def mat_mat_mul(A, B):
26     """Computes the product between a matrix of shape MxN and
27     another matrix of shape NxL.
28
29     Inputs:
30         A: ndarray of shape MxN
31         B: ndarray of shape NxL
32
33     Outputs
34         res: The result of A x B, ndarray of shape MxL
35             If both M and L are one, the result is a single float
36
37     """
38     try:
39         equality = (A.shape[0] == B.shape[1])
40         if not equality:
41             raise ValueError(f"Shape of A ({A.shape}) does not
42 match shape of B ({B.shape}) for matrix multiplication.")
43     except IndexError:
44         pass
45
46     res = np.zeros((A.shape[1], B.shape[0]))
47     for i in range(res.shape[0]):
48         for j in range(res.shape[1]):
49             for k in range(A.shape[0]):
50                 res[i, j] += A[i, k] * B[k, j]
51
52     return res

```

Listing 4: Matrix and vector multiplication functions, and a function to check if a solution  $x$  to the system of equations  $Ax = b$  is correct.

```

1 def import_data():
2     """Import the Vandermonde data and place it in a Vandermonde
3     matrix"""
4     data = np.genfromtxt(os.path.join(sys.path[0], "Vandermonde.txt"),
5     comments='#', dtype=np.float64)
6     x = data[:, 0]
7     y = data[:, 1]
8     x_interp = np.linspace(x[0], x[-1], 1001) # x values to
9     interpolate at
10
11     V = np.zeros((len(x), len(x)))
12     # Fill out the Vandermonde Matrix as V_ij = x_i^j
13     for j in range(len(x)):

```

```

11         V[:, j] = x**j
12
13     return V, x, y, x_interp
14
15
16 def compute_polynomial(x, coeff):
17     """Computes a polynomial evaluated at all x, with coefficients
18     coeff"""
19     y = np.zeros_like(x)
20     for i in range(len(coeff)):
21         y += coeff[i] * x**i
22     return y
23     """Code for Assignment 2 from Handout 1"""
24     V, x, y, x_interp = import_data()
25
26     # a. LU Decomposition
27     LU_y, LU_y_at_x = LU_decomposition(V, x, y, x_interp)
28
29     # b. Neville's Algorithm
30     neville_y, neville_y_at_x = neville_fit(x, y, x_interp)
31
32     # c. Iterative LU improvement
33     LU_y_iterative, LU_y_at_x_iterative = LU_decomposition(V, x, y,
34     x_interp, num_LU_iterations)
35
36     # Plot Data
37     set_styles()
38     fig, (ax0, ax1) = plt.subplots(2, 1, sharex=True, figsize=(10, 8))
39
40     ax0.plot(x, y, marker='o', linewidth=0)
41     ax0.plot(x_interp, LU_y, c='C1', label='LU Decomposition')
42     ax0.plot(x_interp, neville_y, c='C2', ls='dashed', label='Neville's Algorithm')
43     ax0.plot(x_interp, LU_y_iterative, c='C3', ls='dotted', label=f'
44     {num_LU_iterations} Times Iterated LU')
45     ax0.legend()
46
47     ax1.plot(x, np.abs(y - LU_y_at_x), c='C1', marker='o', lw=0)
48     ax1.plot(x, np.abs(y - neville_y_at_x), c='C2', marker='o', lw=0)
49     ax1.plot(x, np.abs(y - LU_y_at_x_iterative), c='C3', marker='o', lw=0)
50     ax1.axhline(y=0, c='black', ls='—', alpha=0.6)
51     ax1.set_yscale('log')
52
53     plt.xlim(-1, 101)
54     ax0.set_ylim(-400, 400)
55     ax1.set_xlabel('$x$')
56     ax0.set_ylabel('$y$')
57     ax1.set_ylabel(r'$Absolute \Delta y$')
58
59     plt.suptitle("Lagrange Polynomial Estimations")
60     plt.savefig('results/vandermonde_fitresults.png', bbox_inches='tight')
61     #plt.show()

```

Listing 5: Code to import the data and apply the algorithms described throughout this section

In this section we will work with a Vandermonde matrix  $V$ , which is defined as an  $N \times N$  matrix with elements  $V_{i,j} = x_i^j$  for rows  $i$  and columns  $j$  ranging from 0 to  $N - 1$ . For any set with  $N$   $(x_i, y_i)$  points, we can populate the

Vandermonde matrix and solve the set of linear equations  $Vc = y$  to find the coefficients  $c$  of the unique polynomial passing through all  $(x_i, y_i)$  points. Here, we will apply two different methods to find this polynomial and compare the results.

We will begin by introducing both methods, and providing the code used to implement them in Python. Afterwards we present the results of our implementation, and a discussion of these results.

## 2.1 LU Decomposition

Solving an equation of the form  $Vc = y$  using the LU decomposition method means first decomposing the matrix  $V$  into an  $L$  matrix, which only has non-zero elements in the lower triangle, and a  $U$  matrix, which only has non-zero elements in the upper triangle, such that  $LU = V$ . We perform the decomposition using our implementation of Crout's Algorithm, described by the `lu.decomposition` function given below. We first pivot the matrix column-wise from left to right by swapping rows such that the elements on the diagonal are as large as possible, chosen from the values on or below the diagonal. For determining the maximum value we use the implicit pivoting method, which means we weigh each element by the absolute maximum value of its row. With each row swap of the matrix  $V$ , we also swap the indices in `V.row_order` which later will be used to swap the elements of the constraints  $y$ .

After pivoting the matrix  $V$ , we apply the equations of LU decomposition as presented in the lecture to transform  $V$  into the matrix containing the elements of  $L$ ,  $\alpha_{i,j}$ , below the diagonal and the elements of  $U$ ,  $\beta_{i,j}$ , on and above the diagonal. With this LU matrix we then use the forward substitution method introduced in the lectures to solve  $Lz = y$ , and then backward substitution to solve  $Uc = z$  to find the coefficients  $c$  describing the 19th order polynomial going through all 20 data points.

```

1 def LU_decomposition(V, x, y, x_interp, num_iterations=0):
2     """Performs LU decomposition on the Vandermonde matrix V to
3     find the matrices L and U such that L*U = V
4     It then uses these decomposed matrices to solve for the
5     coefficient of the polynomial that goes through
6     all points x_i, y_i. If num_iterations > 0, we reapply the LU
7     matrix to \delta y = Vc' - y. """
8     LU = lu_decomposition(V)
9     LU_coefficients = solve_lineqs.lu(LU, y)
10
11     # Evaluate the Vandermonde polynomial on the whole smooth range
12     # , and at the 20 data points
13     LU_polynomial = compute_polynomial(x_interp, LU_coefficients.
14     matrix)
15     LU_poly_at_xdata = compute_polynomial(x, LU_coefficients.matrix
16     )
17
18     # Iterative Improvement
19     for i in range(num_iterations):
20         delta_y = LU_poly_at_xdata - y
21         delta_coefficients = solve_lineqs.lu(LU, delta_y)
22         LU_coefficients.matrix -= delta_coefficients.matrix

```



```

19         LU_polynomial = compute_polynomial(x_interp ,
20         LU_coefficients.matrix)
21         LU_poly_at_xdata = compute_polynomial(x, LU_coefficients.
22         matrix)
23
24     return LU_polynomial, LU_poly_at_xdata

```

Listing 6: Code to apply LU decomposition using Crout's Algorithm to the provided data

```

1 def determine_implicit_pivot_coeff(mat):
2     """Determines the coefficients for implicit pivoting in Crout's
3     Algorithm. It does this by finding
4     the absolute maximum value of each row in the matrix, and
5     storing its inverse.
6
7     NOTE: Requires a Matrix object (this script) as input. This
8     ensures correspondence with row-order
9     """
10    row_max_inverse = np.zeros(mat.num_rows)
11    for i in range(mat.num_rows):
12        row = mat.matrix[i]
13        row_max = row[np.argmax(np.abs(row))]
14        row_max_inverse[i] = 1. / row_max
15
16    return row_max_inverse
17
18 def lu_decomposition(coefficients, implicit_pivoting=True):
19     """Decomposes a matrix into:
20     -L: A matrix with non-zero elements only in the lower-
21     triangle, and ones on the diagonal
22     -U: A matrix with non-zero elements only in the upper-
23     triangle, including the diagonal
24     These matrices are presented and stored into one.
25     The decomposition is done using Crout's Algorithm
26     """
27    A = Matrix(values=coefficients)
28    if implicit_pivoting:
29        row_max_inverse = determine_implicit_pivot_coeff(A)
30
31    imax_ar = np.zeros(A.num_columns)
32    # First pivot the matrix
33    for i in range(A.num_columns):
34        # A.matrix[i:, i] selects all elements on or below the
35        diagonal
36        if implicit_pivoting:
37            pivot_candidates = A.matrix[i:, i] * row_max_inverse[i
38            :]
39        else:
40            pivot_candidates = A.matrix[i:, i]
41
42        pivot_idx = i + np.argmax(np.abs(pivot_candidates))
43        imax_ar[i] = pivot_idx
44        A.swap_rows(i, pivot_idx)
45
46    for i in range(A.num_columns):
47        # A.matrix[i:, i] selects all elements on or below the
48        diagonal
49        diag_element = A.matrix[i, i] # Use to scale alpha factors

```

```

44         for j in range(i + 1, A.num_rows): # This leaves a zero at
           the end, not the best fix this!
45             A.matrix[j, i] /= diag_element
46             for k in range(i + 1, A.num_rows): # j+1):
47                 A.matrix[j, k] -= A.matrix[j, i] * A.matrix[i, k]
48
49     return A
50 def solve_lineqs_lu(LU, b):
51     """Performs the steps to solve a system of linear equations
           after a matrix A has been LU decomposed. It
52     does this by first applying forward substitution to solve Ly =
           b, and then applies backward substitution
53     to solve Ux = y.
54
55     Inputs:
56         LU: The decomposed L and U matrices, stored in a single
           Matrix instance
57         b: The constraints of the linear equations, ndarray
58
59     Outputs:
60         x: Matrix instance containing the solution such that Ax = b
61     """
62
63     x = Matrix(values=b)
64     # Begin by swapping the x's in the right order
65     x.matrix = x.matrix[LU.row_order]
66
67     # Forward Substitutions. Solves Ly = b
68     for i in range(0, x.num_rows):
69         x.matrix[i] -= np.sum(LU.matrix[i, :i] * x.matrix[:i])
70
71     # Backward Substitutions. Solves Ux = y
72     for i in range(x.num_rows-1, -1, -1):
73         x.matrix[i] = (1./LU.matrix[i, i])*(x.matrix[i] - np.sum(LU.
           matrix[i, i+1:]*x.matrix[i+1:]))
74
75     return x

```

Listing 7: Algorithms for LU decomposition using Crout's Algorithm and a linear equation solver

## 2.2 Iterative LU Decomposition

In theory the coefficients  $c$  we find using the LU decomposition method described above should exactly solve the equation  $Vc = y$ . In reality however, there is a small error on the machine estimates of the coefficients, giving us  $c' = c + \delta c$  instead. This means we actually found  $Vc' = V(c + \delta c) = y + \delta y$  and therefore we can write  $V\delta c = \delta y = Vc' - y$ . This shows us that we can solve  $V\delta c = \delta y$  to find an improvement to our solution  $c'$ .

The great thing is that we do not have to decompose  $V$  again because we have already done that for the initial estimate of  $c$ . Therefore, this iterative improvement can be done for relatively little computing power. This iterative improvement process is encoded in the for loop in the function `LU_decomposition` in `vandermonde.py`. In this report we will apply this iterative improvement process ten times, and included it alongside our other results.

## 2.3 Neville's Algorithm

Due to the similarity of the polynomial based on the Vandermonde matrix to the Lagrange polynomial, we can also use a polynomial interpolator to find the coefficients of the Lagrange polynomial that goes through all data points  $(x_i, y_i)$ . To find this polynomial we have implemented Neville's Algorithm on all 20 data points simultaneously as presented below. In this specific implementation we start with a bisection algorithm to find the neighbours of the  $x$  values we want to interpolate. This is not necessary in this specific implementation because we always use all available data, however it is left in for the sake of generality.

```
1 def split_list(a):
2     """Splits a list in two halves and returns both.
3     -If the length of the array is even, both halves are
4     equally long.
5     -If the length of the array is odd, the second half is one
6     longer"""
7     half = len(a) // 2
8     return a[:half], a[half:]
9
10 def bisection(x, y, t, M):
11     """Applies the bisection algorithm at order M in 1D.
12
13     Inputs:
14         x: The x-values of the data points. Assumed strictly
15         increasing
16         y: The y-values of the data points
17         t: The x-value of the point to identify sample points for
18         M: Number of sample points to return
19
20     Returns:
21         interp_points: The M points nearest to t along the x-axis
22         extrapolated: boolean, True if t lies outside the given
23         range of the x data
24     """
25     # Use another variable than x to make sure we don't
26     # accidentally mess with
27     # the real xdata list due to Python shenanigans
28     adjacent_idx = np.arange(0, len(x))
29
30     # Check if we're dealing with extrapolation
31     if t < x[0]:
32         #print(f"Warning: Extrapolation. {t} lies below x data
33         points")
34         return np.arange(0, M), True
35     elif t > x[-1]:
36         #print(f"Warning: Extrapolation. {t} lies above x data
37         points")
38         return np.arange(len(x) - M, len(x)), True
39
40     # Keep doing the below steps until we find the two points
41     # adjacent to t
42     while True:
43         left, right = split_list(adjacent_idx)
44         if (t >= x[left[0]]) & (t < x[right[0]]):
45             # Check if we're exactly on the boundary between two
46             # sets
47             if t > x[left[-1]]:
48                 adjacent_idx = [left[-1], right[0]]
49             break
```

```

42         adjacent_idxxs = left
43     else:
44         adjacent_idxxs = right
45
46     if len(adjacent_idxxs) < 3: # then adjacent points are
identified
47         break
48
49     # In the following if-statements we check if the point t is "
too close to the edge". This is the
50     # case if there are fewer than M/2 points to the left or right
of t.
51     # If the point is in the middle and M is odd, we add an extra
point to the right
52     if adjacent_idxxs[0] < M/2:
53         min_idx = 0
54         max_idx = M-1
55     elif adjacent_idxxs[0] > (len(x) - M):
56         min_idx = len(x) - M
57         max_idx = len(x) - 1
58     else:
59         min_idx = int(adjacent_idxxs[0] - np.floor((M-2)/2))
60         max_idx = int(adjacent_idxxs[1] + np.ceil((M-2)/2))
61
62     # Check if bisection worked properly
63     if not ((x[min_idx] <= t) & (t <= x[max_idx])):
64         raise ValueError(f'Mistake in bisection. {t} not between {x
[min_idx]} and {x[max_idx]}')
65
66     interp_points = np.arange(min_idx, max_idx+1)
67     return interp_points, False # +1 to include max_idx
68
69
70 def nevilles_equation(t, P1, P2, x1, x2):
71     """Given two P and x values, computes Neville's Equation. This
is used for the polynomial
72     interpolation function. The equation is:
73
74     
$$H(x) = ((x_j - x) * F_i(x) + (x - x_i) * G_j(x)) / (x_j - x_i)$$

75
76     Inputs:
77         t : x, point to be interpolated
78         P1: F_i(x)
79         P2: G_j(x)
80         x1: x_i
81         x2: x_j
82
83     Outputs:
84         H.t: H(x)
85     """
86     top = (x2 - t) * P1 + (t - x1) * P2
87     return top / (x2 - x1)
88
89
90 def poly_interpolator(xdata, ydata, t, M):
91     """This function first makes use of the bisection algorithm to
identify M data points surrounding
92     the point to be interpolated, and then applies Neville's
Algorithm to estimate its y-value and
93     the uncertainty on that estimation.
94
95     Note: While this function is called 'polynomial interpolator',

```

```

96     it does accept values outside of the
97         provided range of xdata, and therefore can extrapolate.
98     But the reported accuracy of the
99         estimation drops off quickly outside the range.
100
101     Inputs:
102         xdata: N data points along the x-axis
103         ydata: N data points along the y-axis
104         t      : The points along the x-axis we want to interpolate,
105                 should always be provided as a
106                 list or ndarray for indexing purposes
107         M      : The order of the polynomial to fit
108
109     Outputs:
110         y_inter: Array of the estimated y-values corresponding to
111                 t
112         unc_inter: Array of the estimated uncertainties on y_inter.
113                 These are estimated as the absolute
114                 difference between P_array[0] just after, and
115                 just before the final loop.
116 """
117 y_inter = np.zeros_like(t)
118 unc_inter = np.zeros_like(t)
119 for i in range(len(t)):
120     interp_points, interpolated = bisection(xdata, ydata, t[i],
121     M)
122     P_array = np.array(ydata)[interp_points]
123     x_points = np.array(xdata)[interp_points]
124
125     for k in range(1, M):
126         for j in range(M - k):
127             P_array[j] = nevilles_equation(t[i], P_array[j],
128             P_array[j + 1], x_points[j], x_points[j + k])
129         if k == M - 2:
130             previous_val = P_array[0] # This is e.g. P012, use
131             its diff. with P0123 as dy
132             y_inter[i] = P_array[0]
133             unc_inter[i] = np.abs(P_array[0] - previous_val)
134     return y_inter, unc_inter

```

Listing 8: Algorithms for polynomial interpolation using Neville’s Algorithm

## 2.4 Results

We have introduced all the algorithms which we have used to find the polynomial going through all of the provided data points. We plot these data points and each of the three polynomials in the top panel of Figure 1. In the bottom panel we present the base 10 logarithm of the absolute difference between the estimations of each of the three implementations and the true data values evaluated at each data point  $i$ . We note that a few points are missing for Neville’s Algorithm. This is because at these points the polynomial derived using Neville’s Algorithm and the true values exactly match (up to machine error) and therefore their difference is zero. Taking the logarithm of zero is impossible and therefore returns no result.

Initially we can see that each of the three polynomials go through each of the twenty data points in almost exactly the same manner. It is impossible to see any difference by eye on a linear scale. However from the bottom panel we can see that there is a difference between the LU Decomposition and Neville’s

### Lagrange Polynomial Estimations

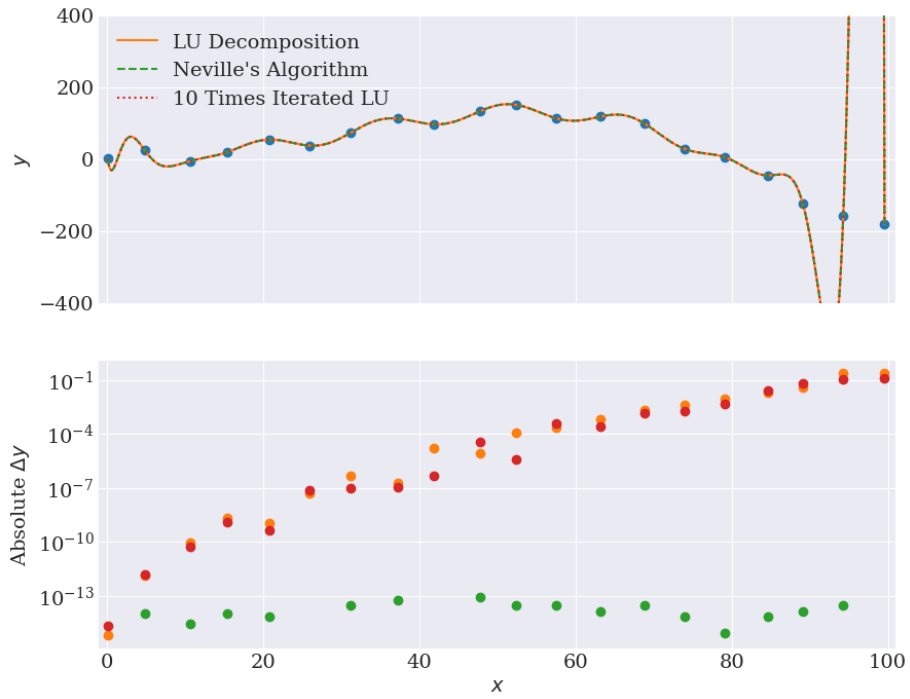


Figure 1: Results of the polynomial estimations of the data. A full description of the algorithms and a full discussion of the text is given in text. *top*: Provided twenty data points combined with the three estimated polynomials going through each of these points. *bottom*: Logarithmic absolute difference between the estimated polynomials and the true data values evaluated at each  $x_i$ .

Algorithm method when evaluated at the  $x_i$ . The error for the polynomial interpolator is significantly lower for all  $x$ , and the error for the LU decomposition implementation increases of approximately thirteen orders of magnitude throughout the entire dataset. Additionally we see virtually no improvement in error after attempting to iteratively improve the estimate with LU decomposition.

The consistently low values for absolute difference through Neville’s Algorithm make sense due to the definition of the equation used for the estimations. Neville’s equation is mostly based on the true values,  $y_i$  and the distance between the corresponding  $x_i$  and the point we want to interpolate. If that distance is very small, then the deviation from  $y_i$  will by definition be very small as well.

The pattern of increasing absolute difference in both LU decomposition implementations seems weird at first sight. But this most likely arises from the increasingly ‘weird’ behaviour of the polynomial that is clearly visible in the top panel. It has immensely steep slopes surrounding the final three data points, which means the estimation of a  $y$  value can be very sensitive to a tiny variation in  $x$ , leading to larger uncertainties. The absence of any improvement for the iterated LU decomposition method could have arisen from the large scale difference between the  $y$  and  $\Delta y$ . After one iteration we already have a relatively good estimation which at its maximum has an uncertainty of  $\sim 0.1$  on a value of 200. Adding additional improvement with this iterative process just adds extra negligible terms that do not significantly change our estimations. We confirmed this by looking at the  $\delta c$  for the last point, which are usually on the order of  $\sim 10^{-3}$ , too small to be noticed after ten iterations.

## 2.5 Implementation Speed

As a final comparison between each of the three methods we measure their execution times. To keep the run time of the complete assignment small we set a limit of one minute for this section, which allows 100 iterations of each algorithm. The results are presented in Table 3 and the associated code is presented at the end of this section.

Algorithm	Runtime (ms)
LU Decomposition (1x)	7.11
LU Decomposition (10x)	26.87
Neville’s Algorithm	592.62

Table 3: Runtime of each of the three algorithms described in the text expressed in milli-seconds, averaged over 100 iterations each.

We see that the LU decomposition, while slightly less precise as we saw in the previous section, is faster than Neville’s Algorithm by almost two orders of magnitude. Additionally, we can very clearly see the fact that subsequent iterations of solving a system of linear equations with an LU matrix can be done very quickly. The LU decomposition iterated ten times is only  $\sim 5$  times slower than the non-iterated version. However as we saw in the last section, in this specific case this additional computing time did not result in extra accuracy.

```

1 def vandermonde_timeit(num_iter=100):
2     """Time the execution time of the code snippets above"""
3     V, x, y, x_interp = import_data()
4
5     time_LU = timeit.timeit(f"LU_decomposition(V, x, y, x_interp,
6                             num_iterations=0)",
7                             setup='from __main__ import
8                             LU_decomposition, import_data \
9                             \nV, x, y, x_interp =
10                            import_data()',
11                             number=num_iter)/num_iter
12
13     time_LU_iterative = timeit.timeit("LU_decomposition(V, x, y,
14                                         x_interp, num_iterations=10)",
15                                         setup='from __main__ import
16                                         LU_decomposition, import_data \
17                                         \nV, x, y, x_interp =
18                                         import_data()',
19                                         number=num_iter)/num_iter
20
21     time_neville = timeit.timeit("neville_fit(x, y, x_interp)",
22                                   setup='from __main__ import
23                                   neville_fit, import_data \
24                                   \nV, x, y, x_interp =
25                                   import_data()',
26                                   number=num_iter)/num_iter
27
28     table = f"""Algorithm & Runtime (ms) \\\n
29     \hline
30     LU Decomposition (1x) & {time_LU*1e3:.2f} \\\n
31     LU Decomposition (10x) & {time_LU_iterative*1e3:.2f} \\\n
32     Neville's Algorithm & {time_neville*1e3:.2f}"""
33
34     with open('results/vandermonde_timetab.txt', 'w') as f:
35         f.write(table)
36
37     #print('almost done.')
38     #input()
39
40 def main():
41     vandermonde_fit()
42     print("\tTiming Algorithms..")
43     vandermonde_timeit()
44
45 if __name__ == '__main__':
46     main()

```

Listing 9: Code for the algorithm execution time estimation