

## Numpy Arrays

We start by importing the module numpy as *import numpy as np*  
Let  $x = [[1, 2], [3, 4]]$  be a two dimensional list (lists within a list). We convert it into a numpy array as  $x = np.array(x)$

Now,  $x.shape$  gives the shape of this array which is (2, 2) in this case.

[In case of  $1 \times n$  arrays, the result is printed as (n,)]

$x.ndim$  gives the dimension of this array which is 2 in this case.

$y = x.reshape(4,1)$  converts the array into a  $4 \times 1$  array. The result is stored in y, but the array **x remains unchanged**.

$x.resize(4,1)$  converts the array into a  $4 \times 1$  array. The array **x itself changes**.

If  $x = [[1, 2], [3, 4]]$  and  $y = [[0, 1], [2, 3]]$  are two numpy arrays :

$x + y$ ,  $x - y$ ,  $x * y$ ,  $x/y$  produce another array with term by term addition, subtraction, etc.

For example,  $x + y = [[1, 3], [5, 7]]$ ,  $x * y = [[0, 2], [6, 12]]$ .

Clearly,  $x + y$  and  $x - y$  give the results of matrix addition and matrix subtraction. However,  $x * y$  is **not the same as matrix multiplication**.

$np.add(x, y)$  gives us the result of **matrix addition** which is the same as  $x + y$ .

$np.dot(x, y)$  gives us the result of **matrix multiplication** which is not the same as  $x * y$ .

$np.trace(x)$  gives the trace of x, i.e., sum of the diagonal elements :  $x_{11} + x_{22}$

$x.T$  produces the matrix transpose of x. i.e.  $x^T$ .

If  $x = [1, 1, 2]$  and  $y = [1, 2, 1]$  are two **one dimensional** numpy arrays, they may be treated as two vectors.

$np.inner(x, y)$  or  $np.vdot(x, y)$  gives the inner product (i.e. the dot product) of these two vectors, which equals 5 in this case. Note that  $np.dot$  **does not** produce the so-called dot product of two vectors.

$np.cross(x, y)$  gives the cross product x and y.

$linspace(a, b, n)$  creates an array with 'n' number of entries, starting with 'a' and finishing with 'b' (both the end points being included), e.g.,  $linspace(1, 5, 5) = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]$

$arange(a, b, h)$  creates an array as  $[a, a + h, a + 2h, \dots]$ , which finishes **before 'b' is reached**, e.g.,  $linspace(1, 4, 0.5) = [1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5]$

## Slicing of arrays

Let  $x = [5, 4, 0, 1, 2, 6]$  be a numpy array.

$x[m : n : p]$  produces a sliced array starting with the m-th element, finishing at the (n - 1)-th element and jumping with steps of p. For example,  $x[1 : 4 : 2] = [4, 1]$

$x[: 4 : 2]$  starts from the beginning, i.e. yields  $[5, 0]$

$x[1 : : 2]$  goes up to the end i.e. yields  $[4, 1, 6]$

$x[1 : 4 : ]$  takes the step size = 1, by default, i.e. yields  $[4, 0, 1]$

## Eigen value Problem

Let us import a module linalg from numpy as *import numpy.linalg as lin*

Let  $x = [[0, 1], [1, 0]]$  be a two dimensional numpy array, which is equivalent to a matrix.

`lin.eigvals(x)` gives the eigenvalues of  $x$  as a tuple, i.e., as  $(I, -I)$ .

We can unpack them as  $a, b = \text{lin.eigvals}(x)$

`lin.eig(x)` gives the eigenvalues and normalized eigenvectors as a tuple of arrays.

The eigen values are packed as one array and the eigen vectors are packed as another 2 - dimensional array. We can unpack the tuple as  $l, v = \text{lin.eig}(x)$

Now,  $l$  contains the eigen values and  $v$  contain the eigen vectors. We can further separate the eigen vectors by slicing as  $v1 = v[:, 0]$  (this collects the 0-th column of all the rows)

$v2 = v[:, 1]$  (this collects the 1-th column of all the rows)

### Trapezoidal rule

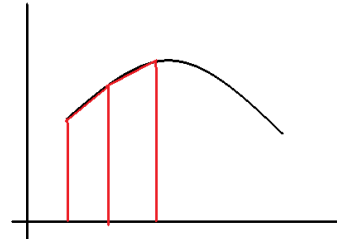
The interval is divided into small segments. The points on the curve are joined by **straight lines**, so that these joining lines and the ordinates form thin **trapeziums** (hence the name).

Area of the first trapezium =  $(y_0 + y_1)/2 \times dx$

Area of the second trapezium =  $(y_1 + y_2)/2 \times dx$

. . . .

**Total area =  $[y_0 + 2y_1 + 2y_2 + \dots + y_n] \times dx / 2$**



```
# Integration by Trapezoidal Rule
```

```
# Integrating sin(x) from 0 to pi = 3.14159
```

```
import numpy as np
```

```
x = np.linspace(0, 3.14159, 21)
```

```
y = np.sin(x)
```

```
h = 3.14159/20
```

```
sum = y[0] + y[20]
```

```
for i in range(1, 20):
```

```
    sum = sum + 2*y[i]
```

```
area = sum * h/2
```

```
print('Area = ', area)
```

Or,

```
# Integrating sin(x) from 0 to pi
```

```
import math
```

```
def f(x):
```

```
    return math.sin(x)
```

```
a = 0.0
```

```
b = 3.14159
```

```
n = 20
```

```
h = (b - a)/n
```

```
sum = f(a) + f(b)
```

```
for i in range(1, 20):
```

```
    sum = sum + 2 * f(a + i*h)
```

```
area = sum *h/2
```

```
print("Area = ", area)
```

```
# Integration by Trapezoidal Rule, using numpy.trapz
```

```
# Integrating (1 - x) from 0 to 1
```

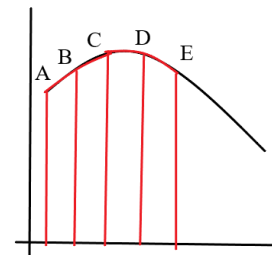
```
import numpy as np
x = np.linspace (0, 1, 10)
y = 1 - x
area = np.trapz (y, x)
print ('Area = ', area)
```

```
# Integration by Trapezoidal Rule, using scipy.integrate.trapz
```

```
import numpy as np
import scipy.integrate as sc
x = np.arange (0, 1.1, 0.1)
y = 1 - x
area = sc.trapz (y, x)
print ('Area = ', area)
```

### Simpson's 1/3 Rule

The interval is divided into small segments. Every three successive points on the curve are joined by a small **parabola**, i.e. a **second degree curve** of the form :  $y = a + bx + cx^2$ , in contrast to the Trapezoidal rule, where every two successive points are joined by a small **straight line**, i.e. a **first degree curve** of the form :  $y = a + bx$ . For example, the points A, B, C are on a parabola, while the points C, D, E are on a separate parabola.



The area under the first parabola ABC =  $(y_0 + 4y_1 + y_2) \times dx/3$

The area under the first parabola CDE =  $(y_2 + 4y_3 + y_4) \times dx/3$

. . . .

**Total area =  $[y_0 + 4y_1 + 2y_2 + 4y_3 + 2y_4 + \dots + y_n] \times dx / 3$**

(Hence the name)

The odd numbered ordinates are multiplied by 4, while the even numbered ordinates are multiplied by 2 and the ordinates at the two end are multiplied by 1.

- Note that the number of intervals must be even, i.e., the number of points should be odd.

```
# Integration by Simpson's Rule
```

```
def f(x) :
```

```
    return (1 - x*x)
```

```
a = input ("Initial x ")
```

```
a = float (a)
```

```
b = input ("Final x ")
```

```
b = float (b)
```

```
n = input ('No. of intervals ')
```

```
n = int (n)
```

```

h = (b - a)/n
sum = f(a) + f(b)
for i in range (1, n, 2) :
    sum = sum + 4 * f(a + i*h)
for i in range (2, n-1, 2) :
    sum = sum + 2 * f(a +i*h)
area = sum *h/3
print ("Area = ", area)

# Integration by Simpson's 1/3 Rule, using scipy.integrate.simps
import numpy as np
import scipy.integrate as sc
x = np.arange (0, 1.1, 0.1)
y = 1 - x
area = sc.simps (y, x)
print ('Area = ', area)

```

### Lagrange Interpolation

For fitting, say three data points, we take a polynomial of the form :

$$y = A (x - x_2) (x - x_3) + B (x - x_1) (x - x_3) + C (x - x_1) (x - x_2)$$

Note that we have avoided the factor  $(x - x_1)$  in the first term, the factor  $(x - x_2)$  in the second term and so on. Setting  $x = x_1$  immediately kills all the factors except the first.

$$\text{So, } y = y_1 \text{ at } x = x_1 \Rightarrow A = y_1 / ((x_1 - x_2) (x_1 - x_3))$$

$$y = y_2 \text{ at } x = x_2 \Rightarrow B = y_2 / ((x_2 - x_1) (x_2 - x_3))$$

$$y = y_3 \text{ at } x = x_3 \Rightarrow C = y_3 / ((x_3 - x_1) (x_3 - x_2))$$

```

# Lagrange's Interpolation
n = input ('Tell me the number of data points')
n = int (n)
x = []
y = []
print ('Input the values of xi and yi')
for i in range (n) :
    xi = float (input())
    x.append (xi)
    yi = float (input())
    y.append (yi)
xx = input ('Give me the interpolating point')
xx = float (xx)
sum = 0.0
for i in range in range (n) :
    prod = 1.0
    for j in range (n) :
        if j != i :
            prod = prod *(xx - x[j])/(x[i] - x[j])
    sum = sum + y[i]*prod
print ('At x = ', xx, 'y = ', sum)

```

```
''' Lagrange Interpolation
    using scipy.interpolate.lagrange '''
import scipy.interpolate as sc
x = [1, 2, 3]
y = [1, 4, 9]
p = sc.lagrange (x, y)
print (p)
l = p.coef
print (l)
```