

An introduction to Numpy and Scipy

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Overview

NumPy and SciPy are open-source add-on modules to Python that provide common mathematical and numerical routines in pre-compiled, fast functions. These are highly mature packages that provide numerical functionality that meets, or perhaps exceeds, that associated with commercial software like MatLab. The NumPy (Numeric Python) package provides basic routines for manipulating large arrays and matrices of numeric data. The SciPy (Scientific Python) package extends the functionality of NumPy with a substantial collection of useful algorithms like minimization, Fourier transformation, regression, and other applied mathematical techniques.

Installation

If you installed the Anaconda distribution, then you should be ready to go. If not, then you will have to install these add-ons manually after installing Python, in the order of NumPy and then SciPy. Installation files are available at:

<https://numpy.org>

<https://scipy.org/>

Other resources

The NumPy and SciPy development community maintains an extensive online documentation system, including user guides and tutorials, at:

<https://docs.scipy.org/doc/>

Importing the NumPy module

There are several ways to import NumPy. The standard approach is to use a simple import statement:

```
>>> import numpy
```

However, for large amounts of calls to NumPy functions, it can become tedious to write `numpy.X` over and over again. Instead, it is common to import under the briefer name `np`:

```
>>> import numpy as np
```

This statement will allow us to access NumPy objects using `np.X` instead of `numpy.X`. It is also possible to import NumPy directly into the current namespace so that we don't have to use dot notation at all, but rather simply call the functions as if they were built-in:

```
>>> from numpy import *
```

However, this strategy is usually frowned upon in Python programming because it starts to remove some of the nice organization that modules provide. For the remainder of this tutorial, we will assume that the `import numpy as np` has been used.

Arrays

The central feature of NumPy is the *array* object class. Arrays are similar to lists in Python, except that every element of an array must be of the same type, typically a numeric type like `float` or `int`. Arrays make operations with large amounts of numeric data very fast and are generally much more efficient than lists.

An array can be created from a list:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 4, 5, 8], float)
>>> a
array([ 1.,  4.,  5.,  8.])
>>> type(a)
<class 'numpy.ndarray'>
```

Here, the function `array` takes two arguments: the list to be converted into the array and the type of each member of the list. Array elements are accessed, sliced, and manipulated just like lists:

```
>>> a[:2]
array([ 1.,  4.])
>>> a[3]
8.0
>>> a[0] = 5.
>>> a
array([ 5.,  4.,  5.,  8.])
```

Arrays can be multidimensional. Unlike lists, different axes are accessed using commas inside bracket notation. Here is an example with a two-dimensional array (e.g., a matrix):

```
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], float)
>>> a
array([[ 1.,  2.,  3.],
       [ 4.,  5.,  6.]])
>>> a[0,0]
1.0
>>> a[0,1]
2.0
```

Array slicing works with multiple dimensions in the same way as usual, applying each slice specification as a filter to a specified dimension. Use of a single ":" in a dimension indicates the use of everything along that dimension:

```
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], float)
```

```
>>> a[1,:]
array([ 4.,  5.,  6.])
>>> a[:,2]
array([ 3.,  6.])
>>> a[-1:,-2:]
array([[ 5.,  6.]])
```

The `shape` property of an array returns a tuple with the size of each array dimension:

```
>>> a.shape
(2, 3)
```

The `dtype` property tells you what type of values are stored by the array:

```
>>> a.dtype
dtype('float64')
```

Here, `float64` is a numeric type that NumPy uses to store double-precision (8-byte) real numbers, similar to the `float` type in Python.

When used with an array, the `len` function returns the length of the first axis:

```
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], float)
>>> len(a)
2
```

The `in` statement can be used to test if values are present in an array:

```
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], float)
>>> 2 in a
True
>>> 0 in a
False
```

Arrays can be reshaped using tuples that specify new dimensions. In the following example, we turn a ten-element one-dimensional array into a two-dimensional one whose first axis has five elements and whose second axis has two elements:

```
>>> a = np.array(range(10), float)
>>> a
array([ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.,  4.,  5.,  6.,  7.,  8.,  9.])
>>> a = a.reshape((5, 2))
>>> a
array([[ 0.,  1.],
       [ 2.,  3.],
       [ 4.,  5.],
       [ 6.,  7.],
       [ 8.,  9.]])
>>> a.shape
(5, 2)
```

Notice that the `reshape` function creates a new array and does not itself modify the original array.

Keep in mind that Python's name-binding approach still applies to arrays. The `copy` function can be used to create a separate copy of an array in memory if needed:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3], float)
>>> b = a
>>> c = a.copy()
>>> a[0] = 0
>>> a
array([0., 2., 3.])
>>> b
array([0., 2., 3.])
>>> c
array([1., 2., 3.])
```

Lists can also be created from arrays:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3], float)
>>> a.tolist()
[1.0, 2.0, 3.0]
>>> list(a)
[1.0, 2.0, 3.0]
```

One can convert the raw data in an array to a binary string (i.e., not in human-readable form) using the `tostring` function. The `fromstring` function then allows an array to be created from this data later on. These routines are sometimes convenient for saving large amount of array data in binary files that can be read later on:

```
>>> a = array([1, 2, 3], float)
>>> s = a.tostring()
>>> s
'\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\xf0?\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00@\x00\x00\x00\x00
\x00\x00\x08@'
>>> np.fromstring(s)
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.])
```

One can fill an array with a single value:

```
>>> a = array([1, 2, 3], float)
>>> a
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.])
>>> a.fill(0)
>>> a
array([ 0.,  0.,  0.])
```

Transposed versions of arrays can also be generated, which will create a new array with the final two axes switched:

```
>>> a = np.array(range(6), float).reshape((2, 3))
```

```

>>> a
array([[ 0.,  1.,  2.],
       [ 3.,  4.,  5.]])
>>> a.transpose()
array([[ 0.,  3.],
       [ 1.,  4.],
       [ 2.,  5.]])

```

One-dimensional versions of multi-dimensional arrays can be generated with `flatten`:

```

>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], float)
>>> a
array([[ 1.,  2.,  3.],
       [ 4.,  5.,  6.]])
>>> a.flatten()
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.,  4.,  5.,  6.])

```

Two or more arrays can be concatenated together using the `concatenate` function with a tuple of the arrays to be joined:

```

>>> a = np.array([1,2], float)
>>> b = np.array([3,4,5,6], float)
>>> c = np.array([7,8,9], float)
>>> np.concatenate((a, b, c))
array([1., 2., 3., 4., 5., 6., 7., 8., 9.])

```

If an array has more than one dimension, it is possible to specify the axis along which multiple arrays are concatenated. By default (without specifying the axis), NumPy concatenates along the first dimension:

```

>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]], float)
>>> b = np.array([[5, 6], [7,8]], float)
>>> np.concatenate((a,b))
array([[ 1.,  2.],
       [ 3.,  4.],
       [ 5.,  6.],
       [ 7.,  8.]])
>>> np.concatenate((a,b), axis=0)
array([[ 1.,  2.],
       [ 3.,  4.],
       [ 5.,  6.],
       [ 7.,  8.]])
>>> np.concatenate((a,b), axis=1)
array([[ 1.,  2.,  5.,  6.],
       [ 3.,  4.,  7.,  8.]])

```

Finally, the dimensionality of an array can be increased using the `newaxis` constant in bracket notation:

```

>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3], float)
>>> a
array([1., 2., 3.])
>>> a[:,np.newaxis]

```

```

array([[ 1.],
       [ 2.],
       [ 3.]])
>>> a[:, np.newaxis].shape
(3,1)
>>> b[np.newaxis, :]
array([[ 1.,  2.,  3.]])
>>> b[np.newaxis, :].shape
(1,3)

```

Notice here that in each case the new array has two dimensions; the one created by `newaxis` has a length of one. The `newaxis` approach is convenient for generating the proper-dimensional arrays for vector and matrix mathematics.

Other ways to create arrays

The `arange` function is similar to the `range` function but returns an array instead of a list:

```

>>> np.arange(5, dtype=float)
array([ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.,  4.])
>>> np.arange(1, 6, 2, dtype=int)
array([1, 3, 5])

```

The functions `zeros` and `ones` create new arrays of specified dimensions filled with these values. These are perhaps the most commonly used functions to create new arrays:

```

>>> np.ones((2,3), dtype=float)
array([[ 1.,  1.,  1.],
       [ 1.,  1.,  1.]])
>>> np.zeros(7, dtype=int)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0])

```

The `zeros_like` and `ones_like` functions create a new array with the same dimensions and type of an existing one:

```

>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], float)
>>> np.zeros_like(a)
array([[ 0.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  0.]])
>>> np.ones_like(a)
array([[ 1.,  1.,  1.],
       [ 1.,  1.,  1.]])

```

There are also a number of functions for creating special matrices (2D arrays). To create an identity matrix of a given size,

```

>>> np.identity(4, dtype=float)
array([[ 1.,  0.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  1.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  1.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  0.,  1.]])

```

The `eye` function returns matrices with ones along the *k*th diagonal:

```
>>> np.eye(4, k=1, dtype=float)
array([[ 0.,  1.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  1.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  0.,  1.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  0.,  0.]])
```

Array mathematics

When standard mathematical operations are used with arrays, they are applied on an element-by-element basis. This means that the arrays should be the same size during addition, subtraction, etc.:

```
>>> a = np.array([1,2,3], float)
>>> b = np.array([5,2,6], float)
>>> a + b
array([6., 4., 9.])
>>> a - b
array([-4., 0., -3.])
>>> a * b
array([5., 4., 18.])
>>> b / a
array([5., 1., 2.])
>>> a % b
array([1., 0., 3.])
>>> b**a
array([5., 4., 216.])
```

For two-dimensional arrays, multiplication remains elementwise and does *not* correspond to matrix multiplication.

```
>>> a = np.array([[1,2], [3,4]], float)
>>> b = np.array([[2,0], [1,3]], float)
>>> a * b
array([[2., 0.], [3., 12.]])
```

Errors are thrown if arrays do not match in size:

```
>>> a = np.array([1,2,3], float)
>>> b = np.array([4,5], float)
>>> a + b
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: shape mismatch: objects cannot be broadcast to a single shape
```

However, arrays that do not match in the number of dimensions will be *broadcasted* by Python to perform mathematical operations. This often means that the smaller array will be repeated as necessary to perform the operation indicated. Consider the following:

```
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4], [5, 6]], float)
```



```

>>> b = np.array([-1, 3], float)
>>> a
array([[ 1.,  2.],
       [ 3.,  4.],
       [ 5.,  6.]])
>>> b
array([-1.,  3.])
>>> a + b
array([[ 0.,  5.],
       [ 2.,  7.],
       [ 4.,  9.]])

```

Here, the one-dimensional array `b` was broadcasted to a two-dimensional array that matched the size of `a`. In essence, `b` was repeated for each item in `a`, as if it were given by

```

array([[ -1.,  3.],
       [ -1.,  3.],
       [ -1.,  3.]])

```

Python automatically broadcasts arrays in this manner. Sometimes, however, how we should broadcast is ambiguous. In these cases, we can use the `newaxis` constant to specify how we want to broadcast:

```

>>> a = np.zeros((2,2), float)
>>> b = np.array([-1., 3.], float)
>>> a
array([[ 0.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  0.]])
>>> b
array([-1.,  3.])
>>> a + b
array([[ -1.,  3.],
       [ -1.,  3.]])
>>> a + b[np.newaxis, :]
array([[ -1.,  3.],
       [ -1.,  3.]])
>>> a + b[:, np.newaxis]
array([[ -1., -1.],
       [ 3.,  3.]])

```

In addition to the standard operators, NumPy offers a large library of common mathematical functions that can be applied elementwise to arrays. Among these are the functions: `abs`, `sign`, `sqrt`, `log`, `log10`, `exp`, `sin`, `cos`, `tan`, `arcsin`, `arccos`, `arctan`, `sinh`, `cosh`, `tanh`, `arcsinh`, `arccosh`, and `arctanh`.

```

>>> a = np.array([1, 4, 9], float)
>>> np.sqrt(a)
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.])

```

The functions `floor`, `ceil`, and `rint` give the lower, upper, or nearest (rounded) integer:

```

>>> a = np.array([1.1, 1.5, 1.9], float)

```

```
>>> np.floor(a)
array([ 1.,  1.,  1.])
>>> np.ceil(a)
array([ 2.,  2.,  2.])
>>> np rint(a)
array([ 1.,  2.,  2.]
```

Also included in the NumPy module are two important mathematical constants:

```
>>> np.pi
3.1415926535897931
>>> np.e
2.7182818284590451
```

Array iteration

It is possible to iterate over arrays in a manner similar to that of lists:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 4, 5], int)
>>> for x in a:
...     print(x)
... <hit return>
1
4
5
```

For multidimensional arrays, iteration proceeds over the first axis such that each loop returns a subsection of the array:

```
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4], [5, 6]], float)
>>> for x in a:
...     print(x)
... <hit return>
[ 1.  2.]
[ 3.  4.]
[ 5.  6.]
```

Multiple assignment can also be used with array iteration:

```
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4], [5, 6]], float)
>>> for (x, y) in a:
...     print(x * y)
... <hit return>
2.0
12.0
30.0
```

Basic array operations

Many functions exist for extracting whole-array properties. The items in an array can be summed or multiplied:

```
>>> a = np.array([2, 4, 3], float)
>>> a.sum()
9.0
>>> a.prod()
24.0
```

We can also apply these operations to array slices:

```
>>> a[1:].sum()
7.0
```

In this example, member functions of the arrays were used. Alternatively, standalone functions in the NumPy module can be accessed:

```
>>> np.sum(a)
9.0
>>> np.prod(a)
24.0
```

For most of the routines described below, both standalone and member functions are available.

A number of routines enable computation of statistical quantities in array datasets, such as the mean (average), variance, and standard deviation:

```
>>> a = np.array([2, 1, 9], float)
>>> a.mean()
4.0
>>> a.var()
12.666666666666666
>>> a.std()
3.5590260840104371
```

It's also possible to find the minimum and maximum element values:

```
>>> a = np.array([2, 1, 9], float)
>>> a.min()
1.0
>>> a.max()
9.0
```

The `argmin` and `argmax` functions return the array indices of the minimum and maximum values:

```
>>> a = np.array([2, 1, 9], float)
>>> a.argmin()
1
>>> a.argmax()
2
```

For multidimensional arrays, each of the functions thus far described can take an optional argument `axis` that will perform an operation along only the specified axis, placing the results in a return array:

```
>>> a = np.array([[0, 2], [3, -1], [3, 5]], float)
>>> a.mean(axis=0)
array([ 2.,  2.])
>>> a.mean(axis=1)
array([ 1.,  1.,  4.])
>>> a.min(axis=1)
array([ 0., -1.,  3.])
>>> a.max(axis=0)
array([ 3.,  5.])
```

Like lists, arrays can be sorted:

```
>>> a = np.array([6, 2, 5, -1, 0], float)
>>> a.sort()
>>> a
array([-1.,  0.,  2.,  5.,  6.])
```

Values in an array can be "clipped" to be within a prespecified range. This is the same as applying `min(max(x, minval), maxval)` to each element `x` in an array.

```
>>> a = np.array([6, 2, 5, -1, 0], float)
>>> a.clip(0, 5)
array([ 5.,  2.,  5.,  0.,  0.])
```

Unique elements can be extracted from an array:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 1, 4, 5, 5, 5, 7], float)
>>> np.unique(a)
array([ 1.,  4.,  5.,  7.])
```

For two dimensional arrays, the diagonal can be extracted:

```
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]], float)
>>> a.diagonal()
array([ 1.,  4.])
```

Comparison operators and value testing

Boolean comparisons can be used to compare members elementwise on arrays of equal size. The return value is an array of Boolean `True` / `False` values:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 3, 0], float)
>>> b = np.array([0, 3, 2], float)
>>> a > b
array([ True, False, False], dtype=bool)
>>> a == b
array([False,  True, False], dtype=bool)
```

```
>>> a <= b
array([False,  True,  True], dtype=bool)
```

The results of a Boolean comparison can be stored in an array:

```
>>> c = a > b
>>> c
array([ True, False, False], dtype=bool)
```

Arrays can be compared to single values using broadcasting:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 3, 0], float)
>>> a > 2
array([False,  True, False], dtype=bool)
```

The `any` and `all` operators can be used to determine whether or not any or all elements of a Boolean array are true:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 3, 0], float)
>>> any(a > 2)
True
>>> all(a > 2)
False
```

Compound Boolean expressions can be applied to arrays on an element-by-element basis using special functions `logical_and`, `logical_or`, and `logical_not`.

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 3, 0], float)
>>> np.logical_and(a > 0, a < 3)
array([ True, False, False], dtype=bool)
>>> b = np.array([True, False, True], bool)
>>> np.logical_not(b)
array([False,  True, False], dtype=bool)
>>> c = np.array([False, True, False], bool)
>>> np.logical_or(b, c)
array([ True,  True,  True], dtype=bool)
```

The `where` function forms a new array from two arrays of equivalent size using a Boolean filter to choose between elements of the two. Its basic syntax is `where(boolarray, truearray, falsearray)`:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 3, 0], float)
>>> np.where(a != 0, 1 / a, a)
array([ 1.          ,  0.33333333,  0.          ])
```

Broadcasting can also be used with the `where` function:

```
>>> np.where(a > 0, 3, 2)
array([3, 3, 2])
```

A number of functions allow testing of the values in an array. The `nonzero` function gives a tuple of indices of the nonzero values in an array. The number of items in the tuple equals the number of axes of the array:

```
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [3, 0]], float)
>>> a.nonzero()
(array([0, 1]), array([1, 0]))
```

It is also possible to test whether or not values are NaN ("not a number") or finite:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, np.NaN, np.Inf], float)
>>> a
array([ 1., NaN, Inf])
>>> np.isnan(a)
array([False,  True,  False], dtype=bool)
>>> np.isfinite(a)
array([ True,  False,  False], dtype=bool)
```

Although here we used NumPy constants to add the NaN and infinite values, these can result from standard mathematical operations.

Array item selection and manipulation

We have already seen that, like lists, individual elements and slices of arrays can be selected using bracket notation. Unlike lists, however, arrays also permit selection using other arrays. That is, we can use *array selectors* to filter for specific subsets of elements of other arrays.

Boolean arrays can be used as array selectors:

```
>>> a = np.array([[6, 4], [5, 9]], float)
>>> a >= 6
array([[ True,  False],
       [False,  True]], dtype=bool)
>>> a[a >= 6]
array([ 6.,  9.])
```

Notice that sending the Boolean array given by `a >= 6` to the bracket selection for `a`, an array with only the `True` elements is returned. We could have also stored the selector array in a variable:

```
>>> a = np.array([[6, 4], [5, 9]], float)
>>> sel = (a >= 6)
>>> a[sel]
array([ 6.,  9.])
```

More complicated selections can be achieved using Boolean expressions:

```
>>> a[np.logical_and(a > 5, a < 9)]
>>> array([ 6.])
```

In addition to Boolean selection, it is possible to select using integer arrays. Here, the integer arrays contain the *indices* of the elements to be taken from an array. Consider the following one-dimensional example:

```
>>> a = np.array([2, 4, 6, 8], float)
>>> b = np.array([0, 0, 1, 3, 2, 1], int)
>>> a[b]
array([ 2.,  2.,  4.,  8.,  6.,  4.])
```

In other words, we take the 0th, 0th, 1st, 3rd, 2nd, and 1st elements of *a*, in that order, when we use *b* to select elements from *a*. Lists can also be used as selection arrays:

```
>>> a = np.array([2, 4, 6, 8], float)
>>> a[[0, 0, 1, 3, 2, 1]]
array([ 2.,  2.,  4.,  8.,  6.,  4.])
```

For multidimensional arrays, we have to send multiple one-dimensional integer arrays to the selection bracket, one for each axis. Then, each of these selection arrays is traversed in sequence: the first element taken has a first axis index taken from the first member of the first selection array, a second index from the first member of the second selection array, and so on. An example:

```
>>> a = np.array([[1, 4], [9, 16]], float)
>>> b = np.array([0, 0, 1, 1, 0], int)
>>> c = np.array([0, 1, 1, 1, 1], int)
>>> a[b,c]
array([ 1.,  4., 16., 16.,  4.])
```

A special function `take` is also available to perform selection with integer arrays. This works in an identical manner as bracket selection:

```
>>> a = np.array([2, 4, 6, 8], float)
>>> b = np.array([0, 0, 1, 3, 2, 1], int)
>>> a.take(b)
array([ 2.,  2.,  4.,  8.,  6.,  4.])
```

`take` also provides an `axis` argument, such that subsections of a multi-dimensional array can be taken across a given dimension.

```
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], float)
>>> b = np.array([0, 0, 1], int)
>>> a.take(b, axis=0)
array([[ 0.,  1.],
       [ 0.,  1.],
       [ 2.,  3.]])
>>> a.take(b, axis=1)
array([[ 0.,  0.,  1.],
       [ 2.,  2.,  3.]])
```

The opposite of the `take` function is the `put` function, which will take values from a source array and place them at specified indices in the array calling `put`.

```
>>> a = np.array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5], float)
>>> b = np.array([9, 8, 7], float)
>>> a.put([0, 3], b)
>>> a
array([ 9.,  1.,  2.,  8.,  4.,  5.])
```

Note that the value 7 from the source array `b` is not used, since only two indices `[0, 3]` are specified. The source array will be repeated as necessary if not the same size:

```
>>> a = np.array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5], float)
>>> a.put([0, 3], 5)
>>> a
array([ 5.,  1.,  2.,  5.,  4.,  5.])
```

Vector and matrix mathematics

NumPy provides many functions for performing standard vector and matrix multiplication routines. To perform a dot product,

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3], float)
>>> b = np.array([0, 1, 1], float)
>>> np.dot(a, b)
5.0
```

The `dot` function also generalizes to matrix multiplication:

```
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], float)
>>> b = np.array([2, 3], float)
>>> c = np.array([[1, 1], [4, 0]], float)
>>> a
array([[ 0.,  1.],
       [ 2.,  3.]])
>>> np.dot(b, a)
array([ 6., 11.])
>>> np.dot(a, b)
array([ 3., 13.])
>>> np.dot(a, c)
array([[ 4.,  0.],
       [14.,  2.]])
>>> np.dot(c, a)
array([[ 2.,  4.],
       [ 0.,  4.]])
```

It is also possible to generate inner, outer, and cross products of matrices and vectors. For vectors, note that the inner product is equivalent to the dot product:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 4, 0], float)
>>> b = np.array([2, 2, 1], float)
```



```

>>> np.outer(a, b)
array([[ 2.,  2.,  1.],
       [ 8.,  8.,  4.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  0.]])
>>> np.inner(a, b)
10.0
>>> np.cross(a, b)
array([ 4., -1., -6.])

```

NumPy also comes with a number of built-in routines for linear algebra calculations. These can be found in the sub-module `linalg`. Among these are routines for dealing with matrices and their inverses. The determinant of a matrix can be found:

```

>>> a = np.array([[4, 2, 0], [9, 3, 7], [1, 2, 1]], float)
>>> a
array([[ 4.,  2.,  0.],
       [ 9.,  3.,  7.],
       [ 1.,  2.,  1.]])
>>> np.linalg.det(a)
-53.999999999999993

```

One can find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a matrix:

```

>>> vals, vecs = np.linalg.eig(a)
>>> vals
array([ 9.          ,  2.44948974, -2.44948974])
>>> vecs
array([[ -0.3538921 , -0.56786837,  0.27843404],
       [ -0.88473024,  0.44024287, -0.89787873],
       [ -0.30333608,  0.69549388,  0.34101066]])

```

The inverse of a matrix can be found:

```

>>> b = np.linalg.inv(a)
>>> b
array([[ 0.14814815,  0.07407407, -0.25925926],
       [ 0.2037037 , -0.14814815,  0.51851852],
       [-0.27777778,  0.11111111,  0.11111111]])
>>> np.dot(a, b)
array([[ 1.00000000e+00,  5.55111512e-17,  2.22044605e-16],
       [ 0.00000000e+00,  1.00000000e+00,  5.55111512e-16],
       [ 1.11022302e-16,  0.00000000e+00,  1.00000000e+00]])

```

Singular value decomposition (analogous to diagonalization of a nonsquare matrix) can also be performed:

```

>>> a = np.array([[1, 3, 4], [5, 2, 3]], float)
>>> U, s, Vh = np.linalg.svd(a)
>>> U
array([[ -0.6113829 , -0.79133492],
       [ -0.79133492,  0.6113829 ]])
>>> s
array([ 7.46791327,  2.86884495])

```

```
>>> vh
array([[ -0.61169129,  -0.45753324,  -0.64536587],
       [  0.78971838,  -0.40129005,  -0.46401635],
       [ -0.046676   , -0.79349205,   0.60678804]])
```

Polynomial mathematics

NumPy supplies methods for working with polynomials. Given a set of roots, it is possible to show the polynomial coefficients:

```
>>> np.poly([-1, 1, 1, 10])
array([  1, -11,   9,  11, -10])
```

Here, the return array gives the coefficients corresponding to $x^4 - 11x^3 + 9x^2 + 11x - 10$.

The opposite operation can be performed: given a set of coefficients, the root function returns all of the polynomial roots:

```
>>> np.roots([1, 4, -2, 3])
array([-4.57974010+0.j          ,  0.28987005+0.75566815j,
        0.28987005-0.75566815j])
```

Notice here that two of the roots of $x^3 + 4x^2 - 2x + 3$ are imaginary.

Coefficient arrays of polynomials can be integrated. Consider integrating $x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$ to $x^4/4 + x^3/3 + x^2/2 + x + C$. By default, the constant C is set to zero:

```
>>> np.polyint([1, 1, 1, 1])
array([ 0.25      ,  0.33333333,  0.5      ,  1.      ,  0.      ])
```

Similarly, derivatives can be taken:

```
>>> np.polyder([1./4., 1./3., 1./2., 1., 0.])
array([ 1.,  1.,  1.,  1.])
```

The functions `polyadd`, `polysub`, `polymul`, and `polydiv` also handle proper addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of polynomial coefficients, respectively.

The function `polyval` evaluates a polynomial at a particular point. Consider $x^3 - 2x^2 + 2$ evaluated at $x = 4$:

```
>>> np.polyval([1, -2, 0, 2], 4)
34
```

Finally, the `polyfit` function can be used to fit a polynomial of specified order to a set of data using a least-squares approach:

```
>>> x = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8]
>>> y = [0, 2, 1, 3, 7, 10, 11, 19]
```

```
>>> np.polyfit(x, y, 2)
array([ 0.375      , -0.88690476,  1.05357143])
```

The return value is a set of polynomial coefficients. More sophisticated regression and interpolation routines can be found in the SciPy package.

Statistics

In addition to the `mean`, `var`, and `std` functions, NumPy supplies several other methods for returning statistical features of arrays.

The median is given by:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 4, 3, 8, 9, 2, 3], float)
>>> np.median(a)
3.0
```

The correlation coefficient for multiple variables observed at multiple instances can be found for arrays of the form `[[x1, x2, ...], [y1, y2, ...], [z1, z2, ...], ...]` where `x`, `y`, `z` are different observables and the numbers indicate the observation times:

```
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 1, 3], [5, 3, 1, 8]], float)
>>> c = np.corrcoef(a)
>>> c
array([[ 1.          ,  0.72870505],
       [ 0.72870505,  1.          ]])
```

Here the return array `c[i, j]` gives the correlation coefficient for the `i`th and `j`th observables. Similarly, the covariance for data can be found:

```
>>> np.cov(a)
array([[ 0.91666667,  2.08333333],
       [ 2.08333333,  8.91666667]])
```

Random numbers

An important part of any simulation is the ability to draw random numbers. For this purpose, we use NumPy's built-in pseudorandom number generator routines in the sub-module `random`. The numbers are *pseudo* random in the sense that they are generated deterministically from a *seed* number, but are distributed in what has statistical similarities to random fashion. NumPy uses a particular algorithm called the Mersenne Twister to generate pseudorandom numbers.

The random number seed can be set:

```
>>> np.random.seed(293423)
```

The seed is an integer value. Any program that starts with the same seed will generate exactly the same sequence of random numbers each time it is run. This can be useful for debugging purposes, but one does not need to specify the seed and in fact, when we perform multiple runs of the same simulation to be averaged together, we want each such trial to have a different sequence of random numbers. If this command is not run, NumPy automatically selects a random seed (based on the time) that is different every time a program is run.

We can generate an array of random numbers in the half-open interval [0.0, 1.0):

```
>>> np.random.rand(5)
array([ 0.40783762,  0.7550402 ,  0.00919317,  0.01713451,  0.95299583])
```

We can use the `rand` function to generate two-dimensional random arrays, or use the `resize` function:

```
>>> np.random.rand(2,3)
array([[ 0.50431753,  0.48272463,  0.45811345],
       [ 0.18209476,  0.48631022,  0.49590404]])
>>> np.random.rand(6).reshape((2,3))
array([[ 0.72915152,  0.59423848,  0.25644881],
       [ 0.75965311,  0.52151819,  0.60084796]])
```

To generate a single random number in [0.0, 1.0),

```
>>> np.random.random()
0.70110427435769551
```

To generate random integers in the range [min, max) use `randint(min, max)`:

```
>>> np.random.randint(5, 10)
9
```

In each of these examples, we drew random numbers from a uniform distribution. NumPy also includes generators for many other distributions, including the Beta, binomial, chi-square, Dirichlet, exponential, F, Gamma, geometric, Gumbel, hypergeometric, Laplace, logistic, log-normal, logarithmic, multinomial, multivariate, negative binomial, noncentral chi-square, noncentral F, normal, Pareto, Poisson, power, Rayleigh, Cauchy, student's t, triangular, von Mises, Wald, Weibull, and Zipf distributions. Here we only give examples for two of these.

To draw from the discrete Poisson distribution with $\lambda = 6.0$,

```
>>> np.random.poisson(6.0)
5
```

To draw from a continuous normal (Gaussian) distribution with mean $\mu = 1.5$ and standard deviation $\sigma = 4.0$:

```
>>> np.random.normal(1.5, 4.0)
0.83636555041094318
```

To draw from a standard normal distribution ($\mu = 0, \sigma = 1$), omit the arguments:

```
>>> np.random.normal()
0.27548716940682932
```

To draw multiple values, use the optional `size` argument:

```
>>> np.random.normal(size=5)
array([-1.67215088,  0.65813053, -0.70150614,  0.91452499,  0.71440557])
```

The random module can also be used to randomly shuffle the order of items in a list. This is sometimes useful if we want to sort a list in random order:

```
>>> l = range(10)
>>> l
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
>>> np.random.shuffle(l)
>>> l
[4, 9, 5, 0, 2, 7, 6, 8, 1, 3]
```

Notice that the shuffle function modifies the list *in place*, meaning it does not return a new list but rather modifies the original list itself.

Other functions to know about

NumPy contains many other built-in functions that we have not covered here. In particular, there are routines for discrete Fourier transforms, more complex linear algebra operations, size / shape / type testing of arrays, splitting and joining arrays, histograms, creating arrays of numbers spaced in various ways, creating and evaluating functions on grid arrays, treating arrays with special (NaN, Inf) values, set operations, creating various kinds of special matrices, and evaluating special mathematical functions (e.g., Bessel functions). You are encouraged to consult the NumPy documentation at <https://docs.scipy.org/doc/> for more details.

Modules available in SciPy

SciPy greatly extends the functionality of the NumPy routines. We will not cover this module in detail but rather mention some of its capabilities. Many SciPy routines can be accessed by simply importing the module:

```
>>> import scipy
```

The help function provides useful information on the packages that SciPy offers:

```
>>> help(scipy)
```

Help on package scipy:

NAME

scipy

DESCRIPTION

SciPy: A scientific computing package for Python

Documentation is available in the docstrings and online at <https://docs.scipy.org>.

Contents

SciPy imports all the functions from the NumPy namespace, and in addition provides:

Subpackages

Using any of these subpackages requires an explicit import. For example, `import scipy.cluster`.`

::

cluster	--- Vector Quantization / Kmeans
fft	--- Discrete Fourier transforms
fftpack	--- Legacy discrete Fourier transforms
integrate	--- Integration routines
interpolate	--- Interpolation Tools
io	--- Data input and output
linalg	--- Linear algebra routines
linalg.blas	--- Wrappers to BLAS library
linalg.lapack	--- Wrappers to LAPACK library
misc	--- Various utilities that don't have another home.
ndimage	--- N-D image package
odr	--- Orthogonal Distance Regression
optimize	--- Optimization Tools
signal	--- Signal Processing Tools
signal.windows	--- Window functions
sparse	--- Sparse Matrices
sparse.linalg	--- Sparse Linear Algebra
sparse.linalg.dsolve	--- Linear Solvers
sparse.linalg.dsolve.umfpack	--- :Interface to the UMFPACK library: Conjugate Gradient Method (LOBPCG)
sparse.linalg.eigen	--- Sparse Eigenvalue Solvers
sparse.linalg.eigen.lobpcg	--- Locally Optimal Block Preconditioned Conjugate Gradient Method (LOBPCG)
spatial	--- Spatial data structures and algorithms
special	--- Special functions
stats	--- Statistical Functions

Utility tools

::

test --- Run scipy unittests

```
show_config      --- Show scipy build configuration
show_numpy_config --- Show numpy build configuration
__version__      --- SciPy version string
__numpy_version__ --- Numpy version string
```

PACKAGE CONTENTS

```
__config__
__build_utils__ (package)
__distributor_init__
__lib__ (package)
cluster (package)
conftest
constants (package)
fft (package)
fftpack (package)
integrate (package)
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linalg (package)
misc (package)
ndimage (package)
odr (package)
optimize (package)
setup
signal (package)
sparse (package)
spatial (package)
special (package)
stats (package)
version
```

Notice that a number of sub-modules in SciPy require explicit import, as indicated in the help text above:

```
>>> import scipy
>>> import scipy.interpolate
```

The functions in each module are well-documented in both the internal docstrings and at the SciPy documentation website. Many of these functions provide instant access to common numerical algorithms, and are very easy to implement. Thus, SciPy can save tremendous amounts of time in scientific computing applications since it offers a library of pre-written, pre-tested routines.

A large community of developers continually builds new functionality into SciPy. A good rule of thumb is: if you are thinking about implementing a numerical routine into your code, check the SciPy documentation website first. Chances are, if it's a common task, someone will have added it to SciPy.