NumPy Reference

Release 1.21.0

Written by the NumPy community

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This reference manual details functions, modules, and objects included in NumPy, describing what they are and what they do. For learning how to use NumPy, see the complete documentation.
NumPy provides an N-dimensional array type, the *ndarray*, which describes a collection of “items” of the same type. The items can be *indexed* using for example N integers.

All ndarrays are homogeneous: every item takes up the same size block of memory, and all blocks are interpreted in exactly the same way. How each item in the array is to be interpreted is specified by a separate *data-type object*, one of which is associated with every array. In addition to basic types (integers, floats, *etc*.), the data type objects can also represent data structures.

An item extracted from an array, *e.g.* by indexing, is represented by a Python object whose type is one of the *array scalar types* built in NumPy. The array scalars allow easy manipulation of also more complicated arrangements of data.

---

**Fig. 1: Figure** Conceptual diagram showing the relationship between the three fundamental objects used to describe the data in an array: 1) the *ndarray* itself, 2) the data-type object that describes the layout of a single fixed-size element of the array, 3) the array-scalar Python object that is returned when a single element of the array is accessed.

1.1 The N-dimensional array (*ndarray*)

An *ndarray* is a (usually fixed-size) multidimensional container of items of the same type and size. The number of dimensions and items in an array is defined by its *shape*, which is a *tuple* of *N* non-negative integers that specify the sizes of each dimension. The type of items in the array is specified by a separate *data-type object* (*dtype*), one of which is associated with each *ndarray*.

As with other container objects in Python, the contents of an *ndarray* can be accessed and modified by *indexing* or *slicing* the array (using, for example, *N* integers), and via the methods and attributes of the *ndarray*.
Different ndarrays can share the same data, so that changes made in one ndarray may be visible in another. That is, an ndarray can be a “view” to another ndarray, and the data it is referring to is taken care of by the “base” ndarray. ndarrays can also be views to memory owned by Python strings or objects implementing the buffer or array interfaces.

Example

A 2-dimensional array of size 2 x 3, composed of 4-byte integer elements:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], np.int32)
>>> type(x)
<class 'numpy.ndarray'>
>>> x.shape
(2, 3)
>>> x.dtype
dtype('int32')
```

The array can be indexed using Python container-like syntax:

```python
>>> # The element of x in the *second* row, *third* column, namely, 6.
>>> x[1, 2]
6
```

For example slicing can produce views of the array:

```python
>>> y = x[:, 1]
>>> y
array([2, 5])
>>> y[0] = 9 # this also changes the corresponding element in x
>>> y
array([9, 5])
>>> x
array([[1, 9, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
```

1.1.1 Constructing arrays

New arrays can be constructed using the routines detailed in Array creation routines, and also by using the low-level ndarray constructor:

```
ndarray(shape[, dtype, buffer, offset, ...])  
```

An array object represents a multidimensional, homogeneous array of fixed-size items.

```
class numpy.ndarray (shape, dtype=float, buffer=None, offset=0, strides=None, order=None)  
```

An array object represents a multidimensional, homogeneous array of fixed-size items. An associated data-type object describes the format of each element in the array (its byte-order, how many bytes it occupies in memory, whether it is an integer, a floating point number, or something else, etc.)

Arrays should be constructed using array, zeros or empty (refer to the See Also section below). The parameters given here refer to a low-level method (ndarray(...)) for instantiating an array.

For more information, refer to the numpy module and examine the methods and attributes of an array.

Parameters

(for the __new__ method; see Notes below)
shape
  [tuple of ints] Shape of created array.
dtype
  [data-type, optional] Any object that can be interpreted as a numpy data type.
buffer
  [object exposing buffer interface, optional] Used to fill the array with data.
offset
  [int, optional] Offset of array data in buffer.
strides
  [tuple of ints, optional] Strides of data in memory.
order
  [{‘C’, ‘F’}, optional] Row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order.

See also:

array
  Construct an array.
zeros
  Create an array, each element of which is zero.
empty
  Create an array, but leave its allocated memory unchanged (i.e., it contains “garbage”).
dtype
  Create a data-type.
numpy.typing.NDArray
  A generic version of ndarray.

Notes

There are two modes of creating an array using __new__:

1. If buffer is None, then only shape, dtype, and order are used.
2. If buffer is an object exposing the buffer interface, then all keywords are interpreted.

No __init__ method is needed because the array is fully initialized after the __new__ method.
Examples
These examples illustrate the low-level \textit{ndarray} constructor. Refer to the \textit{See Also} section above for easier ways of constructing an \textit{ndarray}.

First mode, \textit{buffer} is None:

\begin{verbatim}
>>> np.ndarray(shape=(2,2), dtype=float, order='F')
array([[0.0e+000, 0.0e+000],  # random
       [ nan, 2.5e-323]])
\end{verbatim}

Second mode:

\begin{verbatim}
>>> np.ndarray((2,), buffer=np.array([1,2,3]),
... offset=np.int_(0).itemsize,
... dtype=int)  # offset = 1*itemsize, i.e. skip first element
array([2, 3])
\end{verbatim}

Attributes

\textit{T}
[ndarray] The transposed array.

\textit{data}
[buffer] Python buffer object pointing to the start of the array's data.

\textit{dtype}
[dttype object] Data-type of the array's elements.

\textit{flags}
[dict] Information about the memory layout of the array.

\textit{flat}

\textit{imag}
[ndarray] The imaginary part of the array.

\textit{real}
[ndarray] The real part of the array.

\textit{size}
[int] Number of elements in the array.

\textit{itemsize}
[int] Length of one array element in bytes.

\textit{nbytes}
[int] Total bytes consumed by the elements of the array.

\textit{ndim}
[int] Number of array dimensions.
**shape**

[tuple of ints] Tuple of array dimensions.

**strides**

[tuple of ints] Tuple of bytes to step in each dimension when traversing an array.

**ctypes**

[ctypes object] An object to simplify the interaction of the array with the ctypes module.

**base**

[ndarray] Base object if memory is from some other object.

### Methods

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<td>Return the product of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Construct Python bytes containing the raw data bytes in the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tofile</code></td>
<td>Write array to a file as text or binary (default).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tolist</code></td>
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<tr>
<td><code> tostring</code></td>
<td>A compatibility alias for <code>tobytes</code>, with exactly the same behavior.</td>
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<td><code>trace</code></td>
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</tr>
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<td><code>transpose</code></td>
<td>Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>var</code></td>
<td>Returns the variance of the array elements, along given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>view</code></td>
<td>New view of array with the same data.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
method

```
ndarray.all(axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False, *, where=True)
```

Returns True if all elements evaluate to True.

Refer to `numpy.all` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.all
```

equivalent function

method

```
ndarray.any(axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False, *, where=True)
```

Returns True if any of the elements of a evaluate to True.

Refer to `numpy.any` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.any
```

equivalent function

method

```
ndarray.argmax(axis=None, out=None)
```

Return indices of the maximum values along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.argmax` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.argmax
```

equivalent function

method

```
ndarray.argmin(axis=None, out=None)
```

Return indices of the minimum values along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.argmin` for detailed documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.argmin
```

equivalent function

method

```
ndarray.argpartition(kth, axis=-1, kind='introselect', order=None)
```

Returns the indices that would partition this array.

Refer to `numpy.argpartition` for full documentation.

New in version 1.8.0.

See also:
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

```python
numpy.argpartition
equivalent function

method
ndarray.argpartition(axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)
Returns the indices that would sort this array.
Refer to numpy.argsort for full documentation.
See also:

numpy.argsort
equivalent function

method
ndarray.astype(dtype='K', casting='unsafe', subok=True, copy=True)
Copy of the array, cast to a specified type.

Parameters

dtype
[str or dtype] Typecode or data-type to which the array is cast.

order
[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the memory layout order of the result. ‘C’ means C order, ‘F’ means Fortran order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ order if all the arrays are Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ order otherwise, and ‘K’ means as close to the order the array elements appear in memory as possible. Default is ‘K’.

casting
[{'no', 'equiv', 'safe', 'same_kind', 'unsafe'}, optional] Controls what kind of data casting may occur. Defaults to ‘unsafe’ for backwards compatibility.

• ‘no’ means the data types should not be cast at all.
• ‘equiv’ means only byte-order changes are allowed.
• ‘safe’ means only casts which can preserve values are allowed.
• ‘same_kind’ means only safe casts or casts within a kind, like float64 to float32, are allowed.
• ‘unsafe’ means any data conversions may be done.

subok
[bool, optional] If True, then sub-classes will be passed-through (default), otherwise the returned array will be forced to be a base-class array.

copy
[bool, optional] By default, astype always returns a newly allocated array. If this is set to false, and the dtype, order, and subok requirements are satisfied, the input array is returned instead of a copy.

Returns
```
**arr\_t**

[ndarray] Unless `copy` is False and the other conditions for returning the input array are satisfied (see description for `copy` input parameter), `arr\_t` is a new array of the same shape as the input array, with dtype, order given by `dtype`, `order`.

**Raises**

**ComplexWarning**

When casting from complex to float or int. To avoid this, one should use `a.real.astype(t)`.

**Notes**

Changed in version 1.17.0: Casting between a simple data type and a structured one is possible only for “unsafe” casting. Casting to multiple fields is allowed, but casting from multiple fields is not.

Changed in version 1.9.0: Casting from numeric to string types in ‘safe’ casting mode requires that the string dtype length is long enough to store the max integer/float value converted.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 2.5])
>>> x
array([1. , 2. , 2.5])

>>> x.astype(int)
array([1, 2, 2])
```

method

**ndarray**.\texttt{byteswap}(\texttt{inplace=False})

Swap the bytes of the array elements

Toggle between low-endian and big-endian data representation by returning a byteswapped array, optionally swapped in-place. Arrays of byte-strings are not swapped. The real and imaginary parts of a complex number are swapped individually.

**Parameters**

\texttt{inplace}

[bool, optional] If \texttt{True}, swap bytes in-place, default is \texttt{False}.

**Returns**

\texttt{out}

[ndarray] The byteswapped array. If \texttt{inplace} is True, this is a view to self.
Examples

```python
>>> A = np.array([1, 256, 8755], dtype=np.int16)
>>> list(map(hex, A))
['0x1', '0x100', '0x2233']
>>> A.byteswap(inplace=True)
array([ 256,    1, 13090], dtype=int16)
>>> list(map(hex, A))
['0x100', '0x1', '0x3322']

Arrays of byte-strings are not swapped

```python
>>> A = np.array(['ceg', 'fac'])
>>> A.byteswap()
array(['ceg', 'fac'], dtype='|S3')
A.byteswap() produces an array with the same values but different representation in memory

```python
>>> A = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> A.view(np.uint8)
array([1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0], dtype=uint8)
>>> A.newbyteorder().byteswap(inplace=True)
array([1, 2, 3])
>>> A.view(np.uint8)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 3], dtype=uint8)
```

method

ndarray.choose(choices, out=None, mode='raise')
Use an index array to construct a new array from a set of choices.

Refer to numpy.choose for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.choose
equivalent function

method

ndarray.clip(min=None, max=None, out=None, **kwargs)
Return an array whose values are limited to [min, max]. One of max or min must be given.

Refer to numpy.clip for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.clip
equivalent function

method
**ndarray.compress** *(condition, axis=None, out=None)*

Return selected slices of this array along given axis.

Refer to `numpy.compress` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.compress
```
equivalent function

**ndarray.conj()**

Complex-conjugate all elements.

Refer to `numpy.conjugate` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.conjugate
```
equivalent function

**ndarray.conjugate()**

Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.

Refer to `numpy.conjugate` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.conjugate
```
equivalent function

**ndarray.copy**(order='C')

Return a copy of the array.

**Parameters**

**order**

[['C', 'F', 'A', 'K'], optional] Controls the memory layout of the copy. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ if a is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means match the layout of a as closely as possible. (Note that this function and `numpy.copy` are very similar but have different default values for their order= arguments, and this function always passes sub-classes through.)

See also:

```
numpy.copy
```

Similar function with different default behavior

```
numpy.copyto
```
Notes

This function is the preferred method for creating an array copy. The function `numpy.copy` is similar, but it defaults to using order ‘K’, and will not pass sub-classes through by default.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], order='F')
>>> y = x.copy()
>>> x.fill(0)
>>> x
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])
>>> y
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
>>> y.flags['C_CONTIGUOUS']
True
```

method

`ndarray.cumprod` *(axis=*, `dtype=*, `out=*)

Return the cumulative product of the elements along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.cumprod` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.cumprod`

equivalent function

method

`ndarray.cumsum` *(axis=*, `dtype=*, `out=*)

Return the cumulative sum of the elements along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.cumsum` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.cumsum`

equivalent function

method

`ndarray.diagonal` *(offset=*, axis1=*, axis2=*)

Return specified diagonals. In NumPy 1.9 the returned array is a read-only view instead of a copy as in previous NumPy versions. In a future version the read-only restriction will be removed.

Refer to `numpy.diagonal` for full documentation.
See also:

```
np.diag
```
equivalent function

method
```
ndarray.dot (b, out=None)
```
Dot product of two arrays.
Refer to `np.dot` for full documentation.

See also:
```
np.dot
```
equivalent function

Examples
```
>>> a = np.eye(2)
>>> b = np.ones((2, 2)) * 2
>>> a.dot(b)
array([[2., 2.],
       [2., 2.]])
```

This array method can be conveniently chained:
```
>>> a.dot(b).dot(b)
array([[8., 8.],
       [8., 8.]])
```

method
```
ndarray.dump (file)
```
Dump a pickle of the array to the specified file. The array can be read back with pickle.load or numpy.load.

Parameters
```
file
[<class 'str'> or <class 'pathlib.Path'>] A string naming the dump file.
```

Changed in version 1.17.0: `pathlib.Path` objects are now accepted.

method
```
ndarray.dumps ()
```
Returns the pickle of the array as a string. `pickle.loads` or `numpy.loads` will convert the string back to an array.

Parameters
```
None
```

method
```
ndarray.fill (value)
```
Fill the array with a scalar value.
Parameters

value

[scalar] All elements of \( a \) will be assigned this value.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2])
>>> a.fill(0)
>>> a
array([0, 0])

>>> a = np.empty(2)
>>> a.fill(1)
>>> a
array([1., 1.])
```

method

`ndarray.flatten(order='C')`

Return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension.

Parameters

order

[‘C’, ‘F’, ‘A’, ‘K’], optional) ‘C’ means to flatten in row-major (C-style) order. ‘F’ means to flatten in column-major (Fortran-style) order. ‘A’ means to flatten in column-major order if \( a \) is Fortran contiguous in memory, row-major order otherwise. ‘K’ means to flatten \( a \) in the order the elements occur in memory. The default is ‘C’.

Returns

y

[ndarray] A copy of the input array, flattened to one dimension.

See also:

`ravel`

Return a flattened array.

`flat`

A 1-D flat iterator over the array.
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> a.flatten()
array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> a.flatten('F')
array([1, 3, 2, 4])
```

method

```python
ndarray.getfield(dtype, offset=0)
```

Returns a field of the given array as a certain type.

A field is a view of the array data with a given data-type. The values in the view are determined by the given type and the offset into the current array in bytes. The offset needs to be such that the view dtype fits in the array dtype; for example an array of dtype complex128 has 16-byte elements. If taking a view with a 32-bit integer (4 bytes), the offset needs to be between 0 and 12 bytes.

**Parameters**

- **dtype**
  - [str or dtype] The data type of the view. The dtype size of the view can not be larger than that of the array itself.

- **offset**
  - [int] Number of bytes to skip before beginning the element view.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.diag([1.+1.j]*2)
>>> x[1, 1] = 2 + 4.j
>>> x
array([[1.+1.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+0.j, 2.+4.j]])
>>> x.getfield(np.float64)
array([[1., 0.],
       [0., 2.]])
```

By choosing an offset of 8 bytes we can select the complex part of the array for our view:

```python
>>> x.getfield(np.float64, offset=8)
array([[1., 0.],
       [0., 4.]])
```

method

```python
ndarray.item(*args)
```

Copy an element of an array to a standard Python scalar and return it.

**Parameters**

- **args**
  - [Arguments (variable number and type)]
    - none: in this case, the method only works for arrays with one element \(a.size == 1\), which element is copied into a standard Python scalar object and returned.
• int_type: this argument is interpreted as a flat index into the array, specifying which element to copy and return.
• tuple of int_types: functions as does a single int_type argument, except that the argument is interpreted as an nd-index into the array.

Returns

z

[Standard Python scalar object] A copy of the specified element of the array as a suitable Python scalar

Notes

When the data type of $a$ is longdouble or clongdouble, item() returns a scalar array object because there is no available Python scalar that would not lose information. Void arrays return a buffer object for item(), unless fields are defined, in which case a tuple is returned.

`item` is very similar to `a[args]`, except, instead of an array scalar, a standard Python scalar is returned. This can be useful for speeding up access to elements of the array and doing arithmetic on elements of the array using Python's optimized math.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> x = np.random.randint(9, size=(3, 3))
>>> x
array([[2, 2, 6],
       [1, 3, 6],
       [1, 0, 1]])
>>> x.item(3)
1
>>> x.item(7)
0
>>> x.item((0, 1))
2
>>> x.item((2, 2))
1
```

method

`ndarray.itemset(*args)`

Insert scalar into an array (scalar is cast to array's dtype, if possible)

There must be at least 1 argument, and define the last argument as `item`. Then, `a.itemset(*args)` is equivalent to but faster than `a[args] = item`. The item should be a scalar value and `args` must select a single item in the array $a$.

Parameters

*args

[Arguments] If one argument: a scalar, only used in case $a$ is of size 1. If two arguments: the last argument is the value to be set and must be a scalar, the first argument specifies a single array element location. It is either an int or a tuple.
Notes

Compared to indexing syntax, *itemset* provides some speed increase for placing a scalar into a particular location in an *ndarray*, if you must do this. However, generally this is discouraged: among other problems, it complicates the appearance of the code. Also, when using *itemset* (and *item*) inside a loop, be sure to assign the methods to a local variable to avoid the attribute look-up at each loop iteration.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> x = np.random.randint(9, size=(3, 3))
>>> x
array([[2, 2, 6],
       [1, 3, 6],
       [1, 0, 1]])
>>> x.itemset(4, 0)
>>> x.itemset((2, 2), 9)
>>> x
array([[2, 2, 6],
       [1, 0, 6],
       [1, 0, 9]])
```

method

*ndarray.max*  
(axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False, initial=<no value>, where=True)

Return the maximum along a given axis.

Refer to *numpy.amax* for full documentation.

See also:

* numpy.amax  
equivalent function

method

*ndarray.mean*  
(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=False, *, where=True)

Returns the average of the array elements along given axis.

Refer to *numpy.mean* for full documentation.

See also:

* numpy.mean  
equivalent function

method

*ndarray.min*  
(axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False, initial=<no value>, where=True)

Return the minimum along a given axis.

Refer to *numpy.amin* for full documentation.

See also:

* numpy.amin  
equivalent function
method

```
ndarray.newbyteorder(new_order='S';/
```

Return the array with the same data viewed with a different byte order.

Equivalent to:

```
arr.view(arr.dtype.newbyteorder(new_order))
```

Changes are also made in all fields and sub-arrays of the array data type.

**Parameters**

**new_order**

[string, optional] Byte order to force; a value from the byte order specifications below. 

new_order codes can be any of:

- ‘S’ - swap dtype from current to opposite endian
- ‘<’, ‘little’ - little endian
- ‘>’, ‘big’ - big endian
- ‘=’ - native order, equivalent to `sys.byteorder`
- ‘|’, ‘I’ - ignore (no change to byte order)

The default value (‘S’) results in swapping the current byte order.

**Returns**

**new_arr**

[array] New array object with the dtype reflecting given change to the byte order.

method

```
ndarray.nonzero()
```

Return the indices of the elements that are non-zero.

Refer to `numpy.nonzero` for full documentation.

**See also:**

```
numpy.nonzero
```

equivalent function

method

```
ndarray.partition(kth, axis=-1, kind='introselect', order=None)
```

Rearranges the elements in the array in such a way that the value of the element in kth position is in the position it would be in a sorted array. All elements smaller than the kth element are moved before this element and all equal or greater are moved behind it. The ordering of the elements in the two partitions is undefined.

New in version 1.8.0.

**Parameters**

**kth**

[int or sequence of ints] Element index to partition by. The kth element value will be in its final sorted position and all smaller elements will be moved before it and all equal or greater
elements behind it. The order of all elements in the partitions is undefined. If provided with a sequence of kth it will partition all elements indexed by kth of them into their sorted position at once.

**axis**

[int, optional] Axis along which to sort. Default is -1, which means sort along the last axis.

**kind**


**order**

[str or list of str, optional] When a is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not all fields need to be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

See also:

**numpy.partition**

Return a partitioned copy of an array.

**argpartition**

Indirect partition.

**sort**

Full sort.

Notes

See np.partition for notes on the different algorithms.

Examples

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

```python
>>> a.partition((1, 3))
array([1, 2, 3, 4])
```

method

**ndarray.prod**(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=False, initial=1, where=True)

Return the product of the array elements over the given axis

Refer to numpy.prod for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.prod**

equivalent function
method

```
ndarray.ptp (axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False)
```

Peak to peak (maximum - minimum) value along a given axis.

Refer to `numpy.ptp` for full documentation.

**See also:**

```
numpy.ptp
```

equivalent function

method

```
ndarray.put (indices, values, mode='raise')
```

Set `a.flat[n] = values[n]` for all `n` in indices.

Refer to `numpy.put` for full documentation.

**See also:**

```
numpy.put
```

equivalent function

method

```
ndarray.ravel ([order])
```

Return a flattened array.

Refer to `numpy.ravel` for full documentation.

**See also:**

```
numpy.ravel
```

equivalent function

```
ndarray.flat
```

a flat iterator on the array.

method

```
ndarray.repeat (repeats, axis=None)
```

Repeat elements of an array.

Refer to `numpy.repeat` for full documentation.

**See also:**

```
numpy.repeat
```

equivalent function

method

```
ndarray.reshape (shape, order='C')
```

Returns an array containing the same data with a new shape.

Refer to `numpy.reshape` for full documentation.

**See also:**
**numpy.reshape**

equivalent function

**Notes**

Unlike the free function `numpy.reshape`, this method on `ndarray` allows the elements of the shape parameter to be passed in as separate arguments. For example, `a.reshape(10, 11)` is equivalent to `a.reshape((10, 11))`.

**method**

`ndarray.resize(new_shape, refcheck=True)`

Change shape and size of array in-place.

**Parameters**

- `new_shape`  
  [tuple of ints, or n ints] Shape of resized array.

- `refcheck`  
  [bool, optional] If False, reference count will not be checked. Default is True.

**Returns**

None

**Raises**

- `ValueError`
  If `a` does not own its own data or references or views to it exist, and the data memory must be changed. PyPy only: will always raise if the data memory must be changed, since there is no reliable way to determine if references or views to it exist.

- `SystemError`
  If the `order` keyword argument is specified. This behaviour is a bug in NumPy.

**See also:**

`resize`

Return a new array with the specified shape.

**Notes**

This reallocates space for the data area if necessary.

Only contiguous arrays (data elements consecutive in memory) can be resized.

The purpose of the reference count check is to make sure you do not use this array as a buffer for another Python object and then reallocate the memory. However, reference counts can increase in other ways so if you are sure that you have not shared the memory for this array with another Python object, then you may safely set `refcheck` to False.
Examples

Shrinking an array: array is flattened (in the order that the data are stored in memory), resized, and reshaped:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], order='C')
>>> a.resize((2, 1))
array([[0],
       [1]])

>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], order='F')
>>> a.resize((2, 1))
array([[0],
       [2]])
```

Enlarging an array: as above, but missing entries are filled with zeros:

```python
>>> b = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]])
>>> b.resize(2, 3)  # new_shape parameter doesn't have to be a tuple
>>> b
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 0, 0]])
```

Referencing an array prevents resizing...

```python
>>> c = a
>>> a.resize((1, 1))
Traceback (most recent call last):
...  ValueError: cannot resize an array that references or is referenced ...
```

Unless `refcheck` is False:

```python
>>> a.resize((1, 1), refcheck=False)
>>> a
array([[0]])
>>> c
array([[0]])
```

method

`ndarray.round(decimals=0, out=None)`

Return a with each element rounded to the given number of decimals.

Refer to `numpy.around` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.around`

   equivalent function

method

`ndarray.searchsorted(v, side='left', sorter=None)`

Find indices where elements of v should be inserted in a to maintain order.

For full documentation, see `numpy.searchsorted`
See also:

```
numpy.searchsorted
```

equivalent function

**ndarray.setfield**(val, dtype, offset=0)

Put a value into a specified place in a field defined by a data-type.

Place val into a’s field defined by dtype and beginning offset bytes into the field.

**Parameters**

val

[object] Value to be placed in field.

dtype

[dtype object] Data-type of the field in which to place val.

offset

[int, optional] The number of bytes into the field at which to place val.

**Returns**

None

See also:

```
getfield
```

**Examples**

```
>>> x = np.eye(3)
>>> x.getfield(np.float64)
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
>>> x.setfield(3, np.int32)
>>> x.getfield(np.int32)
array([[3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3]], dtype=int32)
>>> x
array([[1.0e+000, 1.5e-323, 1.5e-323],
       [1.5e-323, 1.0e+000, 1.5e-323],
       [1.5e-323, 1.5e-323, 1.0e+000]])
>>> x.setfield(np.eye(3), np.int32)
>>> x
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
```

1.1. The N-dimensional array (**ndarray**)
**ndarray.setflags**(write=None, align=None, uic=None)

Set array flags WRITEABLE, ALIGNED, (WRITEBACKIFCOPY and UPDATEIFCOPY), respectively.

These Boolean-valued flags affect how numpy interprets the memory area used by a (see Notes below). The ALIGNED flag can only be set to True if the data is actually aligned according to the type. The WRITEBACKIFCOPY and (deprecated) UPDATEIFCOPY flags can never be set to True. The flag WRITEABLE can only be set to True if the array owns its own memory, or the ultimate owner of the memory exposes a writable buffer interface, or is a string. (The exception for string is made so that unpickling can be done without copying memory.)

**Parameters**

write

[bool, optional] Describes whether or not a can be written to.

align

[bool, optional] Describes whether or not a is aligned properly for its type.

uic

[bool, optional] Describes whether or not a is a copy of another “base” array.

**Notes**

Array flags provide information about how the memory area used for the array is to be interpreted. There are 7 Boolean flags in use, only four of which can be changed by the user: WRITEBACKIFCOPY, UPDATEIFCOPY, WRITEABLE, and ALIGNED.

WRITEABLE (W) the data area can be written to;

ALIGNED (A) the data and strides are aligned appropriately for the hardware (as determined by the compiler);

UPDATEIFCOPY (U) (deprecated), replaced by WRITEBACKIFCOPY;

WRITEBACKIFCOPY (X) this array is a copy of some other array (referenced by .base). When the C-API function PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy is called, the base array will be updated with the contents of this array.

All flags can be accessed using the single (upper case) letter as well as the full name.

**Examples**

```python
>>> y = np.array([[3, 1, 7],
...                [2, 0, 0],
...                [8, 5, 9]])

>>> y
array([[3, 1, 7],
       [2, 0, 0],
       [8, 5, 9]])

>>> y.flags
C_CONTIGUOUS : True
F_CONTIGUOUS : False
OWNDATA : True
WRITEABLE : True
ALIGNED : True
WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
```

(continues on next page)
UPDATEIFCOPY : False
>>> y.setflags(write=0, align=0)
>>> y.flags
  C_CONTIGUOUS : True
  F_CONTIGUOUS : False
  OWNDATA : True
  WRITEABLE : False
  ALIGNED : False
  WRITERBACKIFCOPY : False
  UPDATEIFCOPY : False
>>> y.setflags(uic=1)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: cannot set WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag to True

method

```
ndarray.sort (axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)
```

Sort an array in-place. Refer to `numpy.sort` for full documentation.

**Parameters**

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which to sort. Default is -1, which means sort along the last axis.

kind

[{'quicksort', 'mergesort', 'heapsort', 'stable'}, optional] Sorting algorithm. The default is 'quicksort'. Note that both 'stable' and 'mergesort' use timsort under the covers and, in general, the actual implementation will vary with datatype. The 'mergesort' option is retained for backwards compatibility.

Changed in version 1.15.0: The 'stable' option was added.

order

[str or list of str, optional] When a is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not all fields need be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

See also:

- `numpy.sort`
  Return a sorted copy of an array.
- `numpy.argsort`
  Indirect sort.
- `numpy.lexsort`
  Indirect stable sort on multiple keys.
- `numpy.searchsorted`
  Find elements in sorted array.
**numpy.partition**

Partial sort.

**Notes**

See *numpy.sort* for notes on the different sorting algorithms.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 4], [3, 1]])
>>> a.sort(axis=1)
array([[1, 4],
       [3, 1]])
>>> a.sort(axis=0)
array([[1, 3],
       [1, 4]])
```

Use the *order* keyword to specify a field to use when sorting a structured array:

```python
>>> a = np.array([('a', 2), ('c', 1)], dtype=[('x', 'S1'), ('y', int)])
>>> a.sort(order='y')
array([(b'c', 1), (b'a', 2)],
     dtype=[('x', 'S1'), ('y', '<i8')])
```

**ndarray.squeeze** *(axis=None)*

Remove axes of length one from *a*.

Refer to *numpy.squeeze* for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.squeeze**

equivalent function

**ndarray.std** *(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=False, *, where=True)*

Returns the standard deviation of the array elements along given axis.

Refer to *numpy.std* for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.std**

equivalent function
ndarray.sum(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=False, initial=0, where=True)

Return the sum of the array elements over the given axis.

Refer to numpy.sum for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.sum
equivalent function

method

ndarray.swapaxes(axis1, axis2)

Return a view of the array with axis1 and axis2 interchanged.

Refer to numpy.swapaxes for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.swapaxes
equivalent function

method

ndarray.take(indices, axis=None, out=None, mode='raise')

Return an array formed from the elements of a at the given indices.

Refer to numpy.take for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.take
equivalent function

method

ndarray.tobytes(order='C')

Construct Python bytes containing the raw data bytes in the array.

Constructs Python bytes showing a copy of the raw contents of data memory. The bytes object is produced in C-order by default. This behavior is controlled by the order parameter.

New in version 1.9.0.

Parameters

order

[{'C', 'F', 'A'}, optional] Controls the memory layout of the bytes object. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ (short for Any) means ‘F’ if a is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. Default is ’C’.

Returns

s

[bytes] Python bytes exhibiting a copy of a’s raw data.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], dtype='<u2')
>>> x.tobytes()
'b\x00\x00\x01\x00\x02\x00\x03\x00'
>>> x.tobytes('C') == x.tobytes()
True
>>> x.tobytes('F')
b'\x00\x00\x02\x00\x01\x00\x03\x00'
```

method

`ndarray.tofile(fid, sep='', format='%s')`

Write array to a file as text or binary (default).

Data is always written in 'C' order, independent of the order of `a`. The data produced by this method can be recovered using the function fromfile().

Parameters

- **fid**
  - [file or str or Path] An open file object, or a string containing a filename.
  
  Changed in version 1.17.0: `pathlib.Path` objects are now accepted.

- **sep**
  - [str] Separator between array items for text output. If "" (empty), a binary file is written, equivalent to `file.write(a.tobytes())`.

- **format**
  - [str] Format string for text file output. Each entry in the array is formatted to text by first converting it to the closest Python type, and then using "format" % item.

Notes

This is a convenience function for quick storage of array data. Information on endianness and precision is lost, so this method is not a good choice for files intended to archive data or transport data between machines with different endianness. Some of these problems can be overcome by outputting the data as text files, at the expense of speed and file size.

When `fid` is a file object, array contents are directly written to the file, bypassing the file object's write method. As a result, tofile cannot be used with files objects supporting compression (e.g., GzipFile) or file-like objects that do not support `fileno()` (e.g., BytesIO).

method

`ndarray.tolist()`

Return the array as an `a.ndim`-levels deep nested list of Python scalars.

Return a copy of the array data as a (nested) Python list. Data items are converted to the nearest compatible builtin Python type, via the `item` function.

If `a.ndim` is 0, then since the depth of the nested list is 0, it will not be a list at all, but a simple Python scalar.

Parameters

- none
Returns

\[ y \]

[object, or list of object, or list of list of object, or ...] The possibly nested list of array elements.

Notes

The array may be recreated via \( a = \text{np.array}(a\text{.tolist()}) \), although this may sometimes lose precision.

Examples

For a 1D array, \( a\text{.tolist()} \) is almost the same as \( \text{list}(a) \), except that \text{tolist} changes numpy scalars to Python scalars:

```python
>>> a = np.uint32([1, 2])
>>> a_list = list(a)
>>> a_list
[1, 2]
>>> type(a_list[0])
<class 'numpy.uint32'>
>>> a_tolist = a.tolist()
>>> a_tolist
[1, 2]
>>> type(a_tolist[0])
<class 'int'>
```

Additionally, for a 2D array, \text{tolist} applies recursively:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> list(a)
[array([1, 2]), array([3, 4])]
>>> a.tolist()
[[1, 2], [3, 4]]
```

The base case for this recursion is a 0D array:

```python
>>> a = np.array(1)
>>> list(a)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
TypeError: iteration over a 0-d array
>>> a.tolist()
```

\texttt{ndarray.\texttt{tostring}(order='C')}

\texttt{A compatibility alias for \texttt{tobytes}, with exactly the same behavior.}

Despite its name, it returns \texttt{bytes} not \texttt{strs}.

Deprecated since version 1.19.0.
ndarray.trace(offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the sum along diagonals of the array.

Refer to numpy.trace for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.trace

equivalent function

method

ndarray.transpose(*axes)

Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.

For a 1-D array this has no effect, as a transposed vector is simply the same vector. To convert a 1-D array into a 2D column vector, an additional dimension must be added. np.atleast2d(a).T achieves this, as does a[:, np.newaxis]. For a 2-D array, this is a standard matrix transpose. For an n-D array, if axes are given, their order indicates how the axes are permuted (see Examples). If axes are not provided and a.shape = (i[0], i[1], ..., i[n-2], i[n-1]), then a.transpose().shape = (i[n-1], i[n-2], ..., i[1], i[0]).

Parameters

axes

[None, tuple of ints, or n ints]

• None or no argument: reverses the order of the axes.

• tuple of ints: i in the j-th place in the tuple means a’s i-th axis becomes a.transpose()’s j-th axis.

• n ints: same as an n-tuple of the same ints (this form is intended simply as a “convenience” alternative to the tuple form)

Returns

out

[ndarray] View of a, with axes suitably permuted.

See also:

transpose

Equivalent function

ndarray.T

Array property returning the array transposed.

ndarray.reshape

Give a new shape to an array without changing its data.
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> a
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]])
>>> a.transpose()
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
>>> a.transpose((1, 0))
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
>>> a.transpose((1, 0))
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
```

method

```
ndarray.var(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=False, *, where=True)
```

Returns the variance of the array elements, along given axis.

Refer to `numpy.var` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.var
```

equivalent function

method

```
ndarray.view([dtype[, type]])
```

New view of array with the same data.

**Note:** Passing None for `dtype` is different from omitting the parameter, since the former invokes `dtype(None)` which is an alias for `dtype('float_')`.

**Parameters**

`dtype`

[data-type or ndarray sub-class, optional] Data-type descriptor of the returned view, e.g., float32 or int16. Omitting it results in the view having the same data-type as `a`. This argument can also be specified as an ndarray sub-class, which then specifies the type of the returned object (this is equivalent to setting the `type` parameter).

`type`

[Python type, optional] Type of the returned view, e.g., ndarray or matrix. Again, omission of the parameter results in type preservation.
Notes

`a.view()` is used two different ways:

`a.view(some_dtype)` or `a.view(dtype=some_dtype)` constructs a view of the array's memory with a different data-type. This can cause a reinterpretation of the bytes of memory.

`a.view(ndarray_subclass)` or `a.view(type=ndarray_subclass)` just returns an instance of `ndarray_subclass` that looks at the same array (same shape, dtype, etc.) This does not cause a reinterpre-
tation of the memory.

For `a.view(some_dtype)`, if `some_dtype` has a different number of bytes per entry than the previous dtype (for example, converting a regular array to a structured array), then the behavior of the view cannot be predicted just from the superficial appearance of `a` (shown by `print(a)`). It also depends on exactly
how `a` is stored in memory. Therefore if `a` is C-ordered versus fortran-ordered, versus defined as a slice or transpose, etc., the view may give different results.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([(1, 2)], dtype=[('a', 'i1'), ('b', 'i1')])
```

Viewing array data using a different type and dtype:

```python
>>> y = x.view(dtype=np.int16, type=np.matrix)
>>> y
matrix([[[513]]], dtype=int16)
>>> print(type(y))
<class 'numpy.matrix'>
```

Creating a view on a structured array so it can be used in calculations

```python
>>> x = np.array([(1, 2), (3, 4)], dtype=[('a', 'i1'), ('b', 'i1')])
>>> xv = x.view(dtype=np.int8).reshape(-1, 2)
>>> xv
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]], dtype=int8)
>>> xv.mean(0)
array([2., 3.])
```

Making changes to the view changes the underlying array

```python
>>> xv[0, 1] = 20
>>> x
array([(1, 20), (3, 4)], dtype=[('a', 'i1'), ('b', 'i1')])
```

Using a view to convert an array to a recarray:

```python
>>> z = x.view(np.recarray)
>>> z.a
array([1, 3], dtype=int8)
```

Views share data:

```python
>>> x[0] = (9, 10)
>>> z[0]
(9, 10)
```
Views that change the dtype size (bytes per entry) should normally be avoided on arrays defined by slices, transposes, fortran-ordering, etc.:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], dtype=np.int16)
>>> y = x[:, 0:2]
>>> y
array([[1, 2],
       [4, 5]], dtype=int16)
```

```python
>>> y.view(dtype=[('width', np.int16), ('length', np.int16)])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ... ValueError: To change to a dtype of a different size, the array must be C-
  contiguous
>>> z = y.copy()
>>> z.view(dtype=[('width', np.int16), ('length', np.int16)])
array([[1, 2],
       [4, 5]], dtype=[('width', '<i2'), ('length', '<i2')])
```

### 1.1.2 Indexing arrays

Arrays can be indexed using an extended Python slicing syntax, `array[selection]`. Similar syntax is also used for accessing fields in a structured data type.

See also:

*Array Indexing.*

### 1.1.3 Internal memory layout of an ndarray

An instance of class `ndarray` consists of a contiguous one-dimensional segment of computer memory (owned by the array, or by some other object), combined with an indexing scheme that maps \( N \) integers into the location of an item in the block. The ranges in which the indices can vary is specified by the `shape` of the array. How many bytes each item takes and how the bytes are interpreted is defined by the `data-type object` associated with the array.

A segment of memory is inherently 1-dimensional, and there are many different schemes for arranging the items of an \( N \)-dimensional array in a 1-dimensional block. NumPy is flexible, and `ndarray` objects can accommodate any *strided indexing scheme*. In a strided scheme, the \( N \)-dimensional index \((n_0, n_1, ..., n_{N-1})\) corresponds to the offset (in bytes):

\[
  n_{\text{offset}} = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} s_k n_k
\]

from the beginning of the memory block associated with the array. Here, \( s_k \) are integers which specify the *strides* of the array. The column-major order (used, for example, in the Fortran language and in `Matlab`) and row-major order (used in C) schemes are just specific kinds of strided scheme, and correspond to memory that can be *addressed* by the strides:

\[
  s_k^\text{column} = \text{itemsize} \prod_{j=0}^{k-1} d_j, \quad s_k^\text{row} = \text{itemsize} \prod_{j=k+1}^{N-1} d_j.
\]

where \( d_j = \text{self.shape}[j] \).

Both the C and Fortran orders are contiguous, *i.e.*, single-segment, memory layouts, in which every part of the memory block can be accessed by some combination of the indices.
Note: Contiguous arrays and single-segment arrays are synonymous and are used interchangeably throughout the documentation.

While a C-style and Fortran-style contiguous array, which has the corresponding flags set, can be addressed with the above strides, the actual strides may be different. This can happen in two cases:

1. If `self.shape[k] == 1` then for any legal index `index[k] == 0`. This means that in the formula for the offset \( n_k = 0 \) and thus \( s_k n_k = 0 \) and the value of \( s_k = self.strides[k] \) is arbitrary.

2. If an array has no elements (`self.size == 0`) there is no legal index and the strides are never used. Any array with no elements may be considered C-style and Fortran-style contiguous.

Point 1. means that `self` and `self.squeeze()` always have the same contiguity and aligned flags value. This also means that even a high dimensional array could be C-style and Fortran-style contiguous at the same time.

An array is considered aligned if the memory offsets for all elements and the base offset itself is a multiple of `self.itemsize`. Understanding memory-alignment leads to better performance on most hardware.

Note: Points (1) and (2) can currently be disabled by the compile time environmental variable `NPY_RELAXED_STRIDES_CHECKING=0`, which was the default before NumPy 1.10. No users should have to do this. `NPY_RELAXED_STRIDES_DEBUG=1` can be used to help find errors when incorrectly relying on the strides in C-extension code (see below warning).

You can check whether this option was enabled when your NumPy was built by looking at the value of `np.ones((10, 1), order='C').flags.f_contiguous`. If this is True, then your NumPy has relaxed strides checking enabled.

Warning: It does not generally hold that `self.strides[-1] == self.itemsize` for C-style contiguous arrays or `self.strides[0] == self.itemsize` for Fortran-style contiguous arrays is true.

Data in new `ndarrays` is in the row-major (C) order, unless otherwise specified, but, for example, basic array slicing often produces views in a different scheme.

Note: Several algorithms in NumPy work on arbitrarily strided arrays. However, some algorithms require single-segment arrays. When an irregularly strided array is passed in to such algorithms, a copy is automatically made.

### 1.1.4 Array attributes

Array attributes reflect information that is intrinsic to the array itself. Generally, accessing an array through its attributes allows you to get and sometimes set intrinsic properties of the array without creating a new array. The exposed attributes are the core parts of an array and only some of them can be reset meaningfully without creating a new array. Information on each attribute is given below.
Memory layout

The following attributes contain information about the memory layout of the array:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.flags</td>
<td>Information about the memory layout of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.shape</td>
<td>Tuple of array dimensions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.strides</td>
<td>Tuple of bytes to step in each dimension when traversing an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.ndim</td>
<td>Number of array dimensions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.data</td>
<td>Python buffer object pointing to the start of the array’s data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.size</td>
<td>Number of elements in the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.itemsize</td>
<td>Length of one array element in bytes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.nbytes</td>
<td>Total bytes consumed by the elements of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.base</td>
<td>Base object if memory is from some other object.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

attribute

ndarray.flags
Information about the memory layout of the array.

Notes

The flags object can be accessed dictionary-like (as in a.flags[‘WRITEABLE’]), or by using lowercased attribute names (as in a.flags.writeable). Short flag names are only supported in dictionary access.

Only the WRITEBACKIFCOPY, UPDATEIFCOPY, WRITEABLE, and ALIGNED flags can be changed by the user, via direct assignment to the attribute or dictionary entry, or by calling ndarray.setflags.

The array flags cannot be set arbitrarily:

- UPDATEIFCOPY can only be set False.
- WRITEBACKIFCOPY can only be set False.
- ALIGNED can only be set True if the data is truly aligned.
- WRITEABLE can only be set True if the array owns its own memory or the ultimate owner of the memory exposes a writeable buffer interface or is a string.

Arrays can be both C-style and Fortran-style contiguous simultaneously. This is clear for 1-dimensional arrays, but can also be true for higher dimensional arrays.

Even for contiguous arrays a stride for a given dimension arr.strides[dim] may be arbitrary if arr.shape[dim] == 1 or the array has no elements. It does not generally hold that self.strides[-1] == self.itemsize for C-style contiguous arrays or self.strides[0] == self.itemsize for Fortran-style contiguous arrays is true.

Attributes

C_CONTIGUOUS (C)
The data is in a single, C-style contiguous segment.

F_CONTIGUOUS (F)
The data is in a single, Fortran-style contiguous segment.
OWNDATA (O)

The array owns the memory it uses or borrows it from another object.

WRITEABLE (W)

The data area can be written to. Setting this to False locks the data, making it read-only. A view (slice, etc.) inherits WRITEABLE from its base array at creation time, but a view of a writeable array may be subsequently locked while the base array remains writeable. (The opposite is not true, in that a view of a locked array may not be made writeable. However, currently, locking a base object does not lock any views that already reference it, so under that circumstance it is possible to alter the contents of a locked array via a previously created writeable view onto it.) Attempting to change a non-writeable array raises a RuntimeError exception.

ALIGNED (A)

The data and all elements are aligned appropriately for the hardware.

WRITEBACKIFCOPY (X)

This array is a copy of some other array. The C-API function PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy must be called before deallocating to the base array will be updated with the contents of this array.

UPDATEIFCOPY (U)

(Deprecated, use WRITEBACKIFCOPY) This array is a copy of some other array. When this array is deallocated, the base array will be updated with the contents of this array.

FNC

F_CONTIGUOUS and not C_CONTIGUOUS.

FORC

F_CONTIGUOUS or C_CONTIGUOUS (one-segment test).

BEHAVED (B)

ALIGNED and WRITEABLE.

CARRAY (CA)

BEHAVED and C_CONTIGUOUS.

FARRAY (FA)

BEHAVED and F_CONTIGUOUS and not C_CONTIGUOUS.

attribute

ndarray.shape

Tuple of array dimensions.

The shape property is usually used to get the current shape of an array, but may also be used to reshape the array in-place by assigning a tuple of array dimensions to it. As with numpy.reshape, one of the new shape dimensions can be -1, in which case its value is inferred from the size of the array and the remaining dimensions. Reshaping an array in-place will fail if a copy is required.

See also:

numpy.reshape

similar function
### ndarray.reshape

similar method

#### Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> x.shape
(4,)
>>> y = np.zeros((2, 3, 4))
>>> y.shape
(2, 3, 4)
>>> y.shape = (3, 8)
>>> y
array([[ 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.],
       [ 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.],
       [ 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.]])
>>> y.shape = (3, 6)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: total size of new array must be unchanged
>>> np.zeros((4,2))[:,:2].shape = (-1,)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
AttributeError: incompatible shape for in-place modification. Use .reshape() to make a copy with the desired shape.
```

attribute

**ndarray.strides**

Tuple of bytes to step in each dimension when traversing an array.

The byte offset of element \(i[0], i[1], \ldots, i[n]\) in an array \(a\) is:

\[
\text{offset} = \text{sum}(np.array(i) * a.strides)
\]

A more detailed explanation of strides can be found in the “ndarray.rst” file in the NumPy reference guide.

See also:

**numpy.lib.stride_tricks.as_strided**

#### Notes

Imagine an array of 32-bit integers (each 4 bytes):

```python
x = np.array([[0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
              [5, 6, 7, 8, 9]], dtype=np.int32)
```

This array is stored in memory as 40 bytes, one after the other (known as a contiguous block of memory). The strides of an array tell us how many bytes we have to skip in memory to move to the next position along a certain axis. For example, we have to skip 4 bytes (1 value) to move to the next column, but 20 bytes (5 values) to get to the same position in the next row. As such, the strides for the array \(x\) will be \((20, 4)\).
Examples

```python
>>> y = np.reshape(np.arange(2*3*4), (2,3,4))
>>> y
array([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
       [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
       [ 8,  9, 10, 11],
       [12, 13, 14, 15],
       [16, 17, 18, 19],
       [20, 21, 22, 23]])
>>> y.strides
(48, 16, 4)
>>> y[1,1,1]
17
>>> offset=sum(y.strides * np.array((1,1,1)))
>>> offset/y.itemsize
17
```

attribute

ndarray.ndim

Number of array dimensions.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.reshape(np.arange(5*6*7*8), (5,6,7,8)).transpose(2,3,1,0)
>>> x.strides
(32, 4, 224, 1344)
>>> i = np.array([3,5,2,2])
>>> offset = sum(i * x.strides)
>>> x[3,5,2,2]
813
>>> offset / x.itemsize
813
```

attribute

ndarray.data

Python buffer object pointing to the start of the array's data.

attribute

ndarray.size

Number of elements in the array.

Equal to np.prod(a.shape), i.e., the product of the array's dimensions.
Notes

`a.size` returns a standard arbitrary precision Python integer. This may not be the case with other methods of obtaining the same value (like the suggested `np.prod(a.shape)`, which returns an instance of `np.int_`), and may be relevant if the value is used further in calculations that may overflow a fixed size integer type.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.zeros((3, 5, 2), dtype=np.complex128)
>>> x.size
30
>>> np.prod(x.shape)
30
```

attribute

`ndarray.itemsize`
Length of one array element in bytes.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.float64)
>>> x.itemsize
8
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.complex128)
>>> x.itemsize
16
```

attribute

`ndarray.nbytes`
Total bytes consumed by the elements of the array.

Notes

Does not include memory consumed by non-element attributes of the array object.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.zeros((3, 5, 2), dtype=np.complex128)
>>> x.nbytes
480
>>> np.prod(x.shape) * x.itemsize
480
```

attribute

`ndarray.base`
Base object if memory is from some other object.
Examples

The base of an array that owns its memory is None:

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> x.base is None
True
```

Slicing creates a view, whose memory is shared with `x`:

```python
>>> y = x[2:]
>>> y.base is x
True
```

Data type

See also:

Data type objects

The data type object associated with the array can be found in the `dtype` attribute:

```python
ndarray.dtype
```

attribute

`ndarray.dtype`

Data-type of the array's elements.

Parameters

None

Returns

d

[numpy dtype object]

See also:

`numpy.dtype`

Examples

```python
>>> x
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]])
>>> x.dtype
dtype('int32')
>>> type(x.dtype)
type 'numpy.dtype'
```
Other attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>attribute</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.T</td>
<td>The transposed array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.real</td>
<td>The real part of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.imag</td>
<td>The imaginary part of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.flat</td>
<td>A 1-D iterator over the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.ctypes</td>
<td>An object to simplify the interaction of the array with the ctypes module.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

attribute

ndarray.T

The transposed array.

Same as self.transpose().

See also:

transpose

Examples

```python
given_code

>>> x = np.array([[1.,2.],[3.,4.]])
>>> x
array([[ 1.,  2.],
       [ 3.,  4.]])
>>> x.T
array([[ 1.,  3.],
       [ 2.,  4.]])
>>> x = np.array([1.,2.,3.,4.])
>>> x
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.,  4.])
>>> x.T
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.,  4.])
```

attribute

ndarray.real

The real part of the array.

See also:

numpy.real

equivalent function
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.sqrt([1+0j, 0+1j])
>>> x.real
array([ 1. , 0.70710678])
>>> x.real.dtype
dtype('float64')
```

attribute

`ndarray.imag`

The imaginary part of the array.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.sqrt([1+0j, 0+1j])
>>> x.imag
array([ 0. , 0.70710678])
>>> x.imag.dtype
dtype('float64')
```

attribute

`ndarray.flat`

A 1-D iterator over the array.

This is a `numpy.flatiter` instance, which acts similarly to, but is not a subclass of, Python's built-in iterator object.

See also:

`flatten`

Return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension.

`flatiter`

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(1, 7).reshape(2, 3)
>>> x
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
>>> x.flat[3]
4
>>> x.T
array([[1, 4],
       [2, 5],
       [3, 6]])
>>> x.T.flat[3]
5
>>> type(x.flat)
<class 'numpy.flatiter'>
```

An assignment example:
attribute

ndarray.ctypes

An object to simplify the interaction of the array with the ctypes module.

This attribute creates an object that makes it easier to use arrays when calling shared libraries with the ctypes module. The returned object has, among others, data, shape, and strides attributes (see Notes below) which themselves return ctypes objects that can be used as arguments to a shared library.

Parameters

None

Returns

c

[Python object] Possessing attributes data, shape, strides, etc.

See also:

numpy.ctypeslib

Notes

Below are the public attributes of this object which were documented in “Guide to NumPy” (we have omitted undocumented public attributes, as well as documented private attributes):

_c ctypes.data

A pointer to the memory area of the array as a Python integer. This memory area may contain data that is not aligned, or not in correct byte-order. The memory area may not even be writeable. The array flags and data-type of this array should be respected when passing this attribute to arbitrary C-code to avoid trouble that can include Python crashing. User Beware! The value of this attribute is exactly the same as self._array_interface_['data'][0].

Note that unlike data_as, a reference will not be kept to the array: code like ctypes.c_void_p((a + b).ctypes.data) will result in a pointer to a deallocated array, and should be spelt (a + b).ctypes.data_as(ctypes.c_void_p)

_c ctypes.shape

(c_int*self.ndim): A ctypes array of length self.ndim where the basetype is the C-integer corresponding to dtype('p') on this platform. This base-type could be ctypes.c_int, ctypes.c_long, or ctypes.c_longlong depending on the platform. The c_int type is defined accordingly in numpy.ctypeslib. The ctypes array contains the shape of the underlying array.

_c ctypes.strides

(c_int*self.ndim): A ctypes array of length self.ndim where the basetype is the same as for the shape attribute. This ctypes array contains the strides information from the underlying array. This strides information is important for showing how many bytes must be jumped to get to the next element in the array.
CTypes methods return data pointers cast to a particular C-types object. For example, calling `self._as_parameter_` is equivalent to `self.data_as(ctypes.c_void_p)`. Perhaps you want to use the data as a pointer to a ctypes array of floating-point data: `self.data_as(ctypes.POINTER(ctypes.c_double))`.

The returned pointer will keep a reference to the array.

CTypes methods return the shape tuple as an array of some other C-types type. For example: `self.shape_as(ctypes.c_short)`.

CTypes methods return the strides tuple as an array of some other C-types type. For example: `self.strides_as(ctypes.c_longlong)`.

If the ctypes module is not available, then the ctypes attribute of array objects still returns something useful, but ctypes objects are not returned and errors may be raised instead. In particular, the object will still have the `as_parameter` attribute which will return an integer equal to the data attribute.

### Examples

```python
>>> import ctypes
>>> x = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], dtype=np.int32)
>>> x
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]], dtype=int32)
>>> x.ctypes.data
31962608 # may vary
>>> x.ctypes.data_as(ctypes.POINTER(ctypes.c_uint32))
<__main__.LP_c_uint object at 0x7ff2fc1fc200> # may vary
>>> x.ctypes.data_as(ctypes.POINTER(ctypes.c_uint32)).contents
c_uint(0)
>>> x.ctypes.data_as(ctypes.POINTER(ctypes.c_uint64)).contents
c_ulong(4294967296)
>>> x.shape
<numpy.core._internal.c_long_Array_2 object at 0x7ff2fc1fc660> # may vary
>>> x.ctypes.strides
<numpy.core._internal.c_long_Array_2 object at 0x7ff2fc1fc630> # may vary
```

### Array interface

See also:

The Array Interface.
ctypes foreign function interface

```python
ndarray.ctypes
```

An object to simplify the interaction of the array with the ctypes module.

1.1.5 Array methods

An `ndarray` object has many methods which operate on or with the array in some fashion, typically returning an array result. These methods are briefly explained below. (Each method’s docstring has a more complete description.)

For the following methods there are also corresponding functions in `numpy`: `all`, `any`, `argmax`, `argmin`, `argpartition`, `argsort`, `choose`, `clip`, `compress`, `copy`, `cumprod`, `cumsum`, `diagonal`, `imag`, `max`, `mean`, `min`, `nonzero`, `partition`, `prod`, `ptp`, `put`, `ravel`, `real`, `repeat`, `reshape`, `round`, `searchsorted`, `sort`, `squeeze`, `std`, `sum`, `swapaxes`, `take`, `trace`, `transpose`, `var`.

Array conversion

```python
ndarray.item(*args)
```

Copy an element of an array to a standard Python scalar and return it.

```python
ndarray.tolist()
```

Return the array as an `a.ndim`-levels deep nested list of Python scalars.

```python
ndarray.itemset(*args)
```

Insert scalar into an array (scalar is cast to array’s dtype, if possible)

```python
ndarray.tostring([order])
```

A compatibility alias for `tobytes`, with exactly the same behavior.

```python
ndarray.tobytes([order])
```

Construct Python bytes containing the raw data bytes in the array.

```python
ndarray.tolist(fid[, sep, format])
```

Write array to a file as text or binary (default).

```python
ndarray.dump(file)
```

Dump a pickle of the array to the specified file.

```python
ndarray.dumps()
```

Returns the pickle of the array as a string.

```python
ndarray.astype(dtype[, order, casting, …])
```

Copy of the array, cast to a specified type.

```python
ndarray.byteswap([inplace])
```

Swap the bytes of the array elements

```python
ndarray.copy([order])
```

Return a copy of the array.

```python
ndarray.view(dtype[, type])
```

New view of array with the same data.

```python
ndarray.setflags([write, align, uic])
```

Returns a field of the given array as a certain type.

```python
ndarray.fill(value)
```

Fill the array with a scalar value.

Shape manipulation

For reshape, resize, and transpose, the single tuple argument may be replaced with `n` integers which will be interpreted as an n-tuple.

```python
ndarray.reshape(shape[, order])
```

Returns an array containing the same data with a new shape.

```python
ndarray.resize(new_shape[, refcheck])
```

Change shape and size of array in-place.

```python
ndarray.transpose(*axes)
```

Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.

continues on next page
Table 8 – continued from previous page

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.swapaxes</code></td>
<td>Return a view of the array with <code>axis1</code> and <code>axis2</code> interchanged.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.flatten</code></td>
<td>Return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.ravel</code></td>
<td>Return a flattened array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.squeeze</code></td>
<td>Remove axes of length one from <code>a</code>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Item selection and manipulation**

For array methods that take an `axis` keyword, it defaults to `None`. If `axis` is `None`, then the array is treated as a 1-D array. Any other value for `axis` represents the dimension along which the operation should proceed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.take</code></td>
<td>Return an array formed from the elements of <code>a</code> at the given indices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.put</code></td>
<td>Set <code>a.flat[n] = values[n]</code> for all <code>n</code> in indices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.repeat</code></td>
<td>Repeat elements of an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.choose</code></td>
<td>Use an index array to construct a new array from a set of choices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.sort</code></td>
<td>Sort an array in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.argsort</code></td>
<td>Returns the indices that would sort this array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.partition</code></td>
<td>Rearranges the elements in the array in such a way that the value of the element in <code>kth</code> position is in the position it would be in a sorted array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.argpartition</code></td>
<td>Returns the indices that would partition this array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.searchsorted</code></td>
<td>Find indices where elements of <code>v</code> should be inserted in <code>a</code> to maintain order.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.nonzero</code></td>
<td>Return the indices of the elements that are non-zero.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.compress</code></td>
<td>Return selected slices of this array along given <code>axis</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.diagonal</code></td>
<td>Return specified diagonals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Calculation**

Many of these methods take an argument named `axis`. In such cases,

- If `axis` is `None` (the default), the array is treated as a 1-D array and the operation is performed over the entire array. This behavior is also the default if `self` is a 0-dimensional array or array scalar. (An array scalar is an instance of the types/classes float32, float64, etc., whereas a 0-dimensional array is an ndarray instance containing precisely one array scalar.)

- If `axis` is an integer, then the operation is done over the given axis (for each 1-D subarray that can be created along the given axis).

**Example of the `axis` argument**

A 3-dimensional array of size 3 x 3 x 3, summed over each of its three axes

```python
>>> x = np.arange(27).reshape((3,3,3))
>>> x
array([[[ 0,  1,  2],
        [ 3,  4,  5],
        [ 6,  7,  8]],
       [[ 9, 10, 11],
        [12, 13, 14],
        [15, 16, 17]],
       [[18, 19, 20],
        [21, 22, 23],
        [24, 25, 26]]])
```
```python
>>> x.sum(axis=0)
array([[27, 30, 33],
      [36, 39, 42],
      [45, 48, 51]])
>>> # for sum, axis is the first keyword, so we may omit it,
>>> # specifying only its value
>>> x.sum(0), x.sum(1), x.sum(2)
(array([[27, 30, 33],
         [36, 39, 42],
         [45, 48, 51]]),
 array([[ 9, 12, 15],
        [36, 39, 42],
        [63, 66, 69]]),
 array([[ 3, 12, 21],
        [30, 39, 48],
        [57, 66, 75]]))
```

The parameter `dtype` specifies the data type over which a reduction operation (like summing) should take place. The default reduce data type is the same as the data type of `self`. To avoid overflow, it can be useful to perform the reduction using a larger data type.

For several methods, an optional `out` argument can also be provided and the result will be placed into the output array given. The `out` argument must be an `ndarray` and have the same number of elements. It can have a different data type in which case casting will be performed.

```
ndarray.max([axis, out, keepdims, initial, ...]) Return the maximum along a given axis.
ndarray.argmax([axis, out]) Return indices of the maximum values along the given axis.
ndarray.min([axis, out, keepdims, initial, ...]) Return the minimum along a given axis.
ndarray.argmin([axis, out]) Return indices of the minimum values along the given axis.
ndarray.ptp([axis, out, keepdims]) Peak to peak (maximum - minimum) value along a given axis.
ndarray.clip([min, max, out]) Return an array whose values are limited to [min, max].
ndarray.conj() Complex-conjugate all elements.
ndarray.round([decimals, out]) Return a with each element rounded to the given number of decimals.
ndarray.trace([offset, axis1, axis2, dtype, out]) Return the sum along diagonals of the array.
ndarray.sum([axis, dtype, out, keepdims, ...]) Return the sum of the array elements over the given axis.
ndarray.cumsum([axis, dtype, out]) Return the cumulative sum of the elements along the given axis.
ndarray.mean([axis, dtype, out, keepdims, where]) Returns the average of the array elements along given axis.
ndarray.var([axis, dtype, out, ddof, ...]) Returns the variance of the array elements, along given axis.
```
Table 10 – continued from previous page

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.std}([axis, dtype, out, ddof, …])</td>
<td>Returns the standard deviation of the array elements along given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.prod}([axis, dtype, out, keepdims, …])</td>
<td>Return the product of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.cumprod}([axis, dtype, out])</td>
<td>Return the cumulative product of the elements along the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.all}([axis, out, keepdims, where])</td>
<td>Returns True if all elements evaluate to True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.any}([axis, out, keepdims, where])</td>
<td>Returns True if any of the elements of a evaluate to True.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 1.1.6 Arithmetic, matrix multiplication, and comparison operations

Arithmetic and comparison operations on \texttt{ndarrays} are defined as element-wise operations, and generally yield \texttt{ndarray} objects as results.

Each of the arithmetic operations (+, −, ∗, ÷, %, divmod(), ** or \texttt{pow()}, <, >, ≤, ≥, &, ^, |, ~) and the comparisons (==, <, >, <=, >=, !=) is equivalent to the corresponding universal function (or ufunc for short) in NumPy. For more information, see the section on \textit{Universal Functions.}

Comparison operators:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.<strong>lt</strong>} (value, /)</td>
<td>Return self&lt;value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.<strong>le</strong>} (value, /)</td>
<td>Return self&lt;=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.<strong>gt</strong>} (value, /)</td>
<td>Return self&gt;value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.<strong>ge</strong>} (value, /)</td>
<td>Return self&gt;=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.<strong>eq</strong>} (value, /)</td>
<td>Return self==value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{ndarray.<strong>ne</strong>} (value, /)</td>
<td>Return self!=value.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Truth value of an array (bool()): 

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NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

ndarray.__bool__(/)

self != 0

method

ndarray.__bool__(/)

self != 0

Note: Truth-value testing of an array invokes ndarray.__bool__, which raises an error if the number of elements in the array is larger than 1, because the truth value of such arrays is ambiguous. Use any() and all() instead to be clear about what is meant in such cases. (If the number of elements is 0, the array evaluates to False.)

Unary operations:

ndarray.__neg__(/)

-self

ndarray.__pos__(/)

+self

ndarray.__abs__(self)

method

ndarray.__invert__(/)

~self

Arithmetic:

ndarray.__add__(value, /)  
Return self + value.

ndarray.__sub__(value, /)  
Return self - value.

ndarray.__mul__(value, /)  
Return self * value.

ndarray.__truediv__(value, /)  
Return self / value.

ndarray.__floordiv__(value, /)  
Return self // value.

ndarray.__mod__(value, /)  
Return self % value.

ndarray.__divmod__(value, /)  
Return divmod(self, value).

ndarray.__pow__(value[, mod])  
Return pow(self, value, mod).

ndarray.__lshift__(value, /)  
Return self << value.

ndarray.__rshift__(value, /)  
Return self >> value.

ndarray.__and__(value, /)  
Return self & value.

ndarray.__or__(value, /)  
Return self | value.

ndarray.__xor__(value, /)  
Return self ^ value.

1.1. The N-dimensional array (ndarray)
method
darray.__add__(value, /)
    Return self+value.

method
darray.__sub__(value, /)
    Return self-value.

method
darray.__mul__(value, /)
    Return self*value.

method
darray.__truediv__(value, /)
    Return self/value.

method
darray.__floordiv__(value, /)
    Return self//value.

method
darray.__mod__(value, /)
    Return self%value.

method
darray.__divmod__(value, /)
    Return divmod(self, value).

method
darray.__pow__(value, mod=None, /)
    Return pow(self, value, mod).

method
darray.__lshift__(value, /)
    Return self«value.

method
darray.__rshift__(value, /)
    Return self»value.

method
darray.__and__(value, /)
    Return self&value.

method
darray.__or__(value, /)
    Return self|value.

method
darray.__xor__(value, /)
    Return self^value.

Note:
• Any third argument to `pow` is silently ignored, as the underlying `ufunc` takes only two arguments.

• Because `ndarray` is a built-in type (written in C), the `__r{op}` special methods are not directly defined.

• The functions called to implement many arithmetic special methods for arrays can be modified using `__array_ufunc__`.

### Arithmetic, in-place:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>__iadd__</code></td>
<td>Return self+=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__isub__</code></td>
<td>Return self-=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__imul__</code></td>
<td>Return self*=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__itruediv__</code></td>
<td>Return self/=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__ifloordiv__</code></td>
<td>Return self//=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__imod__</code></td>
<td>Return self%=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__ipow__</code></td>
<td>Return self**=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__ilshift__</code></td>
<td>Return self«=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__irshift__</code></td>
<td>Return self»=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__iand__</code></td>
<td>Return self&amp;=value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__ior__</code></td>
<td>Return self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__ixor__</code></td>
<td>Return self^=value.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

method

```
ndarray.__iadd__(value,/)  Return self+=value.
ndarray.__isub__(value,/)  Return self-=value.
ndarray.__imul__(value,/)  Return self*=value.
ndarray.__itruediv__(value,/)  Return self/=value.
ndarray.__ifloordiv__(value,/)  Return self//=value.
ndarray.__imod__(value,/)  Return self%=value.
ndarray.__ipow__(value,/)  Return self**=value.
ndarray.__ilshift__(value,/)  Return self«=value.
ndarray.__irshift__(value,/)  Return self»=value.
ndarray.__iand__(value,/)  Return self&=value.
ndarray.__ior__(value,/)  Return self|=value.
ndarray.__ixor__(value,/)  Return self^=value.
```
### 1.1.7 Special methods

For standard library functions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>__copy__()</code></td>
<td>Used if <code>copy.copy</code> is called on an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__deepcopy__</code>(memo, /)</td>
<td>Used if <code>copy.deepcopy</code> is called on an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__reduce__</code>()</td>
<td>For pickling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__setstate__</code>(state, /)</td>
<td>For unpickling.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Method

```python
ndarray.__copy__()  
      Used if `copy.copy` is called on an array. Returns a copy of the array.
      Equivalent to `a.copy(order='K')`.
```
ndarray.__deepcopy__(memo, /) → Deep copy of array.
    Used if copy.deepcopy is called on an array.

method

ndarray.__reduce__()
    For pickling.

method

ndarray.__setstate__(state, /)
    For unpickling.

    The state argument must be a sequence that contains the following elements:

    Parameters

    version
        [int] optional pickle version. If omitted defaults to 0.
    shape
        [tuple]
    dtype
        [data-type]
    isFortran
        [bool]
    rawdata
        [string or list] a binary string with the data (or a list if ‘a’ is an object array)

Basic customization:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.<strong>new</strong>(*args, **kwargs)</td>
<td>Create and return a new object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.<strong>array</strong>(dtype, /)</td>
<td>Returns either a new reference to self if dtype is not given or a new array of provided data type if dtype is different from the current dtype of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.<strong>array_wrap</strong>(obj)</td>
<td>Object of same type as ndarray object a.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

method

ndarray.__new__(*args, **kwargs)
    Create and return a new object. See help(type) for accurate signature.

method

ndarray.__array__(dtype, /) → reference if type unchanged, copy otherwise.
    Returns either a new reference to self if dtype is not given or a new array of provided data type if dtype is different from the current dtype of the array.

method

ndarray.__array_wrap__(obj) → Object of same type as ndarray object a.

Container customization: (see Indexing)
method
ndarray.__len__(/)
    Return len(self).

method
ndarray.__getitem__(key, /)
    Return self[key].

method
ndarray.__setitem__(key, value, /)
    Set self[key] to value.

method
ndarray.__contains__(key, /)
    Return key in self.

Conversion; the operations int(), float() and complex(). They work only on arrays that have one element in them and return the appropriate scalar.

method
ndarray.__int__(self)

method
ndarray.__float__(self)

method
ndarray.__complex__()

String representations:

method
ndarray.__str__(/)
    Return str(self).

method
ndarray.__repr__(/)
    Return repr(self).
method

```python
ndarray.__repr__(/)
    Return repr(self).
```

# 1.2 Scalars

Python defines only one type of a particular data class (there is only one integer type, one floating-point type, etc.). This can be convenient in applications that don't need to be concerned with all the ways data can be represented in a computer. For scientific computing, however, more control is often needed.

In NumPy, there are 24 new fundamental Python types to describe different types of scalars. These type descriptors are mostly based on the types available in the C language that CPython is written in, with several additional types compatible with Python's types.

Array scalars have the same attributes and methods as `ndarrays`.¹ This allows one to treat items of an array partly on the same footing as arrays, smoothing out rough edges that result when mixing scalar and array operations.

Array scalars live in a hierarchy (see the Figure below) of data types. They can be detected using the hierarchy: For example, `isinstance(val, np.generic)` will return `True` if `val` is an array scalar object. Alternatively, what kind of array scalar is present can be determined using other members of the data type hierarchy. Thus, for example `isinstance(val, np.complexfloating)` will return `True` if `val` is a complex valued type, while `isinstance(val, np.flexible)` will return true if `val` is one of the flexible itemsize array types (`str_`, `bytes_`, `void`).

## 1.2.1 Built-in scalar types

The built-in scalar types are shown below. The C-like names are associated with character codes, which are shown in their descriptions. Use of the character codes, however, is discouraged.

Some of the scalar types are essentially equivalent to fundamental Python types and therefore inherit from them as well as from the generic array scalar type:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Array scalar type</th>
<th>Related Python type</th>
<th>Inherits?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>int_</code></td>
<td><code>int</code></td>
<td>Python 2 only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>float_</code></td>
<td><code>float</code></td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>complex_</code></td>
<td><code>complex</code></td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>bytes_</code></td>
<td><code>bytes</code></td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>str_</code></td>
<td><code>str</code></td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>bool_</code></td>
<td><code>bool</code></td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>datetime64</code></td>
<td><code>datetime.datetime</code></td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>timedelta64</code></td>
<td><code>datetime.timedelta</code></td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The `bool_` data type is very similar to the Python `bool` but does not inherit from it because Python's `bool` does not allow itself to be inherited from, and on the C-level the size of the actual bool data is not the same as a Python Boolean scalar.

**Warning:** The `int_` type does not inherit from the `int` built-in under Python 3, because type `int` is no longer a fixed-width integer type.

¹ However, array scalars are immutable, so none of the array scalar attributes are settable.
Fig. 2: **Figure:** Hierarchy of type objects representing the array data types. Not shown are the two integer types `intp` and `uintp` which just point to the integer type that holds a pointer for the platform. All the number types can be obtained using bit-width names as well.
Tip: The default data type in NumPy is float_.

```python
class numpy.generic
   Base class for numpy scalar types.

   Class from which most (all?) numpy scalar types are derived. For consistency, exposes the same API as ndarray, despite many consequent attributes being either “get-only,” or completely irrelevant. This is the class from which it is strongly suggested users should derive custom scalar types.

class numpy.number
   Abstract base class of all numeric scalar types.
```

### Integer types

```python
class numpy.integer
   Abstract base class of all integer scalar types.
```

Note: The numpy integer types mirror the behavior of C integers, and can therefore be subject to overflow-errors.

### Signed integer types

```python
class numpy.signedinteger
   Abstract base class of all signed integer scalar types.

class numpy.byte
   Signed integer type, compatible with C char.

   Character code
   'b'

   Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

   numpy.int8: 8-bit signed integer (-128 to 127).

class numpy.short
   Signed integer type, compatible with C short.

   Character code
   'h'

   Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

   numpy.int16: 16-bit signed integer (-32_768 to 32_767).

class numpy.intc
   Signed integer type, compatible with C int.

   Character code
   'i'

   Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

   numpy.int32: 32-bit signed integer (-2_147_483_648 to 2_147_483_647).

class numpy.int_
   Signed integer type, compatible with Python int and C long.
```
Character code
'1'
Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

```
```

Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

```
numpy.intp: Signed integer large enough to fit pointer, compatible with C intptr_t.
```

class numpy.longlong
Signed integer type, compatible with C long long.

Character code
'q'

Unsigned integer types
class numpy.unsignedinteger
Abstract base class of all unsigned integer scalar types.

class numpy.ubyte
Unsigned integer type, compatible with C unsigned char.

Character code
'B'

Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

```
numpy.uint8: 8-bit unsigned integer (0 to 255).
```

class numpy.ushort
Unsigned integer type, compatible with C unsigned short.

Character code
'H'

Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

```
numpy.uint16: 16-bit unsigned integer (0 to 65,535).
```

class numpy.uintc
Unsigned integer type, compatible with C unsigned int.

Character code
'I'

Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

```
numpy.uint32: 32-bit unsigned integer (0 to 4,294,967,295).
```

class numpy.uint
Unsigned integer type, compatible with C unsigned long.

Character code
'L'

Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

```
numpy.uint64: 64-bit unsigned integer (0 to 18,446,744,073,709,551,615).
```
Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

```
numpy.uintp: Unsigned integer large enough to fit pointer, compatible with C uintptr_t.
```

```python
class numpy.ulonglong
  Signed integer type, compatible with C unsigned long long.

  Character code
  'Q'
```

### Inexact types

```python
class numpy.inexact
  Abstract base class of all numeric scalar types with a (potentially) inexact representation of the values in its range, such as floating-point numbers.
```

**Note:** Inexact scalars are printed using the fewest decimal digits needed to distinguish their value from other values of the same datatype, by judicious rounding. See the unique parameter of `format_float_positional` and `format_float_scientific`.

This means that variables with equal binary values but whose datatypes are of different precisions may display differently:

```python
>>> f16 = np.float16("0.1")
>>> f32 = np.float32(f16)
>>> f64 = np.float64(f32)
>>> f16 == f32 == f64
True
>>> f16, f32, f64
(0.1, 0.099975586, 0.0999755859375)
```

Note that none of these floats hold the exact value $\frac{1}{10}$: `f16` prints as 0.1 because it is as close to that value as possible, whereas the other types do not as they have more precision and therefore have closer values.

Conversely, floating-point scalars of different precisions which approximate the same decimal value may compare unequal despite printing identically:

```python
>>> f16 = np.float16("0.1")
>>> f32 = np.float32("0.1")
>>> f64 = np.float64("0.1")
>>> f16 == f32 == f64
False
>>> f16, f32, f64
(0.1, 0.1, 0.1)
```

### Floating-point types

```python
class numpy.floating
  Abstract base class of all floating-point scalar types.
```

```python
class numpy.half
  Half-precision floating-point number type.

  Character code
  'e'
```
Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

    numpy.float16: 16-bit-precision floating-point number type: sign bit, 5 bits exponent, 10 bits mantissa.

class numpy.single
    Single-precision floating-point number type, compatible with C float.
    Character code
    'f'
    Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

    numpy.float32: 32-bit-precision floating-point number type: sign bit, 8 bits exponent, 23 bits mantissa.

class numpy.double (x=0, /)
    Double-precision floating-point number type, compatible with Python float and C double.
    Character code
    'd'
    Alias
    numpy.float_
    Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

    numpy.float64: 64-bit precision floating-point number type: sign bit, 11 bits exponent, 52 bits mantissa.

class numpy.longdouble
    Extended-precision floating-point number type, compatible with C long double but not necessarily with IEEE 754 quadruple-precision.
    Character code
    'g'
    Alias
    numpy.longfloat
    Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

    numpy.float128: 128-bit extended-precision floating-point number type.

Complex floating-point types

class numpy.complexfloating
    Abstract base class of all complex number scalar types that are made up of floating-point numbers.

class numpy.csingle
    Complex number type composed of two single-precision floating-point numbers.
    Character code
    'F'
    Alias
    numpy.singlecomplex
Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

\texttt{numpy.complex64}: Complex number type composed of 2 32-bit-precision floating-point numbers.

\textbf{class} \texttt{numpy.cdouble}(\texttt{real}=0, \texttt{imag}=0)
Complex number type composed of two double-precision floating-point numbers, compatible with Python \texttt{complex}.

Character code

'\texttt{D}'

Alias

\texttt{numpy.cfloat}

Alias

\texttt{numpy.complex_}

Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

\texttt{numpy.complex128}: Complex number type composed of 2 64-bit-precision floating-point numbers.

\textbf{class} \texttt{numpy.clongdouble}
Complex number type composed of two extended-precision floating-point numbers.

Character code

'\texttt{G}'

Alias

\texttt{numpy.clongfloat}

Alias

\texttt{numpy.longcomplex}

Alias on this platform (Linux x86_64)

\texttt{numpy.complex256}: Complex number type composed of 2 128-bit extended-precision floating-point numbers.

\textbf{Other types}

\textbf{class} \texttt{numpy.bool_}
Boolean type (True or False), stored as a byte.

\begin{shaded}
\textbf{Warning}: The \texttt{bool} type is not a subclass of the \texttt{int} type (the \texttt{bool} is not even a number type). This is different than Python’s default implementation of \texttt{bool} as a sub-class of \texttt{int}.
\end{shaded}

Character code

'\texttt{?}'

Alias

\texttt{numpy.bool8}
class numpy.datetime64
If created from a 64-bit integer, it represents an offset from 1970-01-01T00:00:00. If created from string, the string can be in ISO 8601 date or datetime format.

```python
>>> np.datetime64(10, 'Y')
numpy.datetime64('1980')
>>> np.datetime64('1980')
numpy.datetime64('1980')
>>> np.datetime64(10, 'D')
numpy.datetime64('1970-01-11')
```

See Datetimes and Timedeltas for more information.

Character code

'M'

class numpy.timedelta64
A timedelta stored as a 64-bit integer.

See Datetimes and Timedeltas for more information.

Character code

'm'

class numpy.object_
Any Python object.

Character code

'O'

Note: The data actually stored in object arrays (i.e., arrays having dtype object) are references to Python objects, not the objects themselves. Hence, object arrays behave more like usual Python lists, in the sense that their contents need not be of the same Python type.

The object type is also special because an array containing object_ items does not return an object_ object on item access, but instead returns the actual object that the array item refers to.

The following data types are flexible: they have no predefined size and the data they describe can be of different length in different arrays. (In the character codes # is an integer denoting how many elements the data type consists of.)

class numpy.flexible
Abstract base class of all scalar types without predefined length. The actual size of these types depends on the specific np.dtype instantiation.

class numpy.bytes_
A byte string.

When used in arrays, this type strips trailing null bytes.

Character code

'S'

Alias

numpy.string_

class numpy.str_
A unicode string.
When used in arrays, this type strips trailing null codepoints.

Unlike the built-in `str`, this supports the Buffer Protocol, exposing its contents as UCS4:

```python
>>> m = memoryview(np.str_("abc"))
>>> m.format
'3w'
>>> m.tobytes()
b'a\x00\x00\x00b\x00\x00\x00c\x00\x00\x00'
```

### Character code

'U'

### Alias

`numpy.unicode_`

#### class `numpy.void`

Either an opaque sequence of bytes, or a structure.

```python
>>> np.void(b'abcd')
void(b'\x61\x62\x63\x64')
```

Structured `void` scalars can only be constructed via extraction from structured arrays:

```python
>>> arr = np.array(((1, 2), dtype=[('x', np.int8), ('y', np.int8)]))
>>> arr[()]
(1, 2) # looks like a tuple, but is 'np.void'
```

### Character code

'V'

---

**Warning:** See *Note on string types*.

Numeric Compatibility: If you used old typecode characters in your Numeric code (which was never recommended), you will need to change some of them to the new characters. In particular, the needed changes are:
- c -> S1
- b -> B
- 1 -> b
- s -> h
- w -> H
- u -> I.

These changes make the type character convention more consistent with other Python modules such as the `struct` module.

### Sized aliases

Along with their (mostly) C-derived names, the integer, float, and complex data-types are also available using a bit-width convention so that an array of the right size can always be ensured. Two aliases (`numpy.intp` and `numpy.uintp`) pointing to the integer type that is sufficiently large to hold a C pointer are also provided.

```python
numpy.bool8
  alias of `numpy.bool_`

numpy.int8
numpy.int16
numpy.int32
numpy.int64
```

Aliases for the signed integer types (one of `numpy.byte`, `numpy.short`, `numpy.intc`, `numpy.int_` and `numpy.longlong`) with the specified number of bits.
Compatible with the C99 int8_t, int16_t, int32_t, and int64_t, respectively.

**numpy.uint8**
**numpy.uint16**
**numpy.uint32**
**numpy.uint64**

Alias for the unsigned integer types (one of numpy.byte, numpy.short, numpy.intc, numpy.int_ and numpy.longlong) with the specified number of bits.

Compatible with the C99 uint8_t, uint16_t, uint32_t, and uint64_t, respectively.

**numpy.intp**

Alias for the signed integer type (one of numpy.byte, numpy.short, numpy.intc, numpy.int_ and np.longlong) that is the same size as a pointer.

Compatible with the C intptr_t.

**Character code**
'p'

**numpy.uintp**

Alias for the unsigned integer type (one of numpy.byte, numpy.short, numpy.intc, numpy.int_ and np.longlong) that is the same size as a pointer.

Compatible with the C uintptr_t.

**Character code**
'P'

**numpy.float16**

alias of numpy半

**numpy.float32**

alias of numpy.single

**numpy.float64**

alias of numpy.double

**numpy.float96**

**numpy.float128**

Alias for numpy.longdouble, named after its size in bits. The existence of these aliases depends on the platform.

**numpy.complex64**

alias of numpy.csingle

**numpy.complex128**

alias of numpy.cdouble

**numpy.complex192**

**numpy.complex256**

Alias for numpy.clongdouble, named after its size in bits. The existence of these aliases depends on the platform.
Other aliases

The first two of these are conveniences which resemble the names of the built-in types, in the same style as `bool`, `int`, `str`, `bytes`, and `object`:

```python
numpy.float_
    alias of numpy.double
```

```python
numpy.complex_
    alias of numpy.cdouble
```

Some more use alternate naming conventions for extended-precision floats and complex numbers:

```python
numpy.longfloat
    alias of numpy.longdouble
```

```python
numpy.singlecomplex
    alias of numpy.csingle
```

```python
numpy.cfloat
    alias of numpy.cdouble
```

```python
numpy.longcomplex
    alias of numpy.clongdouble
```

```python
numpy.clongfloat
    alias of numpy.clongdouble
```

The following aliases originate from Python 2, and it is recommended that they not be used in new code.

```python
numpy.string_
    alias of numpy.bytes_
```

```python
numpy.unicode_
    alias of numpy.str_
```

### 1.2.2 Attributes

The array scalar objects have an `array_priority` of `NPY_SCALAR_PRIORITY` (-1,000,000.0). They also do not (yet) have a `ctypes` attribute. Otherwise, they share the same attributes as arrays:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.flags</code></td>
<td>The integer value of flags.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.shape</code></td>
<td>Tuple of array dimensions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.strides</code></td>
<td>Tuple of bytes steps in each dimension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.ndim</code></td>
<td>The number of array dimensions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.data</code></td>
<td>Pointer to start of data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.size</code></td>
<td>The number of elements in the gentype.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.itemsize</code></td>
<td>The length of one element in bytes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.base</code></td>
<td>Scalar attribute identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.dtype</code></td>
<td>Get array data-descriptor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.real</code></td>
<td>The real part of the scalar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.imag</code></td>
<td>The imaginary part of the scalar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.flat</code></td>
<td>A 1-D view of the scalar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.T</code></td>
<td>Scalar attribute identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.__array_interface__</code></td>
<td>Array protocol: Python side</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2. Scalars
Table 22 – continued from previous page

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.__array_struct__</code></td>
<td>Array protocol: struct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.__array_priority__</code></td>
<td>Array priority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.__array_wrap__</code></td>
<td>sc.<strong>array_wrap</strong>(obj) return scalar from array</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

attribute

generic.flags
The integer value of flags.

attribute

generic.shape
Tuple of array dimensions.

attribute

generic.strides
Tuple of bytes steps in each dimension.

attribute

generic.ndim
The number of array dimensions.

attribute

generic.data
Pointer to start of data.

attribute

generic.size
The number of elements in the gentype.

attribute

generic.itemsize
The length of one element in bytes.

attribute

generic.base
Scalar attribute identical to the corresponding array attribute.

    Please see ndarray.base.

attribute

generic.dtype
Get array data-descriptor.

attribute

generic.real
The real part of the scalar.

attribute

generic.imag
The imaginary part of the scalar.

attribute

generic.flat
A 1-D view of the scalar.
attribute

```
generic.T
```
Scalar attribute identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.T`.

attribute

```
generic.__array_interface__
```
Array protocol: Python side

attribute

```
generic.__array_struct__
```
Array protocol: struct

attribute

```
generic.__array_priority__
```
Array priority.

method

```
generic.__array_wrap__(obj)
```
sc.__array_wrap__(obj) return scalar from array

### 1.2.3 Indexing

See also:

*Indexing, Data type objects (dtype)*

Array scalars can be indexed like 0-dimensional arrays: if \( x \) is an array scalar,

- \( x[()] \) returns a copy of array scalar
- \( x[...] \) returns a 0-dimensional `ndarray`
- \( x[\text{field-name}] \) returns the array scalar in the field \( \text{field-name} \). (\( x \) can have fields, for example, when it corresponds to a structured data type.)

### 1.2.4 Methods

Array scalars have exactly the same methods as arrays. The default behavior of these methods is to internally convert the scalar to an equivalent 0-dimensional array and to call the corresponding array method. In addition, math operations on array scalars are defined so that the same hardware flags are set and used to interpret the results as for `ufunc`, so that the error state used for `ufuncs` also carries over to the math on array scalars.

The exceptions to the above rules are given below:

```
generic.__array__ sc.__array__(dtype) return 0-dim array from scalar with specified dtype
```

```
generic.__array_wrap__ sc.__array_wrap__(obj) return scalar from array
```

```
generic.squeeze
```
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

```
generic.byteswap
```
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

```
generic.__reduce__
```
Helper for pickle.

[continues on next page]
### 1.2.5 Defining new types

There are two ways to effectively define a new array scalar type (apart from composing structured types `dtype` from the built-in scalar types): One way is to simply subclass the `ndarray` and overwrite the methods of interest. This will work to a degree, but internally certain behaviors are fixed by the data type of the array. To fully customize the data type of an array you need to define a new data-type, and register it with NumPy. Such new types can only be defined in C, using the `NumPy C-API`.

---

Table 23 – continued from previous page

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.__setstate__()</code></td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>generic.setflags()</code></td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Method**

`generic.__array__()`

```python
sc.__array__(dtype)
```

Return 0-dim array from scalar with specified dtype

**Method**

`generic.squeeze()`

Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.squeeze`.

**Method**

`generic.byteswap()`

Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.byteswap`.

**Method**

`generic.__reduce__()`

Helper for pickle.

**Method**

`generic.__setstate__()`
1.3 Data type objects (dtype)

A data type object (an instance of `numpy.dtype` class) describes how the bytes in the fixed-size block of memory corresponding to an array item should be interpreted. It describes the following aspects of the data:

1. Type of the data (integer, float, Python object, etc.)
2. Size of the data (how many bytes is in, e.g., the integer)
3. Byte order of the data (little-endian or big-endian)
4. If the data type is structured data type, an aggregate of other data types, (e.g., describing an array item consisting of an integer and a float),
   1. what are the names of the “fields” of the structure, by which they can be accessed,
   2. what is the data-type of each field, and
   3. which part of the memory block each field takes.
5. If the data type is a sub-array, what is its shape and data type.

To describe the type of scalar data, there are several *built-in scalar types* in NumPy for various precision of integers, floating-point numbers, *etc*. An item extracted from an array, e.g., by indexing, will be a Python object whose type is the scalar type associated with the data type of the array.

Note that the scalar types are not `dtype` objects, even though they can be used in place of one whenever a data type specification is needed in NumPy.

Structured data types are formed by creating a data type whose field contain other data types. Each field has a name by which it can be accessed. The parent data type should be of sufficient size to contain all its fields; the parent is nearly always based on the `void` type which allows an arbitrary item size. Structured data types may also contain nested structured sub-array data types in their fields.

Finally, a data type can describe items that are themselves arrays of items of another data type. These sub-arrays must, however, be of a fixed size.

If an array is created using a data-type describing a sub-array, the dimensions of the sub-array are appended to the shape of the array when the array is created. Sub-arrays in a field of a structured type behave differently, see *Field Access.*

Sub-arrays always have a C-contiguous memory layout.

**Example**

A simple data type containing a 32-bit big-endian integer: (see *Specifying and constructing data types* for details on construction)

```python
gt = np.dtype('>i4')  
gt.byteorder  
'>',  
gt.itemsize  
4  
gt.name  
'int32'  
gt.type is np.int32  
True
```

The corresponding array scalar type is `int32`.

**Example**
A structured data type containing a 16-character string (in field ‘name’) and a sub-array of two 64-bit floating-point number (in field ‘grades’):

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype([('name', np.unicode_, 16), ('grades', np.float64, (2,))])
>>> dt['name']
dtype('<U16')
>>> dt['grades']
dtype('<f8', (2,))
```

Items of an array of this data type are wrapped in an `array scalar` type that also has two fields:

```python
>>> x = np.array([('Sarah', (8.0, 7.0)), ('John', (6.0, 7.0))], dtype=dt)
>>> x[1]
('John', [6., 7.])
>>> x[1]['grades']
array([6., 7.])
>>> type(x[1])
<class 'numpy.void'>
>>> type(x[1]['grades'])
<class 'numpy.ndarray'>
```

### 1.3.1 Specifying and constructing data types

Whenever a data-type is required in a NumPy function or method, either a `dtype` object or something that can be converted to one can be supplied. Such conversions are done by the `dtype` constructor:

```python
dtype
```

Attributes

```python
class numpy.dtype
```

Attributes

**alignment**

The required alignment (bytes) of this data-type according to the compiler.

**base**

Returns dtype for the base element of the subarrays, regardless of their dimension or shape.

**byteorder**

A character indicating the byte-order of this data-type object.

**char**

A unique character code for each of the 21 different built-in types.

**descr**

__array_interface__ description of the data-type.

**fields**

Dictionary of named fields defined for this data type, or None.
flags
Bit-flags describing how this data type is to be interpreted.

hasobject
Boolean indicating whether this dtype contains any reference-counted objects in any fields or sub-dtypes.

isalignedstruct
Boolean indicating whether the dtype is a struct which maintains field alignment.

isbuiltin
Integer indicating how this dtype relates to the built-in dtypes.

isnative
Boolean indicating whether the byte order of this dtype is native to the platform.

itemsize
The element size of this data-type object.

kind
A character code (one of ‘biufcmMOSUV’) identifying the general kind of data.

metadata
Either None or a readonly dictionary of metadata (mappingproxy).

name
A bit-width name for this data-type.

names
Ordered list of field names, or None if there are no fields.

ndim
Number of dimensions of the sub-array if this data type describes a sub-array, and 0 otherwise.

num
A unique number for each of the 21 different built-in types.

shape
Shape tuple of the sub-array if this data type describes a sub-array, and () otherwise.

str
The array-protocol typestring of this data-type object.

subtype
Tuple (item_dtype, shape) if this dtype describes a sub-array, and None otherwise.

type
Methods

newbyteorder([new_order]) Return a new dtype with a different byte order.

Method
dtype.newbyteorder (new_order='S',)
  Return a new dtype with a different byte order.

Changes are also made in all fields and sub-arrays of the data type.

Parameters

new_order
  [string, optional] Byte order to force; a value from the byte order specifications below. The default value ('S') results in swapping the current byte order. new_order codes can be any of:
  • 'S' - swap dtype from current to opposite endian
  • {'<','little'} - little endian
  • {'>','big'} - big endian
  • '=' - native order
  • {'|','I'} - ignore (no change to byte order)

Returns

new_dtype
  [dtype] New dtype object with the given change to the byte order.

Notes

Changes are also made in all fields and sub-arrays of the data type.

Examples

>>> import sys
>>> sys_is_le = sys.byteorder == 'little'
>>> native_code = sys_is_le and '<' or '>
>>> swapped_code = sys_is_le and '>' or '<'
>>> native_dt = np.dtype(native_code+'i2')
>>> swapped_dt = np.dtype(swapped_code+'i2')
>>> native_dt.newbyteorder('S') == swapped_dt
True
>>> native_dt.newbyteorder() == swapped_dt
True
>>> native_dt == swapped_dt.newbyteorder('S')
True
>>> native_dt == swapped_dt.newbyteorder('=')
True
>>> native_dt == swapped_dt.newbyteorder('N')
True
>>> native_dt == native_dt.newbyteorder('|')
True

(continues on next page)
What can be converted to a data-type object is described below:

**dtype object**

Used as-is.

None

The default data type: *float*.

Array-scalar types

The 24 built-in *array scalar type objects* all convert to an associated data-type object. This is true for their subclasses as well.

Note that not all data-type information can be supplied with a type-object: for example, *flexible* data-types have a default *itemsize* of 0, and require an explicitly given size to be useful.

**Example**

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype(np.int32)  # 32-bit integer
>>> dt = np.dtype(np.complex128)  # 128-bit complex floating-point number
```

**Generic types**

The generic hierarchical type objects convert to corresponding type objects according to the associations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>number, inexact, floating</th>
<th>float</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>complex floating</td>
<td>cfloat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>integer, signed integer</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned integer</td>
<td>uint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>character</td>
<td>string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generic, flexible</td>
<td>void</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Deprecated since version 1.19: This conversion of generic scalar types is deprecated. This is because it can be unexpected in a context such as `arr.astype(dtype=np.floating)`, which casts an array of *float32* to an array of *float64*, even though *float32* is a subtype of *np.floating*.

**Built-in Python types**

Several python types are equivalent to a corresponding array scalar when used to generate a *dtype* object:

---

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(continued from previous page)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Equivalent Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>int_</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bool</td>
<td>bool_</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>float_</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complex</td>
<td>cfloat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bytes</td>
<td>bytes_</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>str</td>
<td>str_</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buffer</td>
<td>void</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that `str` refers to either null terminated bytes or unicode strings depending on the Python version. In code targeting both Python 2 and 3 `np.unicode_` should be used as a dtype for strings. See Note on string types.

### Example

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype(float)  # Python-compatible floating-point number
>>> dt = np.dtype(int)    # Python-compatible integer
>>> dt = np.dtype(object) # Python object
```

Note: All other types map to `object_` for convenience. Code should expect that such types may map to a specific (new) dtype in the future.

### Types with `.dtype`

Any type object with a `.dtype` attribute: The attribute will be accessed and used directly. The attribute must return something that is convertible into a dtype object.

Several kinds of strings can be converted. Recognized strings can be prepended with `'>'` (big-endian), `'<'` (little-endian), or ` '='` (hardware-native, the default), to specify the byte order.

### One-character strings

Each built-in data-type has a character code (the updated Numeric typecodes), that uniquely identifies it.

### Example

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype('b')    # byte, native byte order
>>> dt = np.dtype('>H')   # big-endian unsigned short
>>> dt = np.dtype('<f')   # little-endian single-precision float
>>> dt = np.dtype('d')    # double-precision floating-point number
```

### Array-protocol type strings (see The Array Interface)

The first character specifies the kind of data and the remaining characters specify the number of bytes per item, except for Unicode, where it is interpreted as the number of characters. The item size must correspond to an existing type, or an error will be raised. The supported kinds are
| 'b' | signed byte       |
| 'B' | unsigned byte     |
| 'i' | (signed) integer  |
| 'u' | unsigned integer  |
| 'f' | floating-point    |
| 'c' | complex-floating point |
| 'm' | timedelta         |
| 'M' | datetime          |
| 'O' | (Python) objects   |
| 'S', 'a' | zero-terminated bytes (not recommended) |
| 'U' | Unicode string     |
| 'V' | raw data (void)    |

Example

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype('i4')  # 32-bit signed integer
>>> dt = np.dtype('f8')  # 64-bit floating-point number
>>> dt = np.dtype('c16') # 128-bit complex floating-point number
>>> dt = np.dtype('a25') # 25-length zero-terminated bytes
>>> dt = np.dtype('U25') # 25-character string
```

Note on string types

For backward compatibility with Python 2 the S and a typestrings remain zero-terminated bytes and `numpy.string_.` continues to alias `numpy.bytes_`. To use actual strings in Python 3 use `U` or `numpy.str_`. For signed bytes that do not need zero-termination `b` or `i1` can be used.

String with comma-separated fields

A short-hand notation for specifying the format of a structured data type is a comma-separated string of basic formats.

A basic format in this context is an optional shape specifier followed by an array-protocol type string. Parenthesis are required on the shape if it has more than one dimension. NumPy allows a modification on the format in that any string that can uniquely identify the type can be used to specify the data-type in a field. The generated data-type fields are named 'f0', 'f1', ..., 'f<N-1>' where N (>=1) is the number of comma-separated basic formats in the string. If the optional shape specifier is provided, then the data-type for the corresponding field describes a sub-array.

Example

- field named `f0` containing a 32-bit integer
- field named `f1` containing a 2 x 3 sub-array of 64-bit floating-point numbers
- field named `f2` containing a 32-bit floating-point number

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype("i4, (2,3)f8, f4")
```

- field named `f0` containing a 3-character string
- field named `f1` containing a sub-array of shape (3,) containing 64-bit unsigned integers

1.3. Data type objects (dtype)
• field named `f2` containing a 3 x 4 sub-array containing 10-character strings

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype("a3, 3u8, (3,4)a10")
```

### Type strings

Any string in `numpy.sctypeDict.keys()`:

Example

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype('uint32')  # 32-bit unsigned integer
>>> dt = np.dtype('float64') # 64-bit floating-point number
```

### (flexible_dtype, itemsize)

The first argument must be an object that is converted to a zero-sized flexible data-type object, the second argument is an integer providing the desired itemsize.

Example

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype((np.void, 10))  # 10-byte wide data block
>>> dt = np.dtype(('U', 10))     # 10-character unicode string
```

### (fixed_dtype, shape)

The first argument is any object that can be converted into a fixed-size data-type object. The second argument is the desired shape of this type. If the shape parameter is 1, then the data-type object used to be equivalent to fixed dtype. This behaviour is deprecated since NumPy 1.17 and will raise an error in the future. If `shape` is a tuple, then the new dtype defines a sub-array of the given shape.

Example

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype((np.int32, (2,2)))  # 2 x 2 integer sub-array
>>> dt = np.dtype(('i4, (2,3)f8, f4', (2,3))) # 2 x 3 structured sub-array
```

```
[(field_name, field_dtype, field_shape), ...]
```

`obj` should be a list of fields where each field is described by a tuple of length 2 or 3. (Equivalent to the `descr` item in the `__array_interface__` attribute.)

The first element, `field_name`, is the field name (if this is `'` then a standard field name, 'f#', is assigned). The field name may also be a 2-tuple of strings where the first string is either a “title” (which may be any string or unicode string) or meta-data for the field which can be any object, and the second string is the “name” which must be a valid Python identifier.

The second element, `field_dtype`, can be anything that can be interpreted as a data-type.

The optional third element `field_shape` contains the shape if this field represents an array of the data-type in the second element. Note that a 3-tuple with a third argument equal to 1 is equivalent to a 2-tuple.

This style does not accept `align` in the `dtype` constructor as it is assumed that all of the memory is accounted for by the array interface description.
Example

Data-type with fields `big` (big-endian 32-bit integer) and `little` (little-endian 32-bit integer):

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype([('big', '>i4'), ('little', '<i4')])
```

Data-type with fields R, G, B, A, each being an unsigned 8-bit integer:

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype([('R', 'u1'), ('G', 'u1'), ('B', 'u1'), ('A', 'u1')])
```

```python
dict
{'names': ..., 'formats': ..., 'offsets': ..., 'titles': ..., 'itemsize': ...}
```

This style has two required and three optional keys. The `names` and `formats` keys are required. Their respective values are equal-length lists with the field names and the field formats. The field names must be strings and the field formats can be any object accepted by `dtype` constructor.

When the optional keys `offsets` and `titles` are provided, their values must each be lists of the same length as the `names` and `formats` lists. The `offsets` value is a list of byte offsets (limited to `ctypes.c_int`) for each field, while the `titles` value is a list of titles for each field (None can be used if no title is desired for that field). The `titles` can be any object, but when a `str` object will add another entry to the fields dictionary keyed by the title and referencing the same field tuple which will contain the title as an additional tuple member.

The `itemsize` key allows the total size of the dtype to be set, and must be an integer large enough so all the fields are within the dtype. If the dtype being constructed is aligned, the `itemsize` must also be divisible by the struct alignment. Total dtype `itemsize` is limited to `ctypes.c_int`.

Example

Data type with fields r, g, b, a, each being an 8-bit unsigned integer:

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype({
...     'names': ['r', 'g', 'b', 'a'],
...     'formats': [np.uint8, np.uint8, np.uint8, np.uint8]
... })
```

Data type with fields r and b (with the given titles), both being 8-bit unsigned integers, the first at byte position 0 from the start of the field and the second at position 2:

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype({
...     'names': ['r', 'b'],
...     'formats': ['u1', 'u1'],
...     'offsets': [0, 2],
...     'titles': ['Red pixel', 'Blue pixel']
... })
```

```python
dict
{'field1': ..., 'field2': ..., ...}
```

This usage is discouraged, because it is ambiguous with the other dict-based construction method. If you have a field called 'names' and a field called 'formats' there will be a conflict.

This style allows passing in the `fields` attribute of a data-type object.

`obj` should contain string or unicode keys that refer to (data-type, offset) or (data-type, offset, title) tuples.

Example

Data type containing field `col1` (10-character string at byte position 0), `col2` (32-bit float at byte position 10), and `col3` (integers at byte position 14):
```python
>>> dt = np.dtype({'col1': ('U10', 0), 'col2': (np.float32, 10),
                  'col3': (int, 14))
```

(base_dtype, new_dtype)

In NumPy 1.7 and later, this form allows `base_dtype` to be interpreted as a structured dtype. Arrays created with this dtype will have underlying dtype `base_dtype` but will have fields and flags taken from `new_dtype`. This is useful for creating custom structured dtypes, as done in record arrays.

This form also makes it possible to specify struct dtypes with overlapping fields, functioning like the ‘union’ type in C. This usage is discouraged, however, and the union mechanism is preferred.

Both arguments must be convertible to data-type objects with the same total size.

Example

32-bit integer, whose first two bytes are interpreted as an integer via field `real`, and the following two bytes via field `imag`.

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype((np.int32, {'real': (np.int16, 0), 'imag': (np.int16, 2)})
```

32-bit integer, which is interpreted as consisting of a sub-array of shape (4,) containing 8-bit integers:

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype((np.int32, (np.int8, 4)))
```

32-bit integer, containing fields `r`, `g`, `b`, `a` that interpret the 4 bytes in the integer as four unsigned integers:

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype(('i4', [('r', 'u1'), ('g', 'u1'), ('b', 'u1'), ('a', 'u1')]))
```

1.3.2 dtype

NumPy data type descriptions are instances of the `dtype` class.

Attributes

The type of the data is described by the following `dtype` attributes:

- **dtype.type**: None
- **dtype.kind**: A character code (one of 'biufcmMOSUV') identifying the general kind of data.
- **dtype.char**: A unique character code for each of the 21 different built-in types.
- **dtype.num**: A unique number for each of the 21 different built-in types.
- **dtype.str**: The array-protocol typestring of this data-type object.
**dtype.kind**
A character code (one of ‘biufcmMOSUV’) identifying the general kind of data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>b</th>
<th>boolean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>signed integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>unsigned integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>floating-point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>complex floating-point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>timedelta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>datetime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>(byte-)string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>Unicode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>void</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Examples**

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype('i4')
>>> dt.kind
'i'
>>> dt = np.dtype('f8')
>>> dt.kind
'f'
>>> dt = np.dtype([('field1', 'f8')])
>>> dt.kind
'V'
```

**attribute**

dtype.char
A unique character code for each of the 21 different built-in types.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.dtype(float)
>>> x.char
'd'
```

**attribute**

dtype.num
A unique number for each of the 21 different built-in types.

These are roughly ordered from least-to-most precision.
Examples

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype(str)
>>> dt.num
19
```

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype(float)
>>> dt.num
12
```

**attribute**

**dtype.str**

The array-protocol type-string of this data-type object.

Size of the data is in turn described by:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dtype.name</td>
<td>A bit-width name for this data-type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dtype.itemsize</td>
<td>The element size of this data-type object.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**attribute**

**dtype.name**

A bit-width name for this data-type.

Un-sized flexible data-type objects do not have this attribute.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.dtype(float)
>>> x.name
'float64'
>>> x = np.dtype([('a', np.int32, 8), ('b', np.float64, 6)])
>>> x.name
'void640'
```

**attribute**

**dtype.itemsize**

The element size of this data-type object.

For 18 of the 21 types this number is fixed by the data-type. For the flexible data-types, this number can be anything.

Examples

```python
>>> arr = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> arr.dtype
dtype('int64')
>>> arr.itemsize
8
```

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype([('name', np.str_, 16), ('grades', np.float64, (2,))])
>>> dt.itemsize
80
```
Endianness of this data:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><code>dtype.byteorder</code></th>
<th>A character indicating the byte-order of this data-type object.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

attribute

`dtype.byteorder`

A character indicating the byte-order of this data-type object.

One of:

| `=` | native |
| `<' | little-endian |
| `>' | big-endian |
| `|` | not applicable |

All built-in data-type objects have byteorder either ‘=’ or ‘|’.

**Examples**

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype('i2')
>>> dt.byteorder
'='
>>> # endian is not relevant for 8 bit numbers
>>> np.dtype('i1').byteorder
'|'
>>> # or ASCII strings
>>> np.dtype('S2').byteorder
'|'
>>> # Even if specific code is given, and it is native
>>> # '=' is the byteorder
>>> import sys
>>> sys_is_le = sys.byteorder == 'little'
>>> native_code = sys_is_le and '<' or '>
>>> swapped_code = sys_is_le and '>' or '<
>>> dt = np.dtype(native_code + 'i2')
>>> dt.byteorder
'=,'
>>> # Swapped code shows up as itself
>>> dt = np.dtype(swapped_code + 'i2')
>>> dt.byteorder == swapped_code
True
```

Information about sub-data-types in a structured data type:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><code>dtype.fields</code></th>
<th>Dictionary of named fields defined for this data type, or None.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>dtype.names</code></td>
<td>Ordered list of field names, or None if there are no fields.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

attribute

`dtype.fields`

Dictionary of named fields defined for this data type, or None.

1.3. Data type objects (`dtype`) 83
The dictionary is indexed by keys that are the names of the fields. Each entry in the dictionary is a tuple fully describing the field:

```
(dtype, offset[, title])
```

Offset is limited to C int, which is signed and usually 32 bits. If present, the optional title can be any object (if it is a string or unicode then it will also be a key in the fields dictionary, otherwise it's meta-data). Notice also that the first two elements of the tuple can be passed directly as arguments to the `ndarray.getfield` and `ndarray.setfield` methods.

See also:

`ndarray.getfield`, `ndarray.setfield`

**Examples**

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype([('name', np.str_, 16), ('grades', np.float64, (2,))])
>>> print(dt.fields)
{'grades': (dtype(('float64',(2,))), 16), 'name': (dtype('|S16'), 0)}
```

**attribute**

dtype.names

Ordered list of field names, or `None` if there are no fields.

The names are ordered according to increasing byte offset. This can be used, for example, to walk through all of the named fields in offset order.

**Examples**

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype([('name', np.str_, 16), ('grades', np.float64, (2,))])
>>> dt.names
('name', 'grades')
```

For data types that describe sub-arrays:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>attribute</strong></th>
<th><strong>dtype.subdtype</strong></th>
<th>Tuple <code>(item_dtype, shape)</code> if this <code>dtype</code> describes a sub-array, and <code>None</code> otherwise.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>dtype.shape</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Shape tuple of the sub-array if this data type describes a sub-array, and () otherwise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**attribute**

dtype.subdtype

Tuple `(item_dtype, shape)` if this `dtype` describes a sub-array, and `None` otherwise.

The `shape` is the fixed shape of the sub-array described by this data type, and `item_dtype` the data type of the array.

If a field whose dtype object has this attribute is retrieved, then the extra dimensions implied by `shape` are tacked on to the end of the retrieved array.

See also:

`dtype.base`
Examples

```python
>>> x = numpy.dtype('8f')
>>> x.subdtype
(dtype('float32'), (8,))
```

```python
>>> x = numpy.dtype('i2')
>>> x.subdtype
```

attribute `dtype.shape`
Shape tuple of the sub-array if this data type describes a sub-array, and () otherwise.

Examples

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype((['i4', 4])
>>> dt.shape
(4,)
```

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype((['i4', (2, 3)]))
>>> dt.shape
(2, 3)
```

Attributes providing additional information:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>dtype.hasobject</code></td>
<td>Boolean indicating whether this dtype contains any reference-counted objects in any fields or sub-dtypes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dtype.flags</code></td>
<td>Bit-flags describing how this data type is to be interpreted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dtype.isbuiltin</code></td>
<td>Integer indicating how this dtype relates to the built-in dtypes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dtype.isnative</code></td>
<td>Boolean indicating whether the byte order of this dtype is native to the platform.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dtype.descr</code></td>
<td><strong>array_interface</strong> description of the data-type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dtype.alignment</code></td>
<td>The required alignment (bytes) of this data-type according to the compiler.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dtype.base</code></td>
<td>Returns dtype for the base element of the subarrays, regardless of their dimension or shape.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

attribute `dtype.hasobject`
Boolean indicating whether this dtype contains any reference-counted objects in any fields or sub-dtypes.

Recall that what is actually in the ndarray memory representing the Python object is the memory address of that object (a pointer). Special handling may be required, and this attribute is useful for distinguishing data types that may contain arbitrary Python objects and data-types that won’t.

attribute `dtype.flags`
Bit-flags describing how this data type is to be interpreted.

Bit-masks are in `numpy.core.multiarray` as the constants `ITEM_HASOBJECT`, `LIST_PICKLE`, `STRUCT`, and `NONE_OBJECT`.
ITEM_IS_POINTER, NEEDS_INIT, NEEDS_PYAPI, USE_GETITEM, USE_SETITEM. A full explanation of these flags is in C-API documentation; they are largely useful for user-defined data-types.

The following example demonstrates that operations on this particular dtype requires Python C-API.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.dtype([('a', np.int32, 8), ('b', np.float64, 6)])
>>> x.flags
16
>>> np.core.multiarray.NEEDS_PYAPI
16
```

**attribute**

dtype.isbuiltin

Integer indicating how this dtype relates to the built-in dtypes.

Read-only.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>if this is a structured array type, with fields</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>if this is a dtype compiled into numpy (such as ints, floats etc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>if the dtype is for a user-defined numpy type A user-defined type uses the numpy C-API machinery to extend numpy to handle a new array type. See user.user-defined-data-types in the NumPy manual.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Examples**

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype('i2')
>>> dt.isbuiltin
1
>>> dt = np.dtype('f8')
>>> dt.isbuiltin
1
>>> dt = np.dtype([('field1', 'f8')])
>>> dt.isbuiltin
0
```

**attribute**

dtype.isnative

Boolean indicating whether the byte order of this dtype is native to the platform.

**attribute**

dtype.descr

__array_interface__ description of the data-type.

The format is that required by the 'descr' key in the __array_interface__ attribute.

Warning: This attribute exists specifically for __array_interface__, and passing it directly to np.dtype will not accurately reconstruct some dtypes (e.g., scalar and subarray dtypes).
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.dtype(float)
>>> x_descr
[('', '<f8')]
```

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype([('name', np.str_, 16), ('grades', np.float64, (2,))])
>>> dt_descr
[('name', '<U16'), ('grades', '<f8', (2,))]
```

```
attribute
dtype.alignment
The required alignment (bytes) of this data-type according to the compiler.
More information is available in the C-API section of the manual.
```

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.dtype('i4')
>>> x.alignment
4
```

```python
>>> x = np.dtype(float)
>>> x.alignment
8
```

```
attribute
dtype.base
Returns dtype for the base element of the subarrays, regardless of their dimension or shape.
See also:
dtype.subdtype
```

Examples

```python
>>> x = numpy.dtype('8f')
>>> x.base
dtype('float32')
```

```python
>>> x = numpy.dtype('i2')
>>> x.base
dtype('int16')
```

Metadata attached by the user:

```
dtype.metadata
Either None or a readonly dictionary of metadata (mappingproxy).
```

attribute
dtype.metadata

1.3. Data type objects (dtype)
Either None or a readonly dictionary of metadata (mappingproxy).

The metadata field can be set using any dictionary at data-type creation. NumPy currently has no uniform approach to propagating metadata; although some array operations preserve it, there is no guarantee that others will.

**Warning:** Although used in certain projects, this feature was long undocumented and is not well supported. Some aspects of metadata propagation are expected to change in the future.

**Examples**

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype(float, metadata={'key': 'value'})
>>> dt.metadata['key']
'value'
>>> arr = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=dt)
>>> arr.dtype.metadata
mappingproxy({'key': 'value'})
```

Adding arrays with identical datatypes currently preserves the metadata:

```python
>>> (arr + arr).dtype.metadata
mappingproxy({'key': 'value'})
```

But if the arrays have different dtype metadata, the metadata may be dropped:

```python
>>> dt2 = np.dtype(float, metadata={'key2': 'value2'})
>>> arr2 = np.array([3, 2, 1], dtype=dt2)
>>> (arr + arr2).dtype.metadata is None
True  # The metadata field is cleared so None is returned
```

**Methods**

Data types have the following method for changing the byte order:

```python
dtype.newbyteorder([new_order])
```

Return a new dtype with a different byte order.

The following methods implement the pickle protocol:

```python
dtype.__reduce__
```

Helper for pickle.

```python
dtype.__setstate__
```

method
dtype.__reduce__()  
Helper for pickle.

method
dtype.__setstate__()
1.4 Indexing

See also:

Indexing basics

`ndarrays` can be indexed using the standard Python `x[obj]` syntax, where `x` is the array and `obj` the selection. There are three kinds of indexing available: field access, basic slicing, advanced indexing. Which one occurs depends on `obj`.

Note: In Python, `x[(exp1, exp2, ..., expN)]` is equivalent to `x[exp1, exp2, ..., expN]:` the latter is just syntactic sugar for the former.

1.4.1 Basic Slicing and Indexing

Basic slicing extends Python’s basic concept of slicing to N dimensions. Basic slicing occurs when `obj` is a `slice` object (constructed by `start:stop:step` notation inside of brackets), an integer, or a tuple of slice objects and integers. `Ellipsis` and `newaxis` objects can be interspersed with these as well.

Deprecated since version 1.15.0: In order to remain backward compatible with a common usage in Numeric, basic slicing is also initiated if the selection object is any non-ndarray and non-tuple sequence (such as a `list`) containing `slice` objects, the `Ellipsis` object, or the `newaxis` object, but not for integer arrays or other embedded sequences.

The simplest case of indexing with `N` integers returns an `array scalar` representing the corresponding item. As in Python, all indices are zero-based: for the `i`-th index `n_i`, the valid range is `0 ≤ n_i < d_i` where `d_i` is the `i`-th element of the shape of the array. Negative indices are interpreted as counting from the end of the array (i.e., if `n_i < 0`, it means `n_i + d_i`).

All arrays generated by basic slicing are always views of the original array.

Note: NumPy slicing creates a view instead of a copy as in the case of built-in Python sequences such as string, tuple and list. Care must be taken when extracting a small portion from a large array which becomes useless after the extraction, because the small portion extracted contains a reference to the large original array whose memory will not be released until all arrays derived from it are garbage-collected. In such cases an explicit `copy()` is recommended.

The standard rules of sequence slicing apply to basic slicing on a per-dimension basis (including using a step index). Some useful concepts to remember include:

- The basic slice syntax is `i:j:k` where `i` is the starting index, `j` is the stopping index, and `k` is the step (`k ≠ 0`). This selects the `m` elements (in the corresponding dimension) with index values `i, i + k, ..., i + (m - 1) k` where `m = q + (r ≠ 0)` and `q` and `r` are the quotient and remainder obtained by dividing `j - i` by `k`: `j - i = q k + r`, so that `i + (m - 1) k < j`.

Example

```python
>>> x = np.array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
>>> x[1:7:2]
array([1, 3, 5])
```

- Negative `i` and `j` are interpreted as `n + i` and `n + j` where `n` is the number of elements in the corresponding dimension. Negative `k` makes stepping go towards smaller indices.

Example
• Assume \( n \) is the number of elements in the dimension being sliced. Then, if \( i \) is not given it defaults to 0 for \( k > 0 \) and \( n - 1 \) for \( k < 0 \). If \( j \) is not given it defaults to \( n \) for \( k > 0 \) and \( -n - 1 \) for \( k < 0 \). If \( k \) is not given it defaults to 1.

Example

```python
>>> x[5:]
array([5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
```

• If the number of objects in the selection tuple is less than \( N \), then \( : \) is assumed for any subsequent dimensions.

Example

```python
>>> x = np.array([[[[1], [2], [3]], [[4], [5], [6]]]])
>>> x.shape
(2, 3, 1)
>>> x[1:2]
array([[[4],
        [5],
        [6]]])
```

• **Ellipsis** expands to the number of \( : \) objects needed for the selection tuple to index all dimensions. In most cases, this means that length of the expanded selection tuple is \( x.ndarray \). There may only be a single ellipsis present.

Example

```python
>>> x[...,0]
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
```

• Each **newaxis** object in the selection tuple serves to expand the dimensions of the resulting selection by one unit-length dimension. The added dimension is the position of the **newaxis** object in the selection tuple.

Example

```python
>>> x[:, np.newaxis, :, :].shape
(2, 1, 3, 1)
```

• An integer, \( i \), returns the same values as \( i:i+1 \) except the dimensionality of the returned object is reduced by 1. In particular, a selection tuple with the \( p \)-th element an integer (and all other entries \( : \)) returns the corresponding sub-array with dimension \( N - 1 \). If \( N = 1 \) then the returned object is an array scalar. These objects are explained in **Scalars**.
• If the selection tuple has all entries except the $p$-th entry which is a slice object $i:j:k$, then the returned array has dimension $N$ formed by concatenating the sub-arrays returned by integer indexing of elements $i, i+k, \ldots, i + (m - 1)k < j$.

• Basic slicing with more than one non-: entry in the slicing tuple, acts like repeated application of slicing using a single non-: entry, where the non-: entries are successively taken (with all other non-: entries replaced by :). Thus, $x[ind1,\ldots,ind2,:]$ acts like $x[ind1][\ldots,ind2,:]$ under basic slicing.

**Warning:** The above is **not** true for advanced indexing.

• You may use slicing to set values in the array, but (unlike lists) you can never grow the array. The size of the value to be set in $x[obj] = value$ must be (broadcastable) to the same shape as $x[obj]$.

**Note:** Remember that a slicing tuple can always be constructed as $obj$ and used in the $x[obj]$ notation. Slice objects can be used in the construction in place of the $[start:stop:step]$ notation. For example, $x[1:10:5,:-1]$ can also be implemented as $obj = (slice(1,10,5), slice(None,None,-1)); x[obj]$. This can be useful for constructing generic code that works on arrays of arbitrary dimension.

```
numpy.newaxis
```

The `newaxis` object can be used in all slicing operations to create an axis of length one. `newaxis` is an alias for ‘None’, and ‘None’ can be used in place of this with the same result.

### 1.4.2 Advanced Indexing

Advanced indexing is triggered when the selection object, $obj$, is a non-tuple sequence object, an `ndarray` (of data type integer or bool), or a tuple with at least one sequence object or `ndarray` (of data type integer or bool). There are two types of advanced indexing: integer and Boolean.

Advanced indexing always returns a copy of the data (contrast with basic slicing that returns a view).

**Warning:** The definition of advanced indexing means that $x[(1,2,3),]$ is fundamentally different than $x[[1,2,3]]$. The latter is equivalent to $x[1,2,3]$ which will trigger basic selection while the former will trigger advanced indexing. Be sure to understand why this occurs.

Also recognize that $x[[1,2,3]]$ will trigger advanced indexing, whereas due to the deprecated Numeric compatibility mentioned above, $x[[1,2,slice(None)]]$ will trigger basic slicing.

**Integer array indexing**

Integer array indexing allows selection of arbitrary items in the array based on their $N$-dimensional index. Each integer array represents a number of indexes into that dimension.
Purely integer array indexing

When the index consists of as many integer arrays as the array being indexed has dimensions, the indexing is straight forward, but different from slicing.

Advanced indexes always are broadcast and iterated as one:

\[
\text{result}[i_1, \ldots, i_M] = x[\text{ind}_1[i_1, \ldots, i_M], \text{ind}_2[i_1, \ldots, i_M], \ldots, \text{ind}_N[i_1, \ldots, i_M]]
\]

Note that the result shape is identical to the (broadcast) indexing array shapes \(\text{ind}_1, \ldots, \text{ind}_N\).

Example

From each row, a specific element should be selected. The row index is just [0, 1, 2] and the column index specifies the element to choose for the corresponding row, here [0, 1, 0]. Using both together the task can be solved using advanced indexing:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4], [5, 6]])
>>> x[[0, 1, 2], [0, 1, 0]]
array([[1, 4], [3, 4], [5, 0]])
```

To achieve a behaviour similar to the basic slicing above, broadcasting can be used. The function \(\text{ix}\) can help with this broadcasting. This is best understood with an example.

Example

From a 4x3 array the corner elements should be selected using advanced indexing. Thus all elements for which the column is one of [0, 2] and the row is one of [0, 3] need to be selected. To use advanced indexing one needs to select all elements explicitly. Using the method explained previously one could write:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[ 0, 1, 2],
...                [ 3, 4, 5],
...                [ 6, 7, 8],
...                [ 9, 10, 11]])
>>> rows = np.array([[0, 0],
...                   [3, 3]], dtype=np.intp)
>>> columns = np.array([[0, 2],
...                      [0, 2]], dtype=np.intp)
>>> x[rows, columns]
array([[ 0, 2],
       [ 9, 11]])
```

However, since the indexing arrays above just repeat themselves, broadcasting can be used (compare operations such as \(\text{rows}[:, \text{np.newaxis}] + \text{columns}\)) to simplify this:

```python
>>> rows = np.array([0, 3], dtype=np.intp)
>>> columns = np.array([0, 2], dtype=np.intp)
>>> rows[:, np.newaxis] + columns
array([[0, 2],
       [3, 2]])
>>> x[rows, columns]
array([[ 0, 2],
       [ 9, 11]])
```

This broadcasting can also be achieved using the function \(\text{ix}\):

```python
```
>>> x[np.ix_((rows, columns))]
array([[ 0,  2],
       [ 9, 11]])

Note that without the np.ix_ call, only the diagonal elements would be selected, as was used in the previous example. This difference is the most important thing to remember about indexing with multiple advanced indexes.

Combining advanced and basic indexing

When there is at least one slice (:), ellipsis (…) or newaxis in the index (or the array has more dimensions than there are advanced indexes), then the behaviour can be more complicated. It is like concatenating the indexing result for each advanced index element.

In the simplest case, there is only a single advanced index. A single advanced index can for example replace a slice and the result array will be the same, however, it is a copy and may have a different memory layout. A slice is preferable when it is possible.

Example

>>> x[1:2, 1:3]
array([[4, 5]])

>>> x[1:2, [1, 2]]
array([[4, 5]])

The easiest way to understand the situation may be to think in terms of the result shape. There are two parts to the indexing operation, the subspace defined by the basic indexing (excluding integers) and the subspace from the advanced indexing part. Two cases of index combination need to be distinguished:

- The advanced indexes are separated by a slice, Ellipsis or newaxis. For example x[arr1, :, arr2].
- The advanced indexes are all next to each other. For example x[…, arr1, arr2, :] but not x[arr1, :, 1] since 1 is an advanced index in this regard.

In the first case, the dimensions resulting from the advanced indexing operation come first in the result array, and the subspace dimensions after that. In the second case, the dimensions from the advanced indexing operations are inserted into the result array at the same spot as they were in the initial array (the latter logic is what makes simple advanced indexing behave just like slicing).

Example

Suppose x.shape is (10,20,30) and ind is a (2,3,4)-shaped indexing array, then result = x[…, ind, :] has shape (10,2,3,4,30) because the (20,)-shaped subspace has been replaced with a (2,3,4)-shaped broadcasted indexing subspace. If we let i, j, k loop over the (2,3,4)-shaped subspace then result[…, i, j, k, :] = x[…, ind[i, j, k], :]. This example produces the same result as x.take(ind, axis=-2).

Example

Let x.shape be (10,20,30,40,50) and suppose ind_1 and ind_2 can be broadcast to the shape (2,3,4). Then x[:, ind_1, ind_2] has shape (10,2,3,4,40,50) because the (20,30)-shaped subspace from X has been replaced with the (2,3,4) subspace from the indices. However, x[:, ind_1, :, ind_2] has shape (2,3,4,10,30,50) because there is no unambiguous place to drop in the indexing subspace, thus it is tacked-on to the beginning. It is always possible to use .transpose() to move the subspace anywhere desired. Note that this example cannot be replicated using take.
**Boolean array indexing**

This advanced indexing occurs when obj is an array object of Boolean type, such as may be returned from comparison operators. A single boolean index array is practically identical to \(x[\text{obj.nonzero()}]\) where, as described above, \(\text{obj.nonzero()}\) returns a tuple (of length \(\text{obj.ndim}\)) of integer index arrays showing the True elements of obj. However, it is faster when \(\text{obj.shape} == x\\text{shape}\).

If \(\text{obj.ndim} == x\\text{.ndim}\), \(x[\text{obj}]\) returns a 1-dimensional array filled with the elements of \(x\) corresponding to the True values of \(\text{obj}\). The search order will be row-major, C-style. If \(\text{obj}\) has True values at entries that are outside of the bounds of \(x\), then an index error will be raised. If \(\text{obj}\) is smaller than \(x\) it is identical to filling it with False.

**Example**

A common use case for this is filtering for desired element values. For example one may wish to select all entries from an array which are not NaN:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1., 2.], [np.nan, 3.], [np.nan, np.nan]])
>>> x[~np.isnan(x)]
array([1., 2., 3.])
```

Or wish to add a constant to all negative elements:

```python
>>> x = np.array([1., -1., -2., 3])
>>> x[x < 0] += 20
>>> x
array([  1.,  19.,  18.,   3.])
```

In general if an index includes a Boolean array, the result will be identical to inserting \(\text{obj.nonzero()}\) into the same position and using the integer array indexing mechanism described above. \(x[\text{ind}_1, \text{boolean_array}, \text{ind}_2]\) is equivalent to \(x[\text{ind}_1,) + \text{boolean_array.nonzero()} + (\text{ind}_2,)\).

If there is only one Boolean array and no integer indexing array present, this is straight forward. Care must only be taken to make sure that the boolean index has exactly as many dimensions as it is supposed to work with.

**Example**

From an array, select all rows which sum up to less or equal two:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[0, 1], [1, 1], [2, 2]])
>>> rowsum = x.sum(-1)
>>> x[rowsum <= 2, :]
array([[0, 1],
       [1, 1]])
```

Combining multiple Boolean indexing arrays or a Boolean with an integer indexing array can best be understood with the \(\text{obj.nonzero()}\) analogy. The function \(\text{ix}\_\) also supports boolean arrays and will work without any surprises.

**Example**

Use boolean indexing to select all rows adding up to an even number. At the same time columns 0 and 2 should be selected with an advanced integer index. Using the \(\text{ix}\_\) function this can be done with:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[0, 1, 2],
                 ...             [3, 4, 5],
                 ...             [6, 7, 8],
                 ...             [9, 10, 2]])
```

(continues on next page)
Without the `np.ix_` call, only the diagonal elements would be selected.

Or without `np.ix_` (compare the integer array examples):

```python
>>> rows = rows.nonzero()[0]
>>> x[rows[:, np.newaxis], columns]
array([[ 3,  5],
       [ 9, 11]])
```

### 1.4.3 Detailed notes

These are some detailed notes, which are not of importance for day to day indexing (in no particular order):

- The native NumPy indexing type is `intp` and may differ from the default integer array type. `intp` is the smallest data type sufficient to safely index any array; for advanced indexing it may be faster than other types.

- For advanced assignments, there is in general no guarantee for the iteration order. This means that if an element is set more than once, it is not possible to predict the final result.

- An empty (tuple) index is a full scalar index into a zero dimensional array. `x[()]` returns a scalar if `x` is zero dimensional and a view otherwise. On the other hand `x[...]` always returns a view.

- If a zero dimensional array is present in the index and it is a full integer index the result will be a scalar and not a zero dimensional array. (Advanced indexing is not triggered.)

- When an ellipsis `(...)` is present but has no size (i.e. replaces zero :) the result will still always be an array. A view if no advanced index is present, otherwise a copy.

- The `nonzero` equivalence for Boolean arrays does not hold for zero dimensional boolean arrays.

- When the result of an advanced indexing operation has no elements but an individual index is out of bounds, whether or not an `IndexError` is raised is undefined (e.g. `x[[], [123]]` with 123 being out of bounds).

- When a casting error occurs during assignment (for example updating a numerical array using a sequence of strings), the array being assigned to may end up in an unpredictable partially updated state. However, if any other error (such as an out of bounds index) occurs, the array will remain unchanged.

- The memory layout of an advanced indexing result is optimized for each indexing operation and no particular memory order can be assumed.

- When using a subclass (especially one which manipulates its shape), the default `ndarray.__setitem__` behaviour will call `__getitem__` for basic indexing but not for advanced indexing. For such a subclass it may be preferable to call `ndarray.__setitem__` with a base class ndarray view on the data. This must be done if the subclasses `__getitem__` does not return views.
1.4.4 Field Access

See also:

Data type objects (dtype), Scalars

If the ndarray object is a structured array the fields of the array can be accessed by indexing the array with strings, dictionary-like.

Indexing `x['field-name']` returns a new view to the array, which is of the same shape as `x` (except when the field is a sub-array) but of data type `x.dtype['field-name']` and contains only the part of the data in the specified field. Also record array scalars can be “indexed” this way.

Indexing into a structured array can also be done with a list of field names, e.g. `x[['field-name1', 'field-name2']]`. As of NumPy 1.16 this returns a view containing only those fields. In older versions of numpy it returned a copy. See the user guide section on structured_arrays for more information on multifield indexing.

If the accessed field is a sub-array, the dimensions of the sub-array are appended to the shape of the result.

Example

```python
>>> x = np.zeros((2,2), dtype=[('a', np.int32), ('b', np.float64, (3,3))])
>>> x['a'].shape
(2, 2)
>>> x['a'].dtype
dtype('int32')
>>> x['b'].shape
(2, 2, 3, 3)
>>> x['b'].dtype
dtype('float64')
```

1.4.5 Flat Iterator indexing

`x.flat` returns an iterator that will iterate over the entire array (in C-contiguous style with the last index varying the fastest). This iterator object can also be indexed using basic slicing or advanced indexing as long as the selection object is not a tuple. This should be clear from the fact that `x.flat` is a 1-dimensional view. It can be used for integer indexing with 1-dimensional C-style-flat indices. The shape of any returned array is therefore the shape of the integer indexing object.

1.5 Iterating Over Arrays

**Note:** Arrays support the iterator protocol and can be iterated over like Python lists. See the quickstart.indexing-slicing-and-iterating section in the Quickstart guide for basic usage and examples. The remainder of this document presents the `nditer` object and covers more advanced usage.

The iterator object `nditer` introduced in NumPy 1.6, provides many flexible ways to visit all the elements of one or more arrays in a systematic fashion. This page introduces some basic ways to use the object for computations on arrays in Python, then concludes with how one can accelerate the inner loop in Cython. Since the Python exposure of `nditer` is a relatively straightforward mapping of the C array iterator API, these ideas will also provide help working with array iteration from C or C++.
1.5.1 Single Array Iteration

The most basic task that can be done with the `nditer` is to visit every element of an array. Each element is provided one by one using the standard Python iterator interface.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> for x in np.nditer(a):
...    print(x, end=' ')
... 0 1 2 3 4 5
```

An important thing to be aware of for this iteration is that the order is chosen to match the memory layout of the array instead of using a standard C or Fortran ordering. This is done for access efficiency, reflecting the idea that by default one simply wants to visit each element without concern for a particular ordering. We can see this by iterating over the transpose of our previous array, compared to taking a copy of that transpose in C order.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> for x in np.nditer(a.T):
...    print(x, end=' ')
... 0 1 2 3 4 5

>>> for x in np.nditer(a.T.copy(order='C')):
...    print(x, end=' ')
... 0 3 1 4 2 5
```

The elements of both `a` and `a.T` get traversed in the same order, namely the order they are stored in memory, whereas the elements of `a.T.copy(order='C')` get visited in a different order because they have been put into a different memory layout.

Controlling Iteration Order

There are times when it is important to visit the elements of an array in a specific order, irrespective of the layout of the elements in memory. The `nditer` object provides an `order` parameter to control this aspect of iteration. The default, having the behavior described above, is order='K' to keep the existing order. This can be overridden with order='C' for C order and order='F' for Fortran order.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> for x in np.nditer(a, order='F'):
...    print(x, end=' ')
... 0 3 1 4 2 5

>>> for x in np.nditer(a.T, order='C'):
...    print(x, end=' ')
```

(continues on next page)
Modifying Array Values

By default, the nditer treats the input operand as a read-only object. To be able to modify the array elements, you must specify either read-write or write-only mode using the 'readwrite' or 'writeonly' per-operand flags.

The nditer will then yield writeable buffer arrays which you may modify. However, because the nditer must copy this buffer data back to the original array once iteration is finished, you must signal when the iteration is ended, by one of two methods. You may either:

• used the nditer as a context manager using the with statement, and the temporary data will be written back when the context is exited.

• call the iterator’s close method once finished iterating, which will trigger the write-back.

The nditer can no longer be iterated once either close is called or its context is exited.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> a
array([[0, 1, 2],
[3, 4, 5]]
>>> with np.nditer(a, op_flags=['readwrite']) as it:
...     for x in it:
...         x[...] = 2 * x
...>>> a
array([[ 0, 2, 4],
[ 6, 8, 10]])
```

If you are writing code that needs to support older versions of numpy, note that prior to 1.15, nditer was not a context manager and did not have a close method. Instead it relied on the destructor to initiate the writeback of the buffer.

Using an External Loop

In all the examples so far, the elements of a are provided by the iterator one at a time, because all the looping logic is internal to the iterator. While this is simple and convenient, it is not very efficient. A better approach is to move the one-dimensional innermost loop into your code, external to the iterator. This way, NumPy’s vectorized operations can be used on larger chunks of the elements being visited.

The nditer will try to provide chunks that are as large as possible to the inner loop. By forcing ‘C’ and ‘F’ order, we get different external loop sizes. This mode is enabled by specifying an iterator flag.

Observe that with the default of keeping native memory order, the iterator is able to provide a single one-dimensional chunk, whereas when forcing Fortran order, it has to provide three chunks of two elements each.

Example
## Tracking an Index or Multi-Index

During iteration, you may want to use the index of the current element in a computation. For example, you may want to visit the elements of an array in memory order, but use a C-order, Fortran-order, or multidimensional index to look up values in a different array.

The index is tracked by the iterator object itself, and accessible through the `index` or `multi_index` properties, depending on what was requested. The examples below show printouts demonstrating the progression of the index:

### Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> for x in np.nditer(a, flags=['external_loop']):
...     print(x, end=' ')
...[0 1 2 3 4 5]

>>> for x in np.nditer(a, flags=['external_loop'], order='F'):
...     print(x, end=' ')
...[0 3] [1 4] [2 5]
```

Tracking an index or multi-index is incompatible with using an external loop, because it requires a different index value per element. If you try to combine these flags, the `nditer` object will raise an exception.

### Example

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((2,3))
>>> it = np.nditer(a, flags=['c_index', 'external_loop'])
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

(continues on next page)
Alternative Looping and Element Access

To make its properties more readily accessible during iteration, `nditer` has an alternative syntax for iterating, which works explicitly with the iterator object itself. With this looping construct, the current value is accessible by indexing into the iterator. Other properties, such as tracked indices remain as before. The examples below produce identical results to the ones in the previous section.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> it = np.nditer(a, flags=['f_index'])
>>> while not it.finished:
...     print("%d <%d> " % (it[0], it.index), end=' ')
...     is_not_finished = it.iternext()
...          0 <0> 1 <2> 2 <4> 3 <1> 4 <3> 5 <5>

>>> it = np.nditer(a, flags=['multi_index'])
>>> while not it.finished:
...     print("%d <%s> " % (it[0], it.multi_index), end=' ')
...     is_not_finished = it.iternext()
...          0 <(0, 0)> 1 <(0, 1)> 2 <(0, 2)> 3 <(1, 0)> 4 <(1, 1)> 5 <(1, 2)>

>>> with np.nditer(a, flags=['multi_index'], op_flags=['writeonly']) as it:
...     while not it.finished:
...         it[0] = it.multi_index[1] - it.multi_index[0]
...     array([[ 0,  1,  2],
            [-1,  0,  1]])
```

Buffering the Array Elements

When forcing an iteration order, we observed that the external loop option may provide the elements in smaller chunks because the elements can’t be visited in the appropriate order with a constant stride. When writing C code, this is generally fine, however in pure Python code this can cause a significant reduction in performance.

By enabling buffering mode, the chunks provided by the iterator to the inner loop can be made larger, significantly reducing the overhead of the Python interpreter. In the example forcing Fortran iteration order, the inner loop gets to see all the elements in one go when buffering is enabled.

Example

```python
```
Iterating as a Specific Data Type

There are times when it is necessary to treat an array as a different data type than it is stored as. For instance, one may want to do all computations on 64-bit floats, even if the arrays being manipulated are 32-bit floats. Except when writing low-level C code, it’s generally better to let the iterator handle the copying or buffering instead of casting the data type yourself in the inner loop.

There are two mechanisms which allow this to be done, temporary copies and buffering mode. With temporary copies, a copy of the entire array is made with the new data type, then iteration is done in the copy. Write access is permitted through a mode which updates the original array after all the iteration is complete. The major drawback of temporary copies is that the temporary copy may consume a large amount of memory, particularly if the iteration data type has a larger itemsize than the original one.

Buffering mode mitigates the memory usage issue and is more cache-friendly than making temporary copies. Except for special cases, where the whole array is needed at once outside the iterator, buffering is recommended over temporary copying. Within NumPy, buffering is used by the ufuncs and other functions to support flexible inputs with minimal memory overhead.

In our examples, we will treat the input array with a complex data type, so that we can take square roots of negative numbers. Without enabling copies or buffering mode, the iterator will raise an exception if the data type doesn’t match precisely.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3) - 3
>>> for x in np.nditer(a, op_dtypes=['complex128']):
...   print(np.sqrt(x), end=' ')
... Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: Iterator operand required copying or buffering, but neither copying nor buffering was enabled
```

In copying mode, ‘copy’ is specified as a per-operand flag. This is done to provide control in a per-operand fashion. Buffering mode is specified as an iterator flag.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3) - 3
>>> for x in np.nditer(a, op_dtypes=['complex128']):
... Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: Iterator operand required copying or buffering, but neither copying nor buffering was enabled
```

(continues on next page)
The iterator uses NumPy's casting rules to determine whether a specific conversion is permitted. By default, it enforces ‘safe’ casting. This means, for example, that it will raise an exception if you try to treat a 64-bit float array as a 32-bit float array. In many cases, the rule ‘same_kind’ is the most reasonable rule to use, since it will allow conversion from 64 to 32-bit float, but not from float to int or from complex to float.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6.)
>>> for x in np.nditer(a, flags=['buffered'], op_dtypes=['float32']):
...     print(x, end=' ')
...     casting='same_kind':
...     print(x, end=' ')
...
0.0 1.0 2.0 3.0 4.0 5.0
```

One thing to watch out for is conversions back to the original data type when using a read-write or write-only operand. A common case is to implement the inner loop in terms of 64-bit floats, and use ‘same_kind’ casting to allow the other floating-point types to be processed as well. While in read-only mode, an integer array could be provided, read-write mode will raise an exception because conversion back to the array would violate the casting rule.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6)
>>> for x in np.nditer(a, flags=['buffered'], op_flags=['readwrite'],
...     op_dtypes=['float64'], casting='same_kind'):
...     x[...] = x / 2.0
```
1.5.2 Broadcasting Array Iteration

NumPy has a set of rules for dealing with arrays that have differing shapes which are applied whenever functions take multiple operands which combine element-wise. This is called broadcasting. The nditer object can apply these rules for you when you need to write such a function.

As an example, we print out the result of broadcasting a one and a two dimensional array together.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(3)
>>> b = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> for x, y in np.nditer([a,b]):
...     print("%d:%d" % (x,y), end=' ')
...0:0 1:1 2:2 0:3 1:4 2:5
```

When a broadcasting error occurs, the iterator raises an exception which includes the input shapes to help diagnose the problem.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(2)
>>> b = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> for x, y in np.nditer([a,b]):
...     print("%d:%d" % (x,y), end=' ')
...Traceback (most recent call last):
...  ValueError: operands could not be broadcast together with shapes (2,) (2,3)
```

Iterator-Allocated Output Arrays

A common case in NumPy functions is to have outputs allocated based on the broadcasting of the input, and additionally have an optional parameter called 'out' where the result will be placed when it is provided. The nditer object provides a convenient idiom that makes it very easy to support this mechanism.

We’ll show how this works by creating a function square which squares its input. Let’s start with a minimal function definition excluding ‘out’ parameter support.

Example
```python
>>> def square(a):
...     with np.nditer([a, None]) as it:
...         for x, y in it:
...             y[...] = x*x
...     return it.operands[1]
... >>> square([1,2,3])
array([1, 4, 9])
```

By default, the `nditer` uses the flags ‘allocate’ and ‘writeonly’ for operands that are passed in as `None`. This means we were able to provide just the two operands to the iterator, and it handled the rest.

When adding the ‘out’ parameter, we have to explicitly provide those flags, because if someone passes in an array as ‘out’, the iterator will default to ‘readonly’, and our inner loop would fail. The reason ‘readonly’ is the default for input arrays is to prevent confusion about unintentionally triggering a reduction operation. If the default were ‘readwrite’, any broadcasting operation would also trigger a reduction, a topic which is covered later in this document.

While we’re at it, let’s also introduce the ‘no_broadcast’ flag, which will prevent the output from being broadcast. This is important, because we only want one input value for each output. Aggregating more than one input value is a reduction operation which requires special handling. It would already raise an error because reductions must be explicitly enabled in an iterator flag, but the error message that results from disabling broadcasting is much more understandable for end-users.

To see how to generalize the square function to a reduction, look at the sum of squares function in the section about Cython.

For completeness, we’ll also add the ‘external_loop’ and ‘buffered’ flags, as these are what you will typically want for performance reasons.

```python
>>> def square(a, out=None):
...     it = np.nditer([a, out],
...                     flags = ['external_loop', 'buffered'],
...                     op_flags = [['readonly'],
...                                  ['writeonly', 'allocate', 'no_broadcast']])
...     with it:
...         for x, y in it:
...             y[...] = x*x
...     return it.operands[1]
... >>> square([1,2,3])
array([1, 4, 9])
>>> b = np.zeros((3,))
>>> square([1,2,3], out=b)
array([ 1., 4., 9.])
>>> b
array([ 1., 4., 9.])
```

```python
>>> square(np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3), out=b)
Traceback (most recent call last):
 ... ValueError: non-broadcastable output operand with shape (3,) doesn't match the broadcast shape (2,3)
```
**Outer Product Iteration**

Any binary operation can be extended to an array operation in an outer product fashion like in `outer`, and the `nditer` object provides a way to accomplish this by explicitly mapping the axes of the operands. It is also possible to do this with `newaxis` indexing, but we will show you how to directly use the `nditer` `op_axes` parameter to accomplish this with no intermediate views.

We'll do a simple outer product, placing the dimensions of the first operand before the dimensions of the second operand. The `op_axes` parameter needs one list of axes for each operand, and provides a mapping from the iterator's axes to the axes of the operand.

Suppose the first operand is one dimensional and the second operand is two dimensional. The iterator will have three dimensions, so `op_axes` will have two 3-element lists. The first list picks out the one axis of the first operand, and is -1 for the rest of the iterator axes, with a final result of `[0, -1, -1]`. The second list picks out the two axes of the second operand, but shouldn't overlap with the axes picked out in the first operand. Its list is `-1, 0, 1`. The output operand maps onto the iterator axes in the standard manner, so we can provide None instead of constructing another list.

The operation in the inner loop is a straightforward multiplication. Everything to do with the outer product is handled by the iterator setup.

**Example**

```python
>>> a = np.arange(3)
>>> b = np.arange(8).reshape(2,4)
>>> it = np.nditer([a, b, None], flags=['external_loop'],
...                op_axes=[[0, -1, -1], [-1, 0, 1], None])
>>> with it:
...     for x, y, z in it:
...         z[...] = x*y
...     result = it.operands[2]  # same as z
...
>>> result
array([[ 0,  0,  0,  0],
       [ 0,  0,  0,  0],
       [ 0,  1,  2,  3],
       [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
       [ 0,  2,  4,  6],
       [ 8, 10, 12, 14]]))
```

Note that once the iterator is closed we can not access `operands` and must use a reference created inside the context manager.

**Reduction Iteration**

Whenever a writeable operand has fewer elements than the full iteration space, that operand is undergoing a reduction. The `nditer` object requires that any reduction operand be flagged as read-write, and only allows reductions when ‘reduce_ok’ is provided as an iterator flag.

For a simple example, consider taking the sum of all elements in an array.

**Example**

```python
>>> a = np.arange(24).reshape(2,3,4)
>>> b = np.array(0)
```
```
>>> with np.nditer([a, b], flags=['reduce_ok'],
...                  op_flags=[["readonly"], ["readwrite"]]) as it:
...     for x, y in it:
...         y[...] += x
... >>> b
array(276)
>>> np.sum(a)
276
```

Things are a little bit more tricky when combining reduction and allocated operands. Before iteration is started, any reduction operand must be initialized to its starting values. Here’s how we can do this, taking sums along the last axis of `a`.

**Example**

```
>>> a = np.arange(24).reshape(2,3,4)
>>> it = np.nditer([a, None], flags=['reduce_ok'],
...                  op_flags=[["readonly"], ["readwrite", "allocate"]],
...                  op_axes=[None, [0,1,-1]])
>>> with it:
...     it.operands[1][..., 0] = 0
...     for x, y in it:
...         y[...] += x
...     result = it.operands[1]
... >>> result
array([[ 6, 22, 38],
        [54, 70, 86]])
```

To do buffered reduction requires yet another adjustment during the setup. Normally the iterator construction involves copying the first buffer of data from the readable arrays into the buffer. Any reduction operand is readable, so it may be read into a buffer. Unfortunately, initialization of the operand after this buffering operation is complete will not be reflected in the buffer that the iteration starts with, and garbage results will be produced.

The iterator flag “delay_bufalloc” is there to allow iterator-allocated reduction operands to exist together with buffering. When this flag is set, the iterator will leave its buffers uninitialzied until it receives a reset, after which it will be ready for regular iteration. Here’s how the previous example looks if we also enable buffering.

**Example**

```
>>> a = np.arange(24).reshape(2,3,4)
>>> it = np.nditer([a, None], flags=['reduce_ok'],
...                 'buffered', 'delay_bufalloc'],
...                 op_flags=[["readonly"], ["readwrite", "allocate"]],
...                 op_axes=[None, [0,1,-1]])
>>> with it:
...     it.operands[1][..., 0] = 0
...     it.reset()
...     for x, y in it:
... ```
1.5.3 Putting the Inner Loop in Cython

Those who want really good performance out of their low level operations should strongly consider directly using the iteration API provided in C, but for those who are not comfortable with C or C++, Cython is a good middle ground with reasonable performance tradeoffs. For the \texttt{nditer} object, this means letting the iterator take care of broadcasting, dtype conversion, and buffering, while giving the inner loop to Cython.

For our example, we’ll create a sum of squares function. To start, let’s implement this function in straightforward Python. We want to support an ‘axis’ parameter similar to the numpy \texttt{sum} function, so we will need to construct a list for the \texttt{op_axes} parameter. Here’s how this looks.

Example

```python
>>> def axis_to_axeslist(axis, ndim):
...   if axis is None:
...     return [-1] * ndim
...   else:
...     if type(axis) is not tuple:
...       axis = (axis,)
...     axeslist = [1] * ndim
...     for i in axis:
...       axeslist[i] = -1
...     ax = 0
...     for i in range(ndim):
...       if axeslist[i] != -1:
...         axeslist[i] = ax
...       ax += 1
...     return axeslist
...

>>> def sum_squares_py(arr, axis=None, out=None):
...   axeslist = axis_to_axeslist(axis, arr.ndim)
...   it = np.nditer([arr, out], flags=['reduce_ok',
...                     'buffered', 'delay_bufalloc'],
...               op_flags=[['readonly'], ['readwrite', 'allocate']],
...               op_axes=[None, axeslist],
...               op_dtypes=['float64', 'float64'])
...   with it:
...     it.operands[1][...] = 0
...     it.reset()
...     for x, y in it:
...       y[...] += x*x
...     return it.operands[1]
...

>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> sum_squares_py(a)
array(55.0)
```

(continues on next page)
To Cython-ize this function, we replace the inner loop (y[j] += x*x) with Cython code that's specialized for the float64 dtype. With the 'external_loop' flag enabled, the arrays provided to the inner loop will always be one-dimensional, so very little checking needs to be done.

Here's the listing of sum_squares.pyx:

```python
import numpy as np
cimport numpy as np
cimport cython
def axis_to_axeslist(axis, ndim):
    if axis is None:
        return [-1] * ndim
    else:
        if type(axis) is not tuple:
            axis = (axis,)
        axeslist = [1] * ndim
        for i in axis:
            axeslist[i] = -1
        ax = 0
        for i in range(ndim):
            if axeslist[i] != -i:
                axeslist[i] = ax
                ax += 1
        return axeslist
@cython.boundscheck(False)
def sum_squares_cy(arr, axis=None, out=None):
    cdef np.ndarray[double] x
    cdef np.ndarray[double] y
    cdef int size
    cdef double value
    axeslist = axis_to_axeslist(axis, arr.ndim)
    it = np.nditer([arr, out], flags=['reduce_ok', 'external_loop',
                                'buffered', 'delay_bufalloc'],
                   op_flags=[['readonly'], ['readwrite', 'allocate']],
                   op_axes=[None, axeslist],
                   op_dtypes=['float64', 'float64'])
    with it:
        it.operands[1][...] = 0
        it.reset()
        for xarr, yarr in it:
            x = xarr
            y = yarr
            size = x.shape[0]
            for i in range(size):
                value = x[i]
                y[i] = y[i] + value * value
        return it.operands[1]
```

On this machine, building the .pyx file into a module looked like the following, but you may have to find some Cython tutorials to tell you the specifics for your system configuration.
Running this from the Python interpreter produces the same answers as our native Python/NumPy code did.

Example

```python
>>> from sum_squares import sum_squares_cy
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> sum_squares_cy(a)
array(55.0)
>>> sum_squares_cy(a, axis=-1)
array([ 5., 50.])
```

Doing a little timing in IPython shows that the reduced overhead and memory allocation of the Cython inner loop is providing a very nice speedup over both the straightforward Python code and an expression using NumPy's built-in sum function:

```python
>>> a = np.random.rand(1000,1000)

>>> timeit sum_squares_py(a, axis=-1)
10 loops, best of 3: 37.1 ms per loop

>>> timeit np.sum(a*a, axis=-1)
10 loops, best of 3: 20.9 ms per loop

>>> timeit sum_squares_cy(a, axis=-1)
100 loops, best of 3: 11.8 ms per loop

>>> np.all(sum_squares_cy(a, axis=-1) == np.sum(a*a, axis=-1))
True

>>> np.all(sum_squares_py(a, axis=-1) == np.sum(a*a, axis=-1))
True
```

1.6 Standard array subclasses

Note: Subclassing a `numpy.ndarray` is possible but if your goal is to create an array with modified behavior, as do dask arrays for distributed computation and cupy arrays for GPU-based computation, subclassing is discouraged. Instead, using numpy's dispatch mechanism is recommended.

The `ndarray` can be inherited from (in Python or in C) if desired. Therefore, it can form a foundation for many useful classes. Often whether to sub-class the array object or to simply use the core array component as an internal part of a new class is a difficult decision, and can be simply a matter of choice. NumPy has several tools for simplifying how your new object interacts with other array objects, and so the choice may not be significant in the end. One way to simplify the question is by asking yourself if the object you are interested in can be replaced as a single array or does it really require two or more arrays at its core.

Note that `asarray` always returns the base-class `ndarray`. If you are confident that your use of the array object can handle any subclass of an `ndarray`, then `asanyarray` can be used to allow subclasses to propagate more cleanly through
your subroutine. In principal a subclass could redefine any aspect of the array and therefore, under strict guidelines, 
asanyarray would rarely be useful. However, most subclasses of the array object will not redefine certain aspects of  
the array object such as the buffer interface, or the attributes of the array. One important example, however, of why your  
subroutine may not be able to handle an arbitrary subclass of an array is that matrices redefine the “*” operator to be 
matrix-multiplication, rather than element-by-element multiplication.

### 1.6.1 Special attributes and methods

**See also:**
Subclassing ndarray

NumPy provides several hooks that classes can customize:

```python
class __array_ufunc__(ufunc, method, *inputs, **kwargs)
    New in version 1.13.

Any class, ndarray subclass or not, can define this method or set it to None in order to override the behavior of 
NumPy’s ufuncs. This works quite similarly to Python’s `__mul__` and other binary operation routines.
```

- `ufunc` is the ufunc object that was called.
- `method` is a string indicating which Ufunc method was called (one of "__call__", "reduce", 
  "reduceat", "accumulate", "outer", "inner").
- `inputs` is a tuple of the input arguments to the ufunc.
- `kwargs` is a dictionary containing the optional input arguments of the ufunc. If given, any output arguments, 
  both positional and keyword, are passed as a tuple in `kwargs`. See the discussion in *Universal functions 
  (ufunc)* for details.

The method should return either the result of the operation, or `NotImplemented` if the operation requested is 
not implemented.

If one of the input or output arguments has a `__array_ufunc__` method, it is executed instead of the 
ufunc. If more than one of the arguments implements `__array_ufunc__`, they are tried in the order: 
superclasses before subclasses, inputs before outputs, otherwise left to right. The first routine returning something 
other than `NotImplemented` determines the result. If all of the `__array_ufunc__` operations return 
`NotImplemented`, a `TypeError` is raised.

**Note:** We intend to re-implement numpy functions as (generalized) Ufunc, in which case it will become possible 
for them to be overridden by the `__array_ufunc__` method. A prime candidate is `matmul`, which currently 
is not a Ufunc, but could be relatively easily be rewritten as a (set of) generalized Ufuncs. The same may happen 
with functions such as `median`, `amin`, and `argsort`.

Like with some other special methods in python, such as `__hash__` and `__iter__`, it is possible to indicate that 
your class does *not* support ufuncs by setting `__array_ufunc__ = None`. Ufuncs always raise `TypeError` 
when called on an object that sets `__array_ufunc__ = None`.

The presence of `__array_ufunc__` also influences how `ndarray` handles binary operations like `arr + 
obj` and `arr < obj` when `arr` is an `ndarray` and `obj` is an instance of a custom class. There are two 
possibilities. If `obj.__array_ufunc__` is present and not None, then `ndarray.__add__` and friends will 
delegate to the ufunc machinery, meaning that `arr + obj` becomes `np.add(arr, obj)`, and then `add` 
invokes `obj.__array_ufunc__`. This is useful if you want to define an object that acts like an array.

Alternatively, if `obj.__array_ufunc__` is set to None, then as a special case, special methods like 
`ndarray.__add__` will notice this and *unconditionally* raise `TypeError`. This is useful if you want to create 
objects that interact with arrays via binary operations, but are not themselves arrays. For example, a units handling
system might have an object \( m \) representing the “meters” unit, and want to support the syntax \( \text{arr} * m \) to represent that the array has units of “meters”, but not want to otherwise interact with arrays via ufuncs or otherwise. This can be done by setting \_array_ufunc\_ = None and defining \_mul\_ and \_rmul\_ methods. (Note that this means that writing an \_array_ufunc\_ that always returns \text{NotImplemented} is not quite the same as setting \_array_ufunc\_ = None: in the former case, \text{arr} + \text{obj} will raise \text{TypeError}, while in the latter case it is possible to define a \_radd\_ method to prevent this.)

The above does not hold for in-place operators, for which \text{ndarray} never returns \text{NotImplemented}. Hence, \text{arr} += \text{obj} would always lead to a \text{TypeError}. This is because for arrays in-place operations cannot generically be replaced by a simple reverse operation. (For instance, by default, \text{arr} += \text{obj} would be translated to \text{arr} = \text{arr} + \text{obj}, i.e., \text{arr} would be replaced, contrary to what is expected for in-place array operations.)

---

**Note:** If you define \_array_ufunc\_:  

- If you are not a subclass of \text{ndarray}, we recommend your class define special methods like \_add\_ and \_lt\_ that delegate to ufuncs just like ndarray does. An easy way to do this is to subclass from \text{NDArrayOperatorsMixin}.

- If you subclass \text{ndarray}, we recommend that you put all your override logic in \_array_ufunc\_ and not also override special methods. This ensures the class hierarchy is determined in only one place rather than separately by the ufunc machinery and by the binary operation rules (which gives preference to special methods of subclasses; the alternative way to enforce a one-place only hierarchy, of setting \_array_ufunc\_ to None, would seem very unexpected and thus confusing, as then the subclass would not work at all with ufuncs).

\text{ndarray} defines its own \_array_ufunc\_, which, evaluates the ufunc if no arguments have overrides, and returns \text{NotImplemented} otherwise. This may be useful for subclasses for which \_array_ufunc\_ converts any instances of its own class to \text{ndarray}; it can then pass these on to its superclass using \text{super().\_array_ufunc}(\ast inputs, **kwargs), and finally return the results after possible back-conversion. The advantage of this practice is that it ensures that it is possible to have a hierarchy of subclasses that extend the behaviour. See Subclassing \text{ndarray} for details.

---

**Note:** If a class defines the \_array_ufunc\_ method, this disables the \_array_wrap\_, \_array_prepare\_, \_array_priority\_ mechanism described below for ufuncs (which may eventually be deprecated).

---


```python
class \_array_function\_(func, types, args, kwargs)
New in version 1.16.
```

---

**Note:**  

- In NumPy 1.17, the protocol is enabled by default, but can be disabled with \text{NUMPY_EXPERIMENTAL_ARRAY_FUNCTION=0}.

- In NumPy 1.16, you need to set the environment variable \text{NUMPY_EXPERIMENTAL_ARRAY_FUNCTION=1} before importing NumPy to use NumPy function overrides.

- Eventually, expect to \_array_function\_ to always be enabled.

---

- \text{func} is an arbitrary callable exposed by NumPy’s public API, which was called in the form func(\*args, **kwargs).

- \text{types} is a collection \text{collections.abc.Collection} of unique argument types from the original NumPy function call that implement \_array_function\_.
• The tuple args and dict kwargs are directly passed on from the original call.

As a convenience for __array_function__ implementors, types provides all argument types with an '__array_function__' attribute. This allows implementors to quickly identify cases where they should defer to __array_function__ implementations on other arguments. Implementations should not rely on the iteration order of types.

Most implementations of __array_function__ will start with two checks:

1. Is the given function something that we know how to overload?
2. Are all arguments of a type that we know how to handle?

If these conditions hold, __array_function__ should return the result from calling its implementation for func(*args, **kwargs). Otherwise, it should return the sentinel value NotImplemented, indicating that the function is not implemented by these types.

There are no general requirements on the return value from __array_function__, although most sensible implementations should probably return array(s) with the same type as one of the function’s arguments.

It may also be convenient to define a custom decorators (implements below) for registering __array_function__ implementations.

```python
HANDLED_FUNCTIONS = {}

class MyArray:
    def __array_function__(self, func, types, args, kwargs):
        if func not in HANDLED_FUNCTIONS:
            return NotImplemented
        # Note: this allows subclasses that don't override
        # __array_function__ to handle MyArray objects
        if not all(issubclass(t, MyArray) for t in types):
            return NotImplemented
        return HANDLED_FUNCTIONS[func](*args, **kwargs)

def implements(numpy_function):
    """Register an __array_function__ implementation for MyArray objects."""
    def decorator(func):
        HANDLED_FUNCTIONS[numpy_function] = func
        return func
    return decorator

@implements(np.concatenate)
def concatenate(arrays, axis=0, out=None):
    ...  # implementation of concatenate for MyArray objects

@implements(np.broadcast_to)
def broadcast_to(array, shape):
    ...  # implementation of broadcast_to for MyArray objects
```

Note that it is not required for __array_function__ implementations to include all of the corresponding NumPy function’s optional arguments (e.g., broadcast_to above omits the irrelevant subok argument). Optional arguments are only passed in to __array_function__ if they were explicitly used in the NumPy function call.

Just like the case for built-in special methods like __add__, properly written __array_function__ methods should always return NotImplemented when an unknown type is encountered. Otherwise, it will be impossible to correctly override NumPy functions from another object if the operation also includes one of your objects.
For the most part, the rules for dispatch with __array_function__ match those for __array_ufunc__.
In particular:

- NumPy will gather implementations of __array_function__ from all specified inputs and call them in order: subclasses before superclasses, and otherwise left to right. Note that in some edge cases involving subclasses, this differs slightly from the current behavior of Python.

- Implementations of __array_function__ indicate that they can handle the operation by returning any value other than NotImplemented.

- If all __array_function__ methods return NotImplemented, NumPy will raise TypeError.

If no __array_function__ methods exists, NumPy will default to calling its own implementation, intended for use on NumPy arrays. This case arises, for example, when all array-like arguments are Python numbers or lists. (NumPy arrays do have a __array_function__ method, given below, but it always returns NotImplemented if any argument other than a NumPy array subclass implements __array_function__.)

One deviation from the current behavior of __array_ufunc__ is that NumPy will only call __array_function__ on the first argument of each unique type. This matches Python’s rule for calling reflected methods, and this ensures that checking overloads has acceptable performance even when there are a large number of overloaded arguments.

class.__array_finalize__(obj)
This method is called whenever the system internally allocates a new array from obj, where obj is a subclass (subtype) of the ndarray. It can be used to change attributes of self after construction (so as to ensure a 2-d matrix for example), or to update meta-information from the “parent.” Subclasses inherit a default implementation of this method that does nothing.

class.__array_prepare__(array, context=None)
At the beginning of every ufunc, this method is called on the input object with the highest array priority, or the output object if one was specified. The output array is passed in and whatever is returned is passed to the ufunc. Subclasses inherit a default implementation of this method which simply returns the output array unmodified. Subclasses may opt to use this method to transform the output array into an instance of the subclass and update metadata before returning the array to the ufunc for computation.

Note: For ufuncs, it is hoped to eventually deprecate this method in favour of __array_ufunc__.

class.__array_wrap__(array, context=None)
At the end of every ufunc, this method is called on the input object with the highest array priority, or the output object if one was specified. The ufunc-computed array is passed in and whatever is returned is passed to the user. Subclasses inherit a default implementation of this method, which transforms the array into a new instance of the object’s class. Subclasses may opt to use this method to transform the output array into an instance of the subclass and update metadata before returning the array to the user.

Note: For ufuncs, it is hoped to eventually deprecate this method in favour of __array_ufunc__.

class.__array_priority__
The value of this attribute is used to determine what type of object to return in situations where there is more than one possibility for the Python type of the returned object. Subclasses inherit a default value of 0.0 for this attribute.

Note: For ufuncs, it is hoped to eventually deprecate this method in favour of __array_ufunc__.

class.__array__([dtype])
If a class (ndarray subclass or not) having the __array__ method is used as the output object of an ufunc, results
will not be written to the object returned by __array__. This practice will return TypeError.

### 1.6.2 Matrix objects

**Note:** It is strongly advised not to use the matrix subclass. As described below, it makes writing functions that deal consistently with matrices and regular arrays very difficult. Currently, they are mainly used for interacting with scipy.sparse. We hope to provide an alternative for this use, however, and eventually remove the matrix subclass.

**matrix** objects inherit from the ndarray and therefore, they have the same attributes and methods of ndarrays. There are six important differences of matrix objects, however, that may lead to unexpected results when you use matrices but expect them to act like arrays:

1. Matrix objects can be created using a string notation to allow Matlab-style syntax where spaces separate columns and semicolons (';') separate rows.
2. Matrix objects are always two-dimensional. This has far-reaching implications, in that m.ravel() is still two-dimensional (with a 1 in the first dimension) and item selection returns two-dimensional objects so that sequence behavior is fundamentally different than arrays.
3. Matrix objects over-ride multiplication to be matrix-multiplication. **Make sure you understand this for functions that you may want to receive matrices.** Especially in light of the fact that asanyarray(m) returns a matrix when m is a matrix.
4. Matrix objects over-ride power to be matrix raised to a power. The same warning about using power inside a function that uses asanyarray(…) to get an array object holds for this fact.
5. The default __array_priority__ of matrix objects is 10.0, and therefore mixed operations with ndarrays always produce matrices.
6. Matrices have special attributes which make calculations easier. These are

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<td>matrix.T</td>
<td>Returns the transpose of the matrix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matrix.H</td>
<td>Returns the (complex) conjugate transpose of self.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matrix.I</td>
<td>Returns the (multiplicative) inverse of invertible self.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matrix.A</td>
<td>Return self as an ndarray object.</td>
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</table>

**property** matrix.T

Returns the transpose of the matrix.

Does not conjugate! For the complex conjugate transpose, use .H.

**Parameters**

None

**Returns**

ret

[matrix object] The (non-conjugated) transpose of the matrix.

**See also:**

transpose, getH
Examples

```python
>>> m = np.matrix('[[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> m
matrix([[1, 2],
         [3, 4]])
>>> m.getT()
matrix([[1, 3],
         [2, 4]])
```

**property** `matrix.H`
Returns the (complex) conjugate transpose of `self`.
Equivalent to `np.transpose(self)` if `self` is real-valued.

**Parameters**
None

**Returns**
`ret`
[matrix object] complex conjugate transpose of `self`

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3, 4)))
>>> z = x - 1j*x; z
matrix([[  0.+0.j,  1.-1.j,  2.-2.j,  3.-3.j],
        [  4.-4.j,  5.-5.j,  6.-6.j,  7.-7.j],
>>> z.getH()
matrix([[  0.-0.j,  4.+4.j,  8.+8.j],
        [  1.+1.j,  5.+5.j,  9.+9.j],
        [  2.+2.j,  6.+6.j, 10.+10.j],
        [  3.+3.j,  7.+7.j, 11.+11.j]])
```

**property** `matrix.I`
Returns the (multiplicative) inverse of invertible `self`.

**Parameters**
None

**Returns**
`ret`
[matrix object] If `self` is non-singular, `ret` is such that `ret * self == self * ret == np.matrix(np.eye(self[0,:].size))` all return True.

**Raises**

1.6. Standard array subclasses
numpy.linalg.LinAlgError: Singular matrix

If `self` is singular.

See also:

`linalg.inv`

Examples

```python
>>> m = np.matrix('1 2; 3 4'); m
matrix([[1, 2],
        [3, 4]])
>>> m.getI()
matrix([[-2.,  1.],
        [ 1.5, -0.5]])
>>> m.getI() * m
matrix([[ 1.,  0.], # may vary
        [ 0.,  1.]]).
```

**property** `matrix.A`

Return `self` as an `ndarray` object.

Equivalent to `np.asarray(self)`.

Parameters

None

Returns

ret

[ndarray] `self` as an `ndarray`

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))); x
matrix([[ 0, 1, 2, 3],
        [ 4, 5, 6, 7],
        [ 8, 9, 10, 11]])
>>> x.getA()
array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3],
       [ 4, 5, 6, 7],
       [ 8, 9, 10, 11]])
```

**Warning:** Matrix objects over-ride multiplication, `*`, and power, `**`, to be matrix-multiplication and matrix power, respectively. If your subroutine can accept sub-classes and you do not convert to base-class arrays, then you must use the ufuncs multiply and power to be sure that you are performing the correct operation for all inputs.
The matrix class is a Python subclass of the ndarray and can be used as a reference for how to construct your own subclass of the ndarray. Matrices can be created from other matrices, strings, and anything else that can be converted to an ndarray. The name “mat” is an alias for “matrix” in NumPy.

```
matrix(data[, dtype, copy])
```

**Note:** It is no longer recommended to use this class, even for linear

```
asmatrix(data[, dtype])
```

Interpret the input as a matrix.

```
bmat(obj[, ldict, gdict])
```

Build a matrix object from a string, nested sequence, or array.

```
class numpy.matrix(data, dtype=None, copy=True)
```

**Note:** It is no longer recommended to use this class, even for linear algebra. Instead use regular arrays. The class may be removed in the future.

Returns a matrix from an array-like object, or from a string of data. A matrix is a specialized 2-D array that retains its 2-D nature through operations. It has certain special operators, such as * (matrix multiplication) and ** (matrix power).

**Parameters**

- **data**
  - [array_like or string] If `data` is a string, it is interpreted as a matrix with commas or spaces separating columns, and semicolons separating rows.

- **dtype**
  - [data-type] Data-type of the output matrix.

- **copy**
  - [bool] If `data` is already an ndarray, then this flag determines whether the data is copied (the default), or whether a view is constructed.

**See also:**

```
array
```

**Examples**

```
>>> a = np.matrix('1 2; 3 4')
>>> a
matrix([[1, 2],
         [3, 4]])
```

```
>>> np.matrix([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
matrix([[1, 2],
         [3, 4]])
```
Attributes

\( A \)

Return \( self \) as an \textit{ndarray} object.

\( A1 \)

Return \( self \) as a flattened \textit{ndarray}.

\( H \)

Returns the (complex) conjugate transpose of \( self \).

\( I \)

Returns the (multiplicative) inverse of invertible \( self \).

\( T \)

Returns the transpose of the matrix.

\textit{base}

Base object if memory is from some other object.

\textit{ctypes}

An object to simplify the interaction of the array with the ctypes module.

\textit{data}

Python buffer object pointing to the start of the array's data.

\textit{dtype}

Data-type of the array's elements.

\textit{flags}

Information about the memory layout of the array.

\textit{flat}

A 1-D iterator over the array.

\textit{imag}

The imaginary part of the array.

\textit{itemsize}

Length of one array element in bytes.

\textit{nbytes}

Total bytes consumed by the elements of the array.

\textit{ndim}

Number of array dimensions.

\textit{real}

The real part of the array.

\textit{shape}

Tuple of array dimensions.
**size**
Number of elements in the array.

**strides**
Tuple of bytes to step in each dimension when traversing an array.

### Methods

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<td>Return <code>self</code> as a flattened <code>ndarray</code>.</td>
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<td>Returns the (complex) conjugate transpose of <code>self</code>.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>getI()</code></td>
<td>Returns the (multiplicative) inverse of invertible <code>self</code>.</td>
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```
method
  matrix.all (axis=None, out=None)

  Test whether all matrix elements along a given axis evaluate to True.
```
Parameters

See 'numpy.all' for complete descriptions

See also:

numpy.all

Notes

This is the same as `ndarray.all`, but it returns a `matrix` object.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))); x
matrix([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
>>> y = x[0]; y
matrix([[0, 1, 2, 3]])
>>> (x == y).all()
False
>>> (x == y).all(0)
matrix([[False, False, False, False]])
>>> (x == y).all(1)
matrix([[ True],
        [False],
        [False]])
```

method

matrix.any(axis=None, out=None)

Test whether any array element along a given axis evaluates to True.

Refer to `numpy.any` for full documentation.

Parameters

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which logical OR is performed

out

[ndarray, optional] Output to existing array instead of creating new one, must have same shape as expected output

Returns

any

[bool, ndarray] Returns a single bool if axis is None; otherwise, returns `ndarray`
method

```python
matrix.argmax(axis=None, out=None)
```
Indexes of the maximum values along an axis.

Return the indexes of the first occurrences of the maximum values along the specified axis. If axis is None, the index is for the flattened matrix.

**Parameters**

See ‘numpy.argmax’ for complete descriptions.

See also:

```
numpy.argmax
```

**Notes**

This is the same as `ndarray.argmax`, but returns a `matrix` object where `ndarray.argmax` would return an `ndarray`.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))); x
matrix([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
>>> x.argmax()
11
>>> x.argmax(0)
matrix([[2, 2, 2, 2]])
>>> x.argmax(1)
matrix([[3],
        [3],
        [3]])
```

method

```python
matrix.argmin(axis=None, out=None)
```
Indexes of the minimum values along an axis.

Return the indexes of the first occurrences of the minimum values along the specified axis. If axis is None, the index is for the flattened matrix.

**Parameters**

See ‘numpy.argmin’ for complete descriptions.

See also:

```
numpy.argmin
```
Notes

This is the same as \texttt{ndarray.argmin}, but returns a \texttt{matrix} object where \texttt{ndarray.argmin} would return an \texttt{ndarray}.

Examples

```python
>>> x = -np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))); x
matrix([[  0,  -1,  -2,  -3],
        [ -4,  -5,  -6,  -7],
        [ -8,  -9, -10, -11]])
```

```python
>>> x.argmin()
11
>>> x.argmin(0)
matrix([[2, 2, 2, 2]])
>>> x.argmin(1)
matrix([[3],
        [3],
        [3]])
```

\texttt{matrix.argpartition} \((kth, axis=-1, kind='introselect', order=None)\)

Returns the indices that would partition this array.

Refer to \texttt{numpy.argpartition} for full documentation.

New in version 1.8.0.

See also:

\texttt{numpy.argpartition}

\texttt{matrix.argsort} \((axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)\)

Returns the indices that would sort this array.

Refer to \texttt{numpy.argsort} for full documentation.

See also:

\texttt{numpy.argsort}

\texttt{matrix.astype} \((dtype, order='K', casting='unsafe', subok=True, copy=True)\)

Copy of the array, cast to a specified type.

Parameters

dtype

[\texttt{str} or \texttt{dtype}] Typecode or data-type to which the array is cast.
order

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the memory layout order of the result. ‘C’ means C order, ‘F’ means Fortran order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ order if all the arrays are Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ order otherwise, and ‘K’ means as close to the order the array elements appear in memory as possible. Default is ‘K’.

casting

[{'no', 'equiv', 'safe', 'same_kind', 'unsafe'}, optional] Controls what kind of data casting may occur. Defaults to ‘unsafe’ for backwards compatibility.

• ‘no’ means the data types should not be cast at all.
• ‘equiv’ means only byte-order changes are allowed.
• ‘safe’ means only casts which can preserve values are allowed.
• ‘same_kind’ means only safe casts or casts within a kind, like float64 to float32, are allowed.
• ‘unsafe’ means any data conversions may be done.

subok

[bool, optional] If True, then sub-classes will be passed-through (default), otherwise the returned array will be forced to be a base-class array.

copy

[bool, optional] By default, astype always returns a newly allocated array. If this is set to false, and the dtype, order, and subok requirements are satisfied, the input array is returned instead of a copy.

Returns

arr_t

[ndarray] Unless copy is False and the other conditions for returning the input array are satisfied (see description for copy input parameter), arr_t is a new array of the same shape as the input array, with dtype, order given by dtype, order.

Raises

ComplexWarning

When casting from complex to float or int. To avoid this, one should use a.real. astype(t).

Notes

Changed in version 1.17.0: Casting between a simple data type and a structured one is possible only for “unsafe” casting. Casting to multiple fields is allowed, but casting from multiple fields is not.

Changed in version 1.9.0: Casting from numeric to string types in ‘safe’ casting mode requires that the string dtype length is long enough to store the max integer/float value converted.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 2.5])
>>> x
array([1. , 2. , 2.5])

>>> x.astype(int)
array([1, 2, 2])
```

method

```python
matrix.byteswap(inplace=False)
```

Swap the bytes of the array elements

Toggle between low-endian and big-endian data representation by returning a byteswapped array, optionally swapped in-place. Arrays of byte-strings are not swapped. The real and imaginary parts of a complex number are swapped individually.

Parameters

- **inplace**
  - [bool, optional] If True, swap bytes in-place, default is False.

Returns

- **out**
  - [ndarray] The byteswapped array. If inplace is True, this is a view to self.

Examples

```python
>>> A = np.array([1, 256, 8755], dtype=np.int16)
>>> list(map(hex, A))
['0x1', '0x100', '0x2233']
>>> A.byteswap(inplace=True)
array([ 256, 1, 13090], dtype=int16)
>>> list(map(hex, A))
['0x100', '0x1', '0x3322']

Arrays of byte-strings are not swapped

```python
>>> A = np.array([b'ceg', b'fac'])
>>> A.byteswap()
array([b'ceg', b'fac'], dtype='|S3')
```

A newbyteorder().byteswap() produces an array with the same values but different representation in memory

```python
>>> A = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> A.view(np.uint8)
array([1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0], dtype=uint8)
>>> A.newbyteorder().byteswap(inplace=True)
```

(continues on next page)
array([1, 2, 3])
>>> A.view(np.uint8)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 3], dtype=uint8)

method

`matrix.choose(choices, out=None, mode='raise')`
Use an index array to construct a new array from a set of choices.

Refer to `numpy.choose` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.choose`
equivalent function

method

`matrix.clip(min=None, max=None, out=None, **kwargs)`
Return an array whose values are limited to `[min, max]`. One of max or min must be given.

Refer to `numpy.clip` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.clip`
equivalent function

method

`matrix.compress(condition, axis=None, out=None)`
Return selected slices of this array along given axis.

Refer to `numpy.compress` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.compress`
equivalent function

method

`matrix.conj()`
Complex-conjugate all elements.

Refer to `numpy.conjugate` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.conjugate`
equivalent function
matrix.conjugate()

Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.

Refer to numpy.conjugate for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.conjugate

equivalent function

method

matrix.copy(order='C')

Return a copy of the array.

Parameters

order

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the memory layout of the copy. 'C' means C-order, 'F' means F-order, 'A' means 'F' if a is Fortran contiguous, 'C' otherwise. 'K' means match the layout of a as closely as possible. (Note that this function and numpy.copy are very similar but have different default values for their order= arguments, and this function always passes sub-classes through.)

See also:

numpy.copy

Similar function with different default behavior

numpy.copyto

Notes

This function is the preferred method for creating an array copy. The function numpy.copy is similar, but it defaults to using order 'K', and will not pass sub-classes through by default.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], order='F')
```

```python
>>> y = x.copy()
```

```python
>>> x.fill(0)
```

```python
>>> x
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])
```

```python
>>> y
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
```
method

```
>>> y.flags['C_CONTIGUOUS']
True
```

**matrix.cumprod**(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the cumulative product of the elements along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.cumprod` for full documentation.

**See also:**

- `numpy.cumprod`
  equivalent function

**method**

```

```

**matrix.cumsum**(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the cumulative sum of the elements along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.cumsum` for full documentation.

**See also:**

- `numpy.cumsum`
  equivalent function

**method**

```

```

**matrix.diagonal**(offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1)

Return specified diagonals. In NumPy 1.9 the returned array is a read-only view instead of a copy as in previous NumPy versions. In a future version the read-only restriction will be removed.

Refer to `numpy.diagonal` for full documentation.

**See also:**

- `numpy.diagonal`
  equivalent function

**method**

```

```

**matrix.dot**(b, out=None)

Dot product of two arrays.

Refer to `numpy.dot` for full documentation.

**See also:**

- `numpy.dot`
  equivalent function
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.eye(2)
>>> b = np.ones((2, 2)) * 2
>>> a.dot(b)
array([[2., 2.],
       [2., 2.]])
```

This array method can be conveniently chained:

```python
>>> a.dot(b).dot(b)
array([[8., 8.],
       [8., 8.]])
```

**method**

`matrix.dump (file)`

Dump a pickle of the array to the specified file. The array can be read back with pickle.load or numpy.load.

**Parameters**

- **file**
  - [str or Path]: A string naming the dump file.

  Changed in version 1.17.0: `pathlib.Path` objects are now accepted.

**method**

`matrix.dumps()`

Returns the pickle of the array as a string. pickle.loads or numpy.loads will convert the string back to an array.

**Parameters**

- **None**

**method**

`matrix.fill (value)`

Fill the array with a scalar value.

**Parameters**

- **value**
  - [scalar]: All elements of `a` will be assigned this value.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2])
>>> a.fill(0)
>>> a
array([0, 0])
>>> a = np.empty(2)
>>> a.fill(1)
>>> a
array([1., 1.])
```
method

```
matrix.flatten(order='C')
```

Return a flattened copy of the matrix.

All \( N \) elements of the matrix are placed into a single row.

**Parameters**

**order**

[\{‘C’, ‘F’, ‘A’, ‘K’\}, optional] ‘C’ means to flatten in row-major (C-style) order. ‘F’ means to flatten in column-major (Fortran-style) order. ‘A’ means to flatten in column-major order if \( m \) is Fortran contiguous in memory, row-major order otherwise. ‘K’ means to flatten \( m \) in the order the elements occur in memory. The default is ‘C’.

**Returns**

\( y \)

[matrix] A copy of the matrix, flattened to a \((1, N)\) matrix where \( N \) is the number of elements in the original matrix.

**See also:**

- `ravel`
  - Return a flattened array.
- `flat`
  - A 1-D flat iterator over the matrix.

**Examples**

```python
>>> m = np.matrix([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> m.flatten()
matrix([[1, 2, 3, 4]])
>>> m.flatten('F')
matrix([[1, 3, 2, 4]])
```

method

```
matrix.getA()
```

Return \( self \) as an `ndarray` object.

Equivalent to `np.asarray(self)`.

**Parameters**

None

**Returns**

\( ret \)

[ndarray] \( self \) as an `ndarray`
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))); x
matrix([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
```

```python
>>> x.getA()
array([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
```

method

**matrix.getA1()**

Return `self` as a flattened `ndarray`.

Equivalent to `np.asarray(x).ravel()`

Parameters

None

Returns

ret

[numpy array] `self`, 1-D, as a `ndarray`

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))); x
matrix([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
```

```python
>>> x.getA1()
array([ 0,  1,  2, ...,  9, 10, 11])
```

method

**matrix.getH()**

Returns the (complex) conjugate transpose of `self`.

Equivalent to `np.transpose(self)` if `self` is real-valued.

Parameters

None

Returns

ret

[numpy matrix] complex conjugate transpose of `self`
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4)))
>>> z = x - 1j*x; z
matrix([[ 0. +0.j,  1. -1.j,  2. -2.j,  3. -3.j],
>>> z.getH()
matrix([[ 0. -0.j,  4. +4.j,  8. +8.j],
        [ 1. +1.j,  5. +5.j,  9. +9.j],
        [ 2. +2.j,  6. +6.j, 10.+10.j],
        [ 3. +3.j,  7. +7.j, 11.+11.j]])
```

method

`matrix.getI()`

Returns the (multiplicative) inverse of invertible `self`.

Parameters

None

Returns

`ret`

[matrix object] If `self` is non-singular, `ret` is such that `ret * self == self * ret == np.matrix(np.eye(self[0,:].size))` all return True.

Raises

`numpy.linalg.LinAlgError: Singular matrix`

If `self` is singular.

See also:

`linalg.inv`

Examples

```python
>>> m = np.matrix('[1, 2; 3, 4]'); m
matrix([[1, 2],
        [3, 4]])
>>> m.getI()
matrix([[-2. ,  1. ],
        [ 1.5, -0.5]])
>>> m.getI() * m
matrix([[ 1.,  0.], # may vary
        [ 0.,  1.]])
```

method

`matrix.getT()`

Returns the transpose of the matrix.

Does not conjugate! For the complex conjugate transpose, use `.H`. 
Parameters

None

Returns

ret

[matrix object] The (non-conjugated) transpose of the matrix.

See also:

transpose, getH

Examples

```python
>>> m = np.matrix('[1, 2; 3, 4]')
>>> m
matrix([[1, 2],
        [3, 4]])
>>> m.getT()
matrix([[1, 3],
        [2, 4]])
```

method

matrix.getfield (dtype, offset=0)

Returns a field of the given array as a certain type.

A field is a view of the array data with a given data-type. The values in the view are determined by the given type and the offset into the current array in bytes. The offset needs to be such that the view dtype fits in the array dtype; for example an array of dtype complex128 has 16-byte elements. If taking a view with a 32-bit integer (4 bytes), the offset needs to be between 0 and 12 bytes.

Parameters

dtype

[str or dtype] The data type of the view. The dtype size of the view can not be larger than that of the array itself.

offset

[int] Number of bytes to skip before beginning the element view.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.diag([1.+1.j]*2)
>>> x[1, 1] = 2 + 4.j
>>> x
array([[1.+1.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+0.j, 2.+4.j]])
>>> x.getfield(np.float64)
array([[1., 0.],
       [0., 2.]])
```

By choosing an offset of 8 bytes we can select the complex part of the array for our view:
method

```
matrix.item(*args)
```

Copy an element of an array to a standard Python scalar and return it.

**Parameters**

*args

[Arguments (variable number and type)]

- none: in this case, the method only works for arrays with one element (`a.size == 1`), which element is copied into a standard Python scalar object and returned.
- int_type: this argument is interpreted as a flat index into the array, specifying which element to copy and return.
- tuple of int_types: functions as does a single int_type argument, except that the argument is interpreted as an nd-index into the array.

**Returns**

```
z
```

[Standard Python scalar object] A copy of the specified element of the array as a suitable Python scalar

**Notes**

When the data type of `a` is longdouble or clongdouble, item() returns a scalar array object because there is no available Python scalar that would not lose information. Void arrays return a buffer object for item(), unless fields are defined, in which case a tuple is returned.

`item` is very similar to `a[args]`, except, instead of an array scalar, a standard Python scalar is returned. This can be useful for speeding up access to elements of the array and doing arithmetic on elements of the array using Python's optimized math.

**Examples**

```
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> x = np.random.randint(9, size=(3, 3))
>>> x
array([[2, 2, 6],
       [1, 3, 6],
       [1, 0, 1]])
>>> x.item(3)
1
>>> x.item(7)
0
>>> x.item((0, 1))
2
>>> x.item((2, 2))
1
```
method

```python
class matrix:
    def itemset(*args):
        # Insert scalar into an array (scalar is cast to array's dtype, if possible)
        # There must be at least 1 argument, and define the last argument as item.
        # Then, a.itemset(*args) is equivalent to but faster than a[args] = item. The item should be a scalar value
        # and args must select a single item in the array a.

        # Parameters
        *args = [Arguments] If one argument: a scalar, only used in case a is of size 1.
        # If two arguments: the last argument is the value to be set and must be a scalar, the first argument specifies a
        # single array element location. It is either an int or a tuple.

        # Notes
        # Compared to indexing syntax, itemset provides some speed increase for placing a scalar into a particular
        # location in an ndarray, if you must do this. However, generally this is discouraged: among other problems,
        # it complicates the appearance of the code. Also, when using itemset (and item) inside a loop, be sure to
        # assign the methods to a local variable to avoid the attribute look-up at each loop iteration.

        Examples
        >>> np.random.seed(123)
        >>> x = np.random.randint(9, size=(3, 3))
        >>> x
        array([[2, 2, 6],
               [1, 3, 6],
               [1, 0, 1]])
        >>> x.itemset(4, 0)
        >>> x.itemset((2, 2), 9)
        >>> x
        array([[2, 2, 6],
               [1, 0, 6],
               [1, 0, 9]])```

method

```python
class matrix:
    def max(axis=None, out=None):
        # Return the maximum value along an axis.

        # Parameters
        # See 'amax' for complete descriptions

        # See also:

        amax, ndarray.max
Notes

This is the same as `ndarray.max`, but returns a `matrix` object where `ndarray.max` would return an `ndarray`.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))); x
matrix([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
>>> x.max()
11
>>> x.max(0)
matrix([[ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
>>> x.max(1)
matrix([[ 3],
        [ 7],
        [11]])
matrix.

method

matrix.mean (axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)
Returns the average of the matrix elements along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.mean` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.mean`

Notes

Same as `ndarray.mean` except that, where that returns an `ndarray`, this returns a `matrix` object.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3, 4)))
>>> x
matrix([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
>>> x.mean()
5.5
>>> x.mean(0)
matrix([[ 4.],
        [ 5.],
        [ 6.],
        [ 7.]])
>>> x.mean(1)
matrix([[ 1.5],
        [ 5.5],
        [ 9.5]])
```

method

matrix.min (axis=None, out=None)
Return the minimum value along an axis.
Parameters

See ‘amin’ for complete descriptions.

See also:

`amin, ndarray.min`

Notes

This is the same as `ndarray.min`, but returns a `matrix` object where `ndarray.min` would return an `ndarray`.

Examples

```python
>>> x = -np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))); x
matrix([[ 0, -1, -2, -3],
        [ -4, -5, -6, -7],
        [ -8, -9, -10, -11]])
>>> x.min()
-11
>>> x.min(0)
matrix([[ -8, -9, -10, -11]])
>>> x.min(1)
matrix([[ -3],
        [ -7],
        [ -11]])
```

method

`matrix.newbyteorder(new_order='S',)`

Return the array with the same data viewed with a different byte order.

Equivalent to:

```python
arr.view(arr.dtype.newbyteorder(new_order))
```

Changes are also made in all fields and sub-arrays of the array data type.

Parameters

`new_order`

[string, optional] Byte order to force; a value from the byte order specifications below. `new_order` codes can be any of:

- ‘S’ - swap dtype from current to opposite endian
- ‘<’, ‘little’ - little endian
- ‘>’, ‘big’ - big endian
- ‘=’ - native order, equivalent to `sys.byteorder`
- ‘|’, ‘I’ - ignore (no change to byte order)

The default value (‘S’) results in swapping the current byte order.
Returns

new_arr

[array] New array object with the dtype reflecting given change to the byte order.

method

matrix.nonzero()

Return the indices of the elements that are non-zero.

Refer to numpy.nonzero for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.nonzero

equivalent function

method

matrix.partition(kth, axis=-1, kind='introselect', order=None)

Rearranges the elements in the array in such a way that the value of the element in kth position is in the position it would be in a sorted array. All elements smaller than the kth element are moved before this element and all equal or greater are moved behind it. The ordering of the elements in the two partitions is undefined.

New in version 1.8.0.

Parameters

kth

[int or sequence of ints] Element index to partition by. The kth element value will be in its final sorted position and all smaller elements will be moved before it and all equal or greater elements behind it. The order of all elements in the partitions is undefined. If provided with a sequence of kth it will partition all elements indexed by kth of them into their sorted position at once.

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which to sort. Default is -1, which means sort along the last axis.

kind


order

[st or list of st, optional] When a is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not all fields need to be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

See also:

numpy.partition

Return a partitioned copy of an array.

argpartition

Indirect partition.
sort

Full sort.

Notes

See np.partition for notes on the different algorithms.

Examples

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

```python
>>> a.partition((1, 3))
array([1, 2, 3, 4])
```

method

matrix.prod (axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the product of the array elements over the given axis.

Refer to prod for full documentation.

See also:

`prod`, `ndarray.prod`

Notes

Same as ndarray.prod, except, where that returns an ndarray, this returns a matrix object instead.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))); x
matrix([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
>>> x.prod()
0
>>> x.prod(0)
matrix([[ 0, 45, 120, 231]])
>>> x.prod(1)
matrix([[ 0],
        [ 840],
        [7920]])
```

method

matrix.ptp (axis=None, out=None)

Peak-to-peak (maximum - minimum) value along the given axis.

Refer to numpy.ptp for full documentation.
See also:

* numpy.ptp

Notes

Same as *ndarray.ptp*, except, where that would return an *ndarray* object, this returns a *matrix* object.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))); x
matrix([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
```

```python
>>> x.ptp()
11
```

```python
>>> x.ptp(0)
matrix([[8, 8, 8, 8]])
```

```python
>>> x.ptp(1)
matrix([[3],
        [3],
        [3]])
```

**method**

*matrix.put*(indices, values, mode='raise')

Set *a.flat[n] = values[n]* for all *n* in indices.

Refer to *numpy.put* for full documentation.

See also:

* numpy.put

   equivalent function

**method**

*matrix.ravel*(order='C')

Return a flattened matrix.

Refer to *numpy.ravel* for more documentation.

**Parameters**

order

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] The elements of *m* are read using this index order. ‘C’ means to index the elements in C-like order, with the last axis index changing fastest, back to the first axis index changing slowest. ‘F’ means to index the elements in Fortran-like index order, with the first index changing fastest, and the last index changing slowest. Note that the ‘C’ and ‘F’ options take no account of the memory layout of the underlying array, and only refer to the order of axis indexing. ‘A’ means to read the elements in Fortran-like index order if *m* is Fortran contiguous in memory, C-like order otherwise. ‘K’ means to read the elements in the order they occur in memory, except for reversing the data when strides are negative. By default, ‘C’ index order is used.
Returns

ret

Returns the matrix flattened to shape \((I, N)\) where \(N\) is the number of elements in the original matrix. A copy is made only if necessary.

See also:

- `matrix.flatten`
  - returns a similar output matrix but always a copy
- `matrix.flat`
  - a flat iterator on the array.
- `numpy.ravel`
  - related function which returns an ndarray

method

- `matrix.repeat (repeats, axis=None)`
  - Repeat elements of an array.
  - Refer to `numpy.repeat` for full documentation.
  - See also:
    - `numpy.repeat`
      - equivalent function

method

- `matrix.reshape (shape, order='C')`
  - Returns an array containing the same data with a new shape.
  - Refer to `numpy.reshape` for full documentation.
  - See also:
    - `numpy.reshape`
      - equivalent function

Notes

Unlike the free function `numpy.reshape`, this method on `ndarray` allows the elements of the shape parameter to be passed in as separate arguments. For example, `a.reshape(10, 11)` is equivalent to `a.reshape((10, 11))`.

method

- `matrix.resize (new_shape, refcheck=True)`
  - Change shape and size of array in-place.
new_shape
[tuple of ints, or n ints] Shape of resized array.

refcheck
[bool, optional] If False, reference count will not be checked. Default is True.

Returns
None

Raises

ValueError
If a does not own its own data or references or views to it exist, and the data memory must be changed. PyPy only: will always raise if the data memory must be changed, since there is no reliable way to determine if references or views to it exist.

SystemError
If the order keyword argument is specified. This behaviour is a bug in NumPy.

See also:

resize

Return a new array with the specified shape.

Notes
This reallocates space for the data area if necessary.

Only contiguous arrays (data elements consecutive in memory) can be resized.

The purpose of the reference count check is to make sure you do not use this array as a buffer for another Python object and then reallocate the memory. However, reference counts can increase in other ways so if you are sure that you have not shared the memory for this array with another Python object, then you may safely set refcheck to False.

Examples

Shrinking an array: array is flattened (in the order that the data are stored in memory), resized, and reshaped:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], order='C')
>>> a.resize((2, 1))
>>> a
array([[0],
[1]])
```

```python
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], order='F')
>>> a.resize((2, 1))
>>> a
array([[0],
[2]])
```

Enlarging an array: as above, but missing entries are filled with zeros:
```python
>>> b = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]])
>>> b.resize(2, 3)  # new_shape parameter doesn't have to be a tuple
>>> b
array([[0, 1, 2],
        [3, 0, 0]])

Referencing an array prevents resizing...

```n``````python
>>> c = a
>>> a.resize((1, 1))
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ... ValueError: cannot resize an array that references or is referenced ...

Unless refcheck is False:

```n``````python
>>> a.resize((1, 1), refcheck=False)
>>> a
array([[0]])
>>> c
array([[0]])
```

Method

```python
matrix.round(decimals=0, out=None)
```

Return `a` with each element rounded to the given number of decimals.

Refer to `numpy.around` for full documentation.

See also:

```python
numpy.around
```

equivalent function

Method

```python
matrix.searchsorted(v, side='left', sorter=None)
```

Find indices where elements of `v` should be inserted in `a` to maintain order.

For full documentation, see `numpy.searchsorted`

See also:

```python
numpy.searchsorted
```

equivalent function

Method

```python
matrix.setfield(val, dtype, offset=0)
```

Put a value into a specified place in a field defined by a data-type.

Place `val` into `a`'s field defined by `dtype` and beginning `offset` bytes into the field.

Parameters

```python
val
```

[object] Value to be placed in field.

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dtype

[ dtype object ] Data-type of the field in which to place val.

offset

[int, optional ] The number of bytes into the field at which to place val.

Returns

None

See also:

getfield

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.eye(3)
```
```python
>>> x.getfield(np.float64)
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
```
```python
>>> x.setfield(3, np.int32)
```
```python
>>> x.getfield(np.int32)
array([[3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3]], dtype=int32)
```
```python
>>> x
array([[1.0e+000, 1.5e-323, 1.5e-323],
       [1.5e-323, 1.0e+000, 1.5e-323],
       [1.5e-323, 1.5e-323, 1.0e+000]])
```
```python
>>> x.setfield(np.eye(3), np.int32)
```
```python
>>> x
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
```
```

method

matrix.setflags (write=None, align=None, uic=None)

Set array flags WRITEABLE, ALIGNED, (WRITEBACKIFCOPY and UPDATEIFCOPY), respectively.

These Boolean-valued flags affect how numpy interprets the memory area used by a (see Notes below). The ALIGNED flag can only be set to True if the data is actually aligned according to the type. The WRITEBACKIFCOPY and (deprecated) UPDATEIFCOPY flags can never be set to True. The flag WRITEABLE can only be set to True if the array owns its own memory, or the ultimate owner of the memory exposes a writeable buffer interface, or is a string. (The exception for string is made so that unpickling can be done without copying memory.)

Parameters

write

[ bool, optional ] Describes whether or not a can be written to.

align

[ bool, optional ] Describes whether or not a is aligned properly for its type.
**uic**

[bool, optional] Describes whether or not a is a copy of another “base” array.

**Notes**

Array flags provide information about how the memory area used for the array is to be interpreted. There are 7 Boolean flags in use, only four of which can be changed by the user: WRITEBACKIFCOPY, UPDATEIFCOPY, WRITEABLE, and ALIGNED.

WRITEABLE (W) the data area can be written to;

ALIGNED (A) the data and strides are aligned appropriately for the hardware (as determined by the compiler);

UPDATEIFCOPY (U) (deprecated), replaced by WRITEBACKIFCOPY;

WRITEBACKIFCOPY (X) this array is a copy of some other array (referenced by .base). When the C-API function PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy is called, the base array will be updated with the contents of this array.

All flags can be accessed using the single (upper case) letter as well as the full name.

**Examples**

```python
>>> y = np.array([[3, 1, 7],
...                [2, 0, 0],
...                [8, 5, 9]])
>>> y
array([[3, 1, 7],
       [2, 0, 0],
       [8, 5, 9]])
>>> y.flags
C_CONTIGUOUS : True
F_CONTIGUOUS : False
OWNDATA : True
WRITEABLE : True
ALIGNED : True
WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
UPDATEIFCOPY : False
>>> y.setflags(write=0, align=0)
>>> y.flags
C_CONTIGUOUS : True
F_CONTIGUOUS : False
OWNDATA : True
WRITEABLE : False
ALIGNED : False
WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
UPDATEIFCOPY : False
>>> y.setflags(uic=1)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: cannot set WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag to True
```

**method**

```python
matrix.sort (axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)
```

Sort an array in-place. Refer to `numpy.sort` for full documentation.
Parameters

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which to sort. Default is -1, which means sort along the last axis.

kind

[{'quicksort', 'mergesort', 'heapsort', 'stable'}, optional] Sorting algorithm. The default is 'quicksort'. Note that both 'stable' and 'mergesort' use timsort under the covers and, in general, the actual implementation will vary with datatype. The 'mergesort' option is retained for backwards compatibility.

Changed in version 1.15.0: The 'stable' option was added.

order

[str or list of str, optional] When a is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not all fields need be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

See also:

numpy.sort

Return a sorted copy of an array.

numpy.argsort

Indirect sort.

numpy.lexsort

Indirect stable sort on multiple keys.

numpy.searchsorted

Find elements in sorted array.

numpy.partition

Partial sort.

Notes

See numpy.sort for notes on the different sorting algorithms.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1,4], [3,1]])
>>> a.sort(axis=1)
>>> a
array([[1, 4],
       [3, 1]])
>>> a.sort(axis=0)
>>> a
array([[1, 3],
       [1, 4]])
```
Use the `order` keyword to specify a field to use when sorting a structured array:

```python
>>> a = np.array([('a', 2), ('c', 1)], dtype=[('x', 'S1'), ('y', int)])
>>> a.sort(order='y')
>>> a
array([(b'c', 1), (b'a', 2)],
      dtype=[('x', 'S1'), ('y', '<i8')])
```

method

```
matrix.squeeze(axis=None)
```

Return a possibly reshaped matrix.

Refer to `numpy.squeeze` for more documentation.

**Parameters**

axis

[None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Selects a subset of the axes of length one in the shape. If an axis is selected with shape entry greater than one, an error is raised.

**Returns**

squeezed

[matrix] The matrix, but as a (1, N) matrix if it had shape (N, 1).

**See also:**

```
numpy.squeeze
```

related function

**Notes**

If `m` has a single column then that column is returned as the single row of a matrix. Otherwise `m` is returned. The returned matrix is always either `m` itself or a view into `m`. Supplying an axis keyword argument will not affect the returned matrix but it may cause an error to be raised.

**Examples**

```python
>>> c = np.matrix([[1], [2]])
>>> c
matrix([[1],
        [2]])
>>> c.squeeze()
matrix([[1, 2]])
>>> r = c.T
>>> r
matrix([[1, 2]])
>>> r.squeeze()
matrix([[1, 2]])
>>> m = np.matrix([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> m.squeeze()
matrix([[1, 2],
        [3, 4]])
```
method

```
matrix.std(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0)
```

Return the standard deviation of the array elements along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.std` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.std
```

Notes

This is the same as `ndarray.std`, except that where an `ndarray` would be returned, a `matrix` object is returned instead.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3, 4))
>>> x
matrix([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
>>> x.std()
3.4520525295346629 # may vary
>>> x.std(0)
matrix([[ 3.26598632,  3.26598632,  3.26598632,  3.26598632]]) # may vary
>>> x.std(1)
matrix([[ 1.11803399],
        [ 1.11803399],
        [ 1.11803399]])
```

method

```
matrix.sum(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)
```

Returns the sum of the matrix elements, along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.sum` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.sum
```

Notes

This is the same as `ndarray.sum`, except that where an `ndarray` would be returned, a `matrix` object is returned instead.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix([[1, 2], [4, 3]])
>>> x.sum()
10
>>> x.sum(axis=1)
matrix([[3],
        [7]])
>>> x.sum(axis=1, dtype='float')
matrix([[3.],
        [7.]])
>>> out = np.zeros((2, 1), dtype='float')
>>> x.sum(axis=1, dtype='float', out=np.asmatrix(out))
matrix([[3.],
        [7.]])
```

method

**matrix.swapaxes**(axis1, axis2)

Return a view of the array with `axis1` and `axis2` interchanged.

Refer to `numpy.swapaxes` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.swapaxes`

equivalent function

method

**matrix.take**(indices, axis=None, out=None, mode='raise')

Return an array formed from the elements of `a` at the given indices.

Refer to `numpy.take` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.take`

equivalent function

method

**matrix.tobytes**(order='C')

Construct Python bytes containing the raw data bytes in the array.

Constructs Python bytes showing a copy of the raw contents of data memory. The bytes object is produced in C-order by default. This behavior is controlled by the `order` parameter.

New in version 1.9.0.

Parameters

**order**


Returns
s

[bytes] Python bytes exhibiting a copy of a's raw data.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], dtype='<u2')
>>> x.tobytes()
'b\x00\x00\x01\x00\x02\x00\x03\x00'
>>> x.tobytes('C') == x.tobytes()
True
>>> x.tobytes('F')
b'\x00\x00\x02\x00\x01\x00\x03\x00'
```

method

**matrix.tofile***(fid, sep=",", format='%s')***

Write array to a file as text or binary (default).

Data is always written in 'C' order, independent of the order of a. The data produced by this method can be recovered using the function fromfile().

**Parameters**

- **fid**

  [file or str or Path] An open file object, or a string containing a filename.

  Changed in version 1.17.0: **pathlib.Path** objects are now accepted.

- **sep**

  [str] Separator between array items for text output. If "" (empty), a binary file is written, equivalent to file.write(a.tobytes()).

- **format**

  [str] Format string for text file output. Each entry in the array is formatted to text by first converting it to the closest Python type, and then using "format" % item.

**Notes**

This is a convenience function for quick storage of array data. Information on endianness and precision is lost, so this method is not a good choice for files intended to archive data or transport data between machines with different endianness. Some of these problems can be overcome by outputting the data as text files, at the expense of speed and file size.

When fid is a file object, array contents are directly written to the file, bypassing the file object's write method. As a result, tofile cannot be used with files objects supporting compression (e.g., GzipFile) or file-like objects that do not support fileno() (e.g., BytesIO).

method

**matrix.tolist**()

Return the matrix as a (possibly nested) list.

See **ndarray.tolist** for full documentation.

See also:
**ndarray.tolist**

**Examples**

```python
def matrix:
    return np.array([0, 1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6, 7], [8, 9, 10, 11])

>>> x.tolist()
[[0, 1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6, 7], [8, 9, 10, 11]]
```

**method**

**matrix.tostring**(order='C')

A compatibility alias for **tobytes**, with exactly the same behavior.

Despite its name, it returns **bytes** not **strs**.

Deprecated since version 1.19.0.

**method**

**matrix.trace**(offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the sum along diagonals of the array.

Refer to **numpy.trace** for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.trace**

equivalent function

**method**

**matrix.transpose**(axes)

Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.

For a 1-D array this has no effect, as a transposed vector is simply the same vector. To convert a 1-D array into a 2D column vector, an additional dimension must be added. **np.atleast2d(a).T** achieves this, as does **a[:, np.newaxis]**. For a 2-D array, this is a standard matrix transpose. For an n-D array, if axes are given, their order indicates how the axes are permuted (see Examples). If axes are not provided and **a.shape = (i[0], i[1], ... i[n-2], i[n-1])**, then **a.transpose().shape = (i[n-1], i[n-2], .. . i[1], i[0])**.

**Parameters**

**axes**

[None, tuple of ints, or n ints]

• None or no argument: reverses the order of the axes.

• tuple of ints: i in the j-th place in the tuple means a's i-th axis becomes a.transpose()'s j-th axis.

• n ints: same as an n-tuple of the same ints (this form is intended simply as a “convenience” alternative to the tuple form)

**Returns**
out

[ndarray] View of a, with axes suitably permuted.

See also:

transpose

Equivalent function

ndarray.T

Array property returning the array transposed.

ndarray.reshape

Give a new shape to an array without changing its data.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> a
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]])
>>> a.transpose()
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
>>> a.transpose((1, 0))
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
>>> a.transpose(1, 0)
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
```

method

matrix.var (axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0)

Returns the variance of the matrix elements, along the given axis.

Refer to numpy.var for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.var

Notes

This is the same as ndarray.var, except that where an ndarray would be returned, a matrix object is returned instead.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.matrix(np.arange(12).reshape((3, 4)))
>>> x
matrix([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
>>> x.var()
11.916666666666666
>>> x.var(0)
matrix([[ 10.66666667,  10.66666667,  10.66666667,  10.66666667]]) # may vary
>>> x.var(1)
matrix([[1.25],
        [1.25],
        [1.25]])
```

method

```python
matrix.view([dtype[, type]])
```

New view of array with the same data.

**Note:** Passing None for dtype is different from omitting the parameter, since the former invokes dtype(None) which is an alias for dtype('float_').

**Parameters**

dtype

[ data-type or ndarray sub-class, optional ] Data-type descriptor of the returned view, e.g., float32 or int16. Omitting it results in the view having the same data-type as a. This argument can also be specified as an ndarray sub-class, which then specifies the type of the returned object (this is equivalent to setting the type parameter).

type

[ Python type, optional ] Type of the returned view, e.g., ndarray or matrix. Again, omission of the parameter results in type preservation.

**Notes**

a.view() is used two different ways:

a.view(some_dtype) or a.view(dtype=some_dtype) constructs a view of the array's memory with a different data-type. This can cause a reinterpretation of the bytes of memory.

a.view(ndarray_subclass) or a.view(type=ndarray_subclass) just returns an instance of ndarray_subclass that looks at the same array (same shape, dtype, etc.) This does not cause a reinterpretation of the memory.

For a.view(some_dtype), if some_dtype has a different number of bytes per entry than the previous dtype (for example, converting a regular array to a structured array), then the behavior of the view cannot be predicted just from the superficial appearance of a (shown by print(a)). It also depends on exactly how a is stored in memory. Therefore if a is C-ordered versus fortran-ordered, versus defined as a slice or transpose, etc., the view may give different results.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array(((1, 2), ('a', np.int8), ('b', np.int8)))

Viewing array data using a different type and dtype:

```python
>>> y = x.view(dtype=np.int16, type=np.matrix)
>>> y
matrix([[513]], dtype=int16)
>>> print(type(y))
<class 'numpy.matrix'>
```

Creating a view on a structured array so it can be used in calculations:

```python
>>> x = np.array(((1, 2), (3, 4)), dtype=[('a', np.int8), ('b', np.int8)])
>>> xv = x.view(dtype=np.int8).reshape(-1, 2)
>>> xv
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]], dtype=int8)
>>> xv.mean(0)
array([2., 3.])
```

Making changes to the view changes the underlying array:

```python
>>> xv[0, 1] = 20
>>> x
array([(1, 20), (3, 4)], dtype=[('a', 'i1'), ('b', 'i1')])
```

Using a view to convert an array to a recarray:

```python
>>> z = x.view(np.recarray)
>>> z.a
array([1, 3], dtype=int8)
```

Views share data:

```python
>>> x[0] = (9, 10)
>>> z[0]
(9, 10)
```

Views that change the dtype size (bytes per entry) should normally be avoided on arrays defined by slices, transposes, fortran-ordering, etc.:
numpy.asmatrix(data, dtype=None)

Interpret the input as a matrix.

Unlike matrix, asmatrix does not make a copy if the input is already a matrix or an ndarray. Equivalent to matrix(data, copy=False).

Parameters

data
[array_like] Input data.
dtype
[data-type] Data-type of the output matrix.

Returns

mat
[matrix] data interpreted as a matrix.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])

>>> m = np.asmatrix(x)

>>> x[0,0] = 5

>>> m
matrix([[5, 2],
        [3, 4]])
```

numpy.bmat(obj, ldict=None, gdict=None)

Build a matrix object from a string, nested sequence, or array.

Parameters

obj
[str or array_like] Input data. If a string, variables in the current scope may be referenced by name.

ldict
[dict, optional] A dictionary that replaces local operands in current frame. Ignored if obj is not a string or gdict is None.

gdict
[dict, optional] A dictionary that replaces global operands in current frame. Ignored if obj is not a string.

Returns

out
[matrix] Returns a matrix object, which is a specialized 2-D array.
See also:

block

A generalization of this function for N-d arrays, that returns normal ndarrays.

Examples

```python
>>> A = np.mat('1 1; 1 1')
>>> B = np.mat('2 2; 2 2')
>>> C = np.mat('3 4; 5 6')
>>> D = np.mat('7 8; 9 0')

All the following expressions construct the same block matrix:

```python
>>> np.bmat([[A, B], [C, D]])
matrix([[1, 1, 2, 2],
        [1, 1, 2, 2],
        [3, 4, 7, 8],
        [5, 6, 9, 0]])
```

```python
>>> np.bmat(np.r_[np.c_[A, B], np.c_[C, D]])
matrix([[1, 1, 2, 2],
        [1, 1, 2, 2],
        [3, 4, 7, 8],
        [5, 6, 9, 0]])
```

```python
>>> np.bmat('A,B; C,D')
matrix([[1, 1, 2, 2],
        [1, 1, 2, 2],
        [3, 4, 7, 8],
        [5, 6, 9, 0]])
```

Example 1: Matrix creation from a string

```python
>>> a = np.mat('1 2 3; 4 5 3')
```

```python
>>> print((a*a.T).I)
[[ 0.29239766 -0.13450292]
 [-0.13450292 0.08187135]]
```

Example 2: Matrix creation from nested sequence

```python
>>> np.mat([[1,5,10],[1.0,3,4]])
matrix([[ 1.+0.j, 5.+0.j, 10.+0.j],
        [ 1.+0.j, 3.+0.j, 0.+4.j]])
```

Example 3: Matrix creation from an array

```python
>>> np.mat(np.random.rand(3,3)).T
matrix([[4.17022005e-01, 3.02332573e-01, 1.86260211e-01],
        [7.20324493e-01, 1.46755891e-01, 3.45560727e-01],
        [1.14374817e-04, 9.23385948e-02, 3.96767474e-01]])
```
1.6.3 Memory-mapped file arrays

Memory-mapped files are useful for reading and/or modifying small segments of a large file with regular layout, without reading the entire file into memory. A simple subclass of the ndarray uses a memory-mapped file for the data buffer of the array. For small files, the over-head of reading the entire file into memory is typically not significant, however for large files using memory mapping can save considerable resources.

Memory-mapped file arrays have one additional method (besides those they inherit from the ndarray): `.flush()` which must be called manually by the user to ensure that any changes to the array actually get written to disk.

```
memmap(filename[, dtype, mode, offset, ...]) Create a memory-map to an array stored in a binary file on disk.

memmap.flush() Write any changes in the array to the file on disk.
```

class numpy.memmap (filename, dtype=<class 'numpy.ubyte'>, mode='r+', offset=0, shape=None, order='C')
Create a memory-map to an array stored in a binary file on disk.

Memory-mapped files are used for accessing small segments of large files on disk, without reading the entire file into memory. NumPy’s memmap’s are array-like objects. This differs from Python’s `mmap` module, which uses file-like objects.

This subclass of ndarray has some unpleasant interactions with some operations, because it doesn’t quite fit properly as a subclass. An alternative to using this subclass is to create the `mmap` object yourself, then create an ndarray with ndarray.__new__ directly, passing the object created in its ‘buffer’ parameter.

This class may at some point be turned into a factory function which returns a view into an mmap buffer.

Flush the memmap instance to write the changes to the file. Currently there is no API to close the underlying `mmap`. It is tricky to ensure the resource is actually closed, since it may be shared between different memmap instances.

Parameters

- **filename**
  [str, file-like object, or pathlib.Path instance] The file name or file object to be used as the array data buffer.

- **dtype**
  [data-type, optional] The data-type used to interpret the file contents. Default is `uint8`.

- **mode**
  ['r+', 'r', 'w+', 'c'], optional] The file is opened in this mode:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'r'</td>
<td>Open existing file for reading only.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'r+'</td>
<td>Open existing file for reading and writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'w+'</td>
<td>Create or overwrite existing file for reading and writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'c'</td>
<td>Copy-on-write: assignments affect data in memory, but changes are not saved to disk. The file on disk is read-only.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Default is ‘r+’.

- **offset**
  [int, optional] In the file, array data starts at this offset. Since `offset` is measured in bytes, it should normally be a multiple of the byte-size of `dtype`. When `mode` != ‘r’, even positive offsets beyond end of file are valid; The file will be extended to accommodate the
additional data. By default, `memmap` will start at the beginning of the file, even if `filename` is a file pointer `fp` and `fp.tell() != 0`.

**shape**

[tuple, optional] The desired shape of the array. If `mode == 'r'` and the number of remaining bytes after `offset` is not a multiple of the byte-size of `dtype`, you must specify `shape`. By default, the returned array will be 1-D with the number of elements determined by file size and data-type.

**order**

[{'C', 'F'}, optional] Specify the order of the ndarray memory layout: row-major, C-style or column-major, Fortran-style. This only has an effect if the shape is greater than 1-D. The default order is 'C'.

See also:

`lib.format.open_memmap`

Create or load a memory-mapped `.npy` file.

**Notes**

The memmap object can be used anywhere an ndarray is accepted. Given a memmap `fp`, `isinstance(fp, numpy.ndarray)` returns `True`.

Memory-mapped files cannot be larger than 2GB on 32-bit systems.

When a memmap causes a file to be created or extended beyond its current size in the filesystem, the contents of the new part are unspecified. On systems with POSIX filesystem semantics, the extended part will be filled with zero bytes.

**Examples**

```python
>>> data = np.arange(12, dtype='float32')
>>> data.resize((3, 4))
```

This example uses a temporary file so that doctest doesn't write files to your directory. You would use a 'normal' filename.

```python
>>> from tempfile import mkdtemp
>>> import os.path as path
>>> filename = path.join(mkdtemp(), 'newfile.dat')
```

Create a memmap with `dtype` and shape that matches our data:

```python
>>> fp = np.memmap(filename, dtype='float32', mode='w+', shape=(3, 4))
>>> fp
memmap([[0., 0., 0., 0.],
        [0., 0., 0., 0.],
        [0., 0., 0., 0.]], dtype=float32)
```

Write data to memmap array:
>>> fp[:] = data[:]
>>> fp
memmap([[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.],
         [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
         [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.]], dtype=float32)

>>> fp.filename == path.abspath(filename)
True

Flushes memory changes to disk in order to read them back

>>> fp.flush()

Load the memmap and verify data was stored:

>>> newfp = np.memmap(filename, dtype='float32', mode='r', shape=(3,4))
>>> newfp
memmap([[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.],
         [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
         [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.]], dtype=float32)

Read-only memmap:

>>> fpr = np.memmap(filename, dtype='float32', mode='r', shape=(3,4))
>>> fpr.flags.writeable
False

Copy-on-write memmap:

>>> fpc = np.memmap(filename, dtype='float32', mode='c', shape=(3,4))
>>> fpc.flags.writeable
True

It's possible to assign to copy-on-write array, but values are only written into the memory copy of the array, and not written to disk:

>>> fpc
memmap([[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.],
         [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
         [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.]], dtype=float32)
>>> fpc[0,:] = 0
>>> fpc
memmap([[ 0.,  0.,  0.,  0.],
         [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
         [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.]], dtype=float32)

File on disk is unchanged:

>>> fpr
memmap([[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.],
         [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
         [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.]], dtype=float32)

Offset into a memmap:
```python
>>> fpo = np.memmap(filename, dtype='float32', mode='r', offset=16)
>>> fpo
memmap([ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.,  8.,  9., 10., 11.], dtype=float32)
```

**Attributes**

- **filename**
  
  [str or pathlib.Path instance] Path to the mapped file.

- **offset**
  
  [int] Offset position in the file.

- **mode**
  
  [str] File mode.

**Methods**

- **flush()**

  Write any changes in the array to the file on disk.

Example:

```python
>>> a = np.memmap('newfile.dat', dtype=float, mode='w+', shape=1000)
>>> a[10] = 10.0
>>> a[30] = 30.0
>>> del a
>>> b = np.fromfile('newfile.dat', dtype=float)
>>> print(b[10], b[30])
10.0 30.0
>>> a = np.memmap('newfile.dat', dtype=float)
>>> print(a[10], a[30])
10.0 30.0
```
1.6.4 Character arrays (numpy.char)

See also:

Creating character arrays (numpy.char)

Note: The chararray class exists for backwards compatibility with Numarray, it is not recommended for new development. Starting from numpy 1.4, if one needs arrays of strings, it is recommended to use arrays of dtype object_, bytes_ or str_, and use the free functions in the numpy.char module for fast vectorized string operations.

These are enhanced arrays of either str_ type or bytes_ type. These arrays inherit from the ndarray, but specially-define the operations +, *, and % on a (broadcasting) element-by-element basis. These operations are not available on the standard ndarray of character type. In addition, the chararray has all of the standard str (and bytes) methods, executing them on an element-by-element basis. Perhaps the easiest way to create a chararray is to use self. view(chararray) where self is an ndarray of str or unicode data-type. However, a chararray can also be created using the numpy.chararray constructor, or via the numpy.char.array function:

```python
class numpy.chararray(shape[, itemsize, unicode,...])
```

Provides a convenient view on arrays of string and unicode values.

```python
core.defchararray.array(obj[, itemsize,...])
```

Create a chararray.

Versus a regular NumPy array of type str or unicode, this class adds the following functionality:

1) values automatically have whitespace removed from the end when indexed
2) comparison operators automatically remove whitespace from the end when comparing values
3) vectorized string operations are provided as methods (e.g. `endswith`) and infix operators (e.g. `"+", 
   "*", 
   "%")

chararrays should be created using numpy.char.array or numpy.char.asarray, rather than this constructor directly.

This constructor creates the array, using buffer (with offset and strides) if it is not None. If buffer is None, then constructs a new array with strides in “C order”, unless both len(shape) >= 2 and order='F', in which case strides is in “Fortran order”.

Parameters

- shape
  - [tuple] Shape of the array.
- itemsize
  - [int, optional] Length of each array element, in number of characters. Default is 1.
- unicode

1.6. Standard array subclasses
[bool, optional] Are the array elements of type unicode (True) or string (False). Default is False.

buffer

[object exposing the buffer interface or str, optional] Memory address of the start of the array data. Default is None, in which case a new array is created.

offset

[int, optional] Fixed stride displacement from the beginning of an axis? Default is 0. Needs to be >=0.

strides

[array_like of ints, optional] Strides for the array (see ndarray.strides for full description). Default is None.

order

[{'C', 'F'}, optional] The order in which the array data is stored in memory: 'C' -> “row major” order (the default), 'F' -> “column major” (Fortran) order.

Examples

```python
>>> charar = np.chararray((3, 3))
>>> charar[:] = 'a'
```
```
chararray([[b'a', b'a', b'a'],
          [b'a', b'a', b'a'],
          [b'a', b'a', b'a']], dtype='|S1')
```

```python
>>> charar = np.chararray(charar.shape, itemsize=5)
>>> charar[:] = 'abc'
```
```
chararray([[b'abc', b'abc', b'abc'],
          [b'abc', b'abc', b'abc'],
          [b'abc', b'abc', b'abc']], dtype='|S5')
```

Attributes

T
The transposed array.

base
Base object if memory is from some other object.

c types
An object to simplify the interaction of the array with the ctypes module.

data
Python buffer object pointing to the start of the array's data.

dtype
Data-type of the array's elements.
flags
Information about the memory layout of the array.

flat
A 1-D iterator over the array.

imag
The imaginary part of the array.

itemsize
Length of one array element in bytes.

nbytes
Total bytes consumed by the elements of the array.

ndim
Number of array dimensions.

real
The real part of the array.

shape
Tuple of array dimensions.

size
Number of elements in the array.

strides
Tuple of bytes to step in each dimension when traversing an array.

Methods

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<tr>
<td>argsort([axis, kind, order])</td>
<td>Returns the indices that would sort this array.</td>
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<tr>
<td>copy([order])</td>
<td>Return a copy of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>count(sub[, start, end])</td>
<td>Returns an array with the number of non-overlapping occurrences of substring sub in the range [start, end].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decode([encoding, errors])</td>
<td>Calls str.decode element-wise.</td>
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<tr>
<td>dump(file)</td>
<td>Dump a pickle of the array to the specified file.</td>
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<tr>
<td>dumps()</td>
<td>Returns the pickle of the array as a string.</td>
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<tr>
<td>encode([encoding, errors])</td>
<td>Calls str.encode element-wise.</td>
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<tr>
<td>endswith(suffix[, start, end])</td>
<td>Returns a boolean array which is True where the string element in self ends with suffix, otherwise False.</td>
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<tr>
<td>expandtabs([tabsize])</td>
<td>Return a copy of each string element where all tab characters are replaced by one or more spaces.</td>
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<tr>
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<td><code>isalnum()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphanumeric and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isalpha()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphabetic and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isdecimal()</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return True if there are only decimal characters in the element.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>isdigit()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are digits and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>islower()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are lowercase and there is at least one cased character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isnumeric()</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return True if there are only numeric characters in the element.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>isspace()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if there are only white-space characters in the string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>istitle()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if the element is a title-cased string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isupper()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are uppercase and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>item(*args)</code></td>
<td>Copy an element of an array to a standard Python scalar and return it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>join(seq)</code></td>
<td>Return a string which is the concatenation of the strings in the sequence <code>seq</code>.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>ljust(width[, fillchar])</code></td>
<td>Return an array with the elements of <code>self</code> left-justified in a string of length <code>width</code>.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>lower()</code></td>
<td>Return an array with the elements of <code>self</code> converted to lowercase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>lstrip([chars])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a copy with the leading characters removed.</td>
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<td><code>nonzero()</code></td>
<td>Return the indices of the elements that are non-zero.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>put(indices, values[, mode])</code></td>
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<td><code>reshape(shape[, order])</code></td>
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<td>Change shape and size of array in-place.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>rfind(sub[, start, end])</code></td>
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<td>rindex(sub[, start, end])</td>
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<tr>
<td>rjust(width[, fillchar])</td>
<td>Return an array with the elements of self right-justified in a string of length width.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rsplit([sep, maxsplit])</td>
<td>For each element in self, return a list of the words in the string, using sep as the delimiter string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rstrip([chars])</td>
<td>For each element in self, return a copy with the trailing characters removed.</td>
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<td>searchsorted(v[, side, sorter])</td>
<td>Find indices where elements of v should be inserted in a to maintain order.</td>
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<td>setfield(val, dtype[, offset])</td>
<td>Put a value into a specified place in a field defined by a data-type.</td>
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<td>setflags([write, align, uic])</td>
<td>Set array flags WRITEABLE, ALIGNED, (WRITEBACKIFCOPY and UPDATEIFCOPY), respectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sort([axis, kind, order])</td>
<td>Sort an array in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>split([sep, maxsplit])</td>
<td>For each element in self, return a list of the words in the string, using sep as the delimiter string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>splitlines([keepends])</td>
<td>For each element in self, return a list of the lines in the element, breaking at line boundaries.</td>
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<tr>
<td>squeeze(axis)</td>
<td>Remove axes of length one from a.</td>
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<tr>
<td>startswith(prefix[, start, end])</td>
<td>Returns a boolean array which is True where the string element in self starts with prefix, otherwise False.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strip([chars])</td>
<td>For each element in self, return a copy with the leading and trailing characters removed.</td>
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<tr>
<td>swapaxes(axis1, axis2)</td>
<td>Return a view of the array with axis1 and axis2 interchanged.</td>
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<tr>
<td>swapcase()</td>
<td>For each element in self, return a copy of the string with uppercase characters converted to lowercase and vice versa.</td>
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<tr>
<td>take(indices[, axis, out, mode])</td>
<td>Return an array formed from the elements of a at the given indices.</td>
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<tr>
<td>title()</td>
<td>For each element in self, return a titlecased version of the string: words start with uppercase characters converted to lowercase and vice versa.</td>
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<tr>
<td>tofile(fid[, sep, format])</td>
<td>Write array to a file as text or binary (default).</td>
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<tr>
<td>tolist()</td>
<td>Return the array as an a.ndim-levels deep nested list of Python scalars.</td>
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<td>tostring([order])</td>
<td>A compatibility alias for tobytes, with exactly the same behavior.</td>
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<tr>
<td>translate(table[, deletechars])</td>
<td>For each element in self, return a copy of the string where all characters occurring in the optional argument deletechars are removed, and the remaining characters have been mapped through the given translation table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transpose(*axes)</td>
<td>Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.</td>
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<tr>
<td>upper()</td>
<td>Return an array with the elements of self converted to uppercase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>view([dtype[, type]])</td>
<td>New view of array with the same data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zfill(width)</td>
<td>Return the numeric string left-filled with zeros in a string of length width.</td>
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1.6. Standard array subclasses 165
method

chararray . astype( dtype, order='K', casting='unsafe', subok=True, copy=True )

Copy of the array, cast to a specified type.

Parameters

dtype
[ str or dtype ] Typecode or data-type to which the array is cast.

order
[ { 'C', 'F', 'A', 'K' }, optional ] Controls the memory layout order of the result. 'C' means C
order, 'F' means Fortran order, 'A' means 'F' order if all the arrays are Fortran contiguous,
'C' order otherwise, and 'K' means as close to the order the array elements appear in memory
as possible. Default is 'K'.

casting
[ { 'no', 'equiv', 'safe', 'same_kind', 'unsafe' }, optional ] Controls what kind of data casting may
occur. Defaults to 'unsafe' for backwards compatibility.

• 'no' means the data types should not be cast at all.
• 'equiv' means only byte-order changes are allowed.
• 'safe' means only casts which can preserve values are allowed.
• 'same_kind' means only safe casts or casts within a kind, like float64 to float32, are allowed.
• 'unsafe' means any data conversions may be done.

subok
[ bool, optional ] If True, then sub-classes will be passed-through (default), otherwise the
returned array will be forced to be a base-class array.

copy
[ bool, optional ] By default, astype always returns a newly allocated array. If this is set to
false, and the dtype, order, and subok requirements are satisfied, the input array is returned
instead of a copy.

Returns

arr_t
[ ndarray ] Unless copy is False and the other conditions for returning the input array are
satisfied (see description for copy input parameter), arr_t is a new array of the same shape
as the input array, with dtype, order given by dtype, order.

Raises

ComplexWarning

When casting from complex to float or int. To avoid this, one should use a.real.
astype(t).
Notes

Changed in version 1.17.0: Casting between a simple data type and a structured one is possible only for “unsafe” casting. Casting to multiple fields is allowed, but casting from multiple fields is not.

Changed in version 1.9.0: Casting from numeric to string types in ‘safe’ casting mode requires that the string dtype length is long enough to store the max integer/float value converted.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 2.5])
>>> x
array([1., 2., 2.5])

>>> x.astype(int)
array([1, 2, 2])
```

method

cchararray.argsort (axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)

Returns the indices that would sort this array.

Refer to numpy.argsort for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.argsort
equivalent function

method

cchararray.copy (order='C')

Return a copy of the array.

Parameters

order

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the memory layout of the copy. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ if a is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means match the layout of a as closely as possible. (Note that this function and numpy.copy are very similar but have different default values for their order= arguments, and this function always passes sub-classes through.)

See also:

numpy.copy

Similar function with different default behavior

numpy.copyto
Notes

This function is the preferred method for creating an array copy. The function `numpy.copy` is similar, but it defaults to using order ‘K’, and will not pass sub-classes through by default.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1,2,3],[4,5,6]], order='F')

>>> y = x.copy()

>>> x.fill(0)

>>> x
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])

>>> y
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])

>>> y.flags['C_CONTIGUOUS']
True
```

method

`chararray.count(sub, start=0, end=None)`

Returns an array with the number of non-overlapping occurrences of substring `sub` in the range `[start, end]`.

See also:

`char.count`

method

`chararray.decode(encoding=None, errors=None)`

Calls `str.decode` element-wise.

See also:

`char.decode`

method

`chararray.dump(file)`

Dump a pickle of the array to the specified file. The array can be read back with pickle.load or numpy.load.

Parameters

`file`

[STR or Path] A string naming the dump file.

Changed in version 1.17.0: `pathlib.Path` objects are now accepted.
chararray.dumps()
Returns the pickle of the array as a string. pickle.loads or numpy.loads will convert the string back to an array.

Parameters

None

method

chararray.encode(encoding=None, errors=None)
Calls str.encode element-wise.

See also:

char.encode

method

chararray.endswith(suffix, start=0, end=None)
Returns a boolean array which is True where the string element in self ends with suffix, otherwise False.

See also:

char.endswith

method

chararray.expandtabs(tabsize=8)
Return a copy of each string element where all tab characters are replaced by one or more spaces.

See also:

char.expandtabs

method

chararray.fill(value)
Fill the array with a scalar value.

Parameters

value

[scalar] All elements of a will be assigned this value.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2])
>>> a.fill(0)
array([0, 0])
>>> a = np.empty(2)
>>> a.fill(1)
array([1., 1.])
```

method

1.6. Standard array subclasses 169
chararray: **find** *(sub, start=0, end=None)*

For each element, return the lowest index in the string where substring *sub* is found.

**See also:**

*char.*find

method

cchararray: **flatten**(order='C')

Return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension.

**Parameters**

order

([‘C’, ‘F’, ‘A’, ‘K’], optional) ‘C’ means to flatten in row-major (C-style) order. ‘F’ means to flatten in column-major (Fortran-style) order. ‘A’ means to flatten in column-major order if *a* is Fortran contiguous in memory, row-major order otherwise. ‘K’ means to flatten *a* in the order the elements occur in memory. The default is ‘C’.

**Returns**

y

[ndarray] A copy of the input array, flattened to one dimension.

**See also:**

ravel

Return a flattened array.

flat

A 1-D flat iterator over the array.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> a.flatten()
array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> a.flatten('F')
array([1, 3, 2, 4])
```

method

cchararray: **getfield**(dtype, offset=0)

Returns a field of the given array as a certain type.

A field is a view of the array data with a given data-type. The values in the view are determined by the given type and the offset into the current array in bytes. The offset needs to be such that the view dtype fits in the array dtype; for example an array of dtype complex128 has 16-byte elements. If taking a view with a 32-bit integer (4 bytes), the offset needs to be between 0 and 12 bytes.

**Parameters**
dtype

[str or dtype] The data type of the view. The dtype size of the view can not be larger than that of the array itself.

offset

[int] Number of bytes to skip before beginning the element view.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.diag([1.+1.j]*2)
>>> x[1, 1] = 2 + 4.j
>>> x
array([[1.+1.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+0.j, 2.+4.j]])
>>> x.getfield(np.float64)
array([[1., 0.],
       [0., 2.]])
```

By choosing an offset of 8 bytes we can select the complex part of the array for our view:

```python
>>> x.getfield(np.float64, offset=8)
array([[1., 0.],
       [0., 4.]])
```

method

chararray.index(sub, start=0, end=None)

Like find, but raises ValueError when the substring is not found.

See also:

char.index

method

chararray.isalnum()

Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphanumeric and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

See also:

char.isalnum

method

chararray.isalpha()

Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphabetic and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

See also:

char.isalpha

method

1.6. Standard array subclasses
chararray.isdecimal()
   For each element in self, return True if there are only decimal characters in the element.

   See also:
   
   char.isdecimal

method
chararray.isdigit()
   Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are digits and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

   See also:
   
   char.isdigit

method
chararray.islower()
   Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are lowercase and there is at least one cased character, false otherwise.

   See also:
   
   char.islower

method
chararray.isnumeric()
   For each element in self, return True if there are only numeric characters in the element.

   See also:
   
   char.isnumeric

method
chararray.isspace()
   Returns true for each element if there are only whitespace characters in the string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

   See also:
   
   char.isspace

method
chararray.istitle()
   Returns true for each element if the element is a titlecased string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

   See also:
   
   char.istitle

method
chararray.\texttt{isupper}()

Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are uppercase and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

See also:

\texttt{char.isupper} method

chararray.\texttt{item}(\*\texttt{args})

Copy an element of an array to a standard Python scalar and return it.

Parameters

*\texttt{args} [Arguments (variable number and type)]

- \texttt{none}: in this case, the method only works for arrays with one element ($a.size == 1$), which element is copied into a standard Python scalar object and returned.
- \texttt{int_type}: this argument is interpreted as a flat index into the array, specifying which element to copy and return.
- \texttt{tuple of int_types}: functions as does a single int_type argument, except that the argument is interpreted as an nd-index into the array.

Returns

\texttt{z} [Standard Python scalar object] A copy of the specified element of the array as a suitable Python scalar

Notes

When the data type of \texttt{a} is longdouble or clongdouble, \texttt{item()} returns a scalar array object because there is no available Python scalar that would not lose information. Void arrays return a buffer object for \texttt{item()}, unless fields are defined, in which case a tuple is returned.

\texttt{item} is very similar to \texttt{a[\texttt{args}]), except, instead of an array scalar, a standard Python scalar is returned. This can be useful for speeding up access to elements of the array and doing arithmetic on elements of the array using Python’s optimized math.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> x = np.random.randint(9, size=(3, 3))
>>> x
array([[2, 2, 6],
       [1, 3, 6],
       [1, 0, 1]])
>>> x.item(3)
1
>>> x.item(7)
0
```

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method

chararray.join(seq)

Return a string which is the concatenation of the strings in the sequence seq.

See also:

char.join

method

chararray.ljust(width, fillchar=' ')

Return an array with the elements of self left-justified in a string of length width.

See also:

char.ljust

method

chararray.lower()

Return an array with the elements of self converted to lowercase.

See also:

char.lower

method

chararray.lstrip(chars=None)

For each element in self, return a copy with the leading characters removed.

See also:

char.lstrip

method

chararray.nonzero()

Return the indices of the elements that are non-zero.

Refer to numpy.nonzero for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.nonzero

equivalent function

method

chararray.put(indices, values, mode='raise')

Set a.flat[n] = values[n] for all n in indices.

Refer to numpy.put for full documentation.
See also:

`numpy.put`
   equivalent function

method

`chararray.ravel([order])`
   Return a flattened array.
   Refer to `numpy.ravel` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.ravel`
   equivalent function

`ndarray.flat`
   a flat iterator on the array.

method

`chararray.repeat(repeats, axis=None)`
   Repeat elements of an array.
   Refer to `numpy.repeat` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.repeat`
   equivalent function

method

`chararray.replace(old, new, count=None)`
   For each element in self, return a copy of the string with all occurrences of substring old replaced by new.

See also:

`char.replace`

method

`chararray.reshape(shape, order='C')`
   Returns an array containing the same data with a new shape.
   Refer to `numpy.reshape` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.reshape`
   equivalent function
Notes

Unlike the free function `numpy.reshape`, this method on `ndarray` allows the elements of the shape parameter to be passed in as separate arguments. For example, `a.reshape(10, 11)` is equivalent to `a.reshape((10, 11))`.

```python
method
cıararray.resize(new_shape, refcheck=True)
Change shape and size of array in-place.
```

Parameters

- **new_shape**
  - [tuple of ints, or n ints] Shape of resized array.
- **refcheck**
  - [bool, optional] If False, reference count will not be checked. Default is True.

Returns

None

Raises

- **ValueError**
  - If `a` does not own its own data or references or views to it exist, and the data memory must be changed. PyPy only: will always raise if the data memory must be changed, since there is no reliable way to determine if references or views to it exist.

- **SystemError**
  - If the order keyword argument is specified. This behaviour is a bug in NumPy.

See also:

- `resize`
  - Return a new array with the specified shape.

Notes

This reallocates space for the data area if necessary.

Only contiguous arrays (data elements consecutive in memory) can be resized.

The purpose of the reference count check is to make sure you do not use this array as a buffer for another Python object and then reallocate the memory. However, reference counts can increase in other ways so if you are sure that you have not shared the memory for this array with another Python object, then you may safely set `refcheck` to False.
Examples

Shrinking an array: array is flattened (in the order that the data are stored in memory), resized, and reshaped:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], order='C')
>>> a.resize((2, 1))
array([[0],
       [1]])
```

```python
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], order='F')
>>> a.resize((2, 1))
array([[0],
       [2]])
```

Enlarging an array: as above, but missing entries are filled with zeros:

```python
>>> b = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]])
>>> b.resize(2, 3)  # new_shape parameter doesn't have to be a tuple
>>> b
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 0, 0]])
```

Referencing an array prevents resizing...

```python
>>> c = a
>>> a.resize((1, 1))
Traceback (most recent call last):
 ... ValueError: cannot resize an array that references or is referenced ...
```

Unless `refcheck` is False:

```python
>>> a.resize((1, 1), refcheck=False)
>>> a
array([[0]])
>>> c
array([[0]])
```

method

chararray `rfind`(sub, start=0, end=None)

For each element in `self`, return the highest index in the string where substring `sub` is found, such that `sub` is contained within `[start, end]`.

See also:

`char.rfind`

method

chararray `rindex`(sub, start=0, end=None)

Like `rfind`, but raises `ValueError` when the substring `sub` is not found.

See also:

`char.rindex`

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method

```
chararray.rjust (width, fillchar=’’)
```

Return an array with the elements of `self` right-justified in a string of length `width`.

See also:

```
char.rjust
```

method

```
chararray.rsplit (sep=None, maxsplit=None)
```

For each element in `self`, return a list of the words in the string, using `sep` as the delimiter string.

See also:

```
char.rsplit
```

method

```
chararray.rstrip (chars=None)
```

For each element in `self`, return a copy with the trailing characters removed.

See also:

```
char.rstrip
```

method

```
chararray.searchsorted (v, side=’left’, sorter=None)
```

Find indices where elements of `v` should be inserted in `a` to maintain order.

For full documentation, see `numpy.searchsorted`

See also:

```
numpy.searchsorted
```

equivalent function

method

```
chararray.setfield (val, dtype, offset=0)
```

Put a value into a specified place in a field defined by a data-type.

Place `val` into `a`’s field defined by `dtype` and beginning `offset` bytes into the field.

Parameters

```
val
    [object] Value to be placed in field.

dtype
    [dtype object] Data-type of the field in which to place `val`.

offset
    [int, optional] The number of bytes into the field at which to place `val`.
```

Returns
None

See also:

gfield

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.eye(3)
>>> x.getfield(np.float64)
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
>>> x.setfield(3, np.int32)
>>> x.getfield(np.int32)
array([[3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3]], dtype=int32)
```
Notes

Array flags provide information about how the memory area used for the array is to be interpreted. There are 7 Boolean flags in use, only four of which can be changed by the user: WRITEBACKIFCOPY, UPDATEIFCOPY, WRITEABLE, and ALIGNED.

WRITEABLE (W) the data area can be written to:

ALIGNED (A) the data and strides are aligned appropriately for the hardware (as determined by the compiler);

UPDATEIFCOPY (U) (deprecated), replaced by WRITEBACKIFCOPY;

WRITEBACKIFCOPY (X) this array is a copy of some other array (referenced by .base). When the C-API function PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy is called, the base array will be updated with the contents of this array.

All flags can be accessed using the single (upper case) letter as well as the full name.

Examples

```python
>>> y = np.array([[3, 1, 7],
...                [2, 0, 0],
...                [8, 5, 9]])
>>> y
array([[3, 1, 7],
       [2, 0, 0],
       [8, 5, 9]])
>>> y.flags
C_CONTIGUOUS : True
F_CONTIGUOUS : False
OWNDATA : True
WRITEABLE : True
ALIGNED : True
WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
UPDATEIFCOPY : False
>>> y.setflags(write=0, align=0)
>>> y.flags
C_CONTIGUOUS : True
F_CONTIGUOUS : False
OWNDATA : True
WRITEABLE : False
ALIGNED : False
WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
UPDATEIFCOPY : False
>>> y.setflags(uic=1)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: cannot set WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag to True
```

method

chararray.sort(axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)

Sort an array in-place. Refer to numpy.sort for full documentation.

Parameters

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which to sort. Default is -1, which means sort along the last axis.
kind

[{'quicksort', 'mergesort', 'heapsort', 'stable'}, optional] Sorting algorithm. The default is 'quicksort'. Note that both 'stable' and 'mergesort' use timsort under the covers and, in general, the actual implementation will vary with datatype. The 'mergesort' option is retained for backwards compatibility.

Changed in version 1.15.0: The 'stable' option was added.

order

[str or list of str, optional] When a is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not all fields need be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

See also:

numpy.sort

Return a sorted copy of an array.

numpy.argsort

Indirect sort.

numpy.lexsort

Indirect stable sort on multiple keys.

numpy.searchsorted

Find elements in sorted array.

numpy.partition

Partial sort.

Notes

See numpy.sort for notes on the different sorting algorithms.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1,4], [3,1]])
>>> a.sort(axis=1)
>>> a
array([[1, 4],
       [1, 3]])
>>> a.sort(axis=0)
>>> a
array([[1, 3],
       [1, 4]])
```

Use the order keyword to specify a field to use when sorting a structured array:
```python
>>> a = np.array([['a', 2], ['c', 1]], dtype=[('x', 'S1'), ('y', int)])
>>> a.sort(order='y')
array([['c', 1], ['a', 2]],
      dtype=[('x', 'S1'), ('y', '<i8')])
```

method

chararray.split(sep=None, maxsplit=None)

For each element in self, return a list of the words in the string, using sep as the delimiter string.

See also:

char.split

method

chararray.splitlines(keepends=None)

For each element in self, return a list of the lines in the element, breaking at line boundaries.

See also:

char.splitlines

method

chararray.squeeze(axis=None)

Remove axes of length one from a.

Refer to numpy.squeeze for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.squeeze

equivalent function

method

chararray.startswith(prefix, start=0, end=None)

Returns a boolean array which is True where the string element in self starts with prefix, otherwise False.

See also:

char.startswith

method

chararray.strip(chars=None)

For each element in self, return a copy with the leading and trailing characters removed.

See also:

char.strip

method
chararray.swapaxes(axis1, axis2)
    Return a view of the array with axis1 and axis2 interchanged.

    Refer to numpy.swapaxes for full documentation.

    See also:

    * numpy.swapaxes
      equivalent function

method
chararray.swapcase()
    For each element in self, return a copy of the string with uppercase characters converted to lowercase and vice versa.

    See also:

    * char.swapcase
      method

chararray.take(indices, axis=None, out=None, mode='raise')
    Return an array formed from the elements of a at the given indices.

    Refer to numpy.take for full documentation.

    See also:

    * numpy.take
      equivalent function

method
chararray.title()
    For each element in self, return a titlecased version of the string: words start with uppercase characters, all remaining cased characters are lowercase.

    See also:

    * char.title
      method

method
chararray.tofile(fid, sep='', format='%s')
    Write array to a file as text or binary (default).

    Data is always written in 'C' order, independent of the order of a. The data produced by this method can be recovered using the function fromfile().

    Parameters

    fid
        [file or str or Path] An open file object, or a string containing a filename.

        Changed in version 1.17.0: pathlib.Path objects are now accepted.
sep

[str] Separator between array items for text output. If "" (empty), a binary file is written, equivalent to file.write(a.tobytes()).

format

[str] Format string for text file output. Each entry in the array is formatted to text by first converting it to the closest Python type, and then using "format" % item.

Notes

This is a convenience function for quick storage of array data. Information on endianness and precision is lost, so this method is not a good choice for files intended to archive data or transport data between machines with different endianness. Some of these problems can be overcome by outputting the data as text files, at the expense of speed and file size.

When fid is a file object, array contents are directly written to the file, bypassing the file object’s write method. As a result, tofile cannot be used with files objects supporting compression (e.g., GzipFile) or file-like objects that do not support fileno() (e.g., BytesIO).

method

chararray.tolist()

Return the array as an a.ndim-levels deep nested list of Python scalars.

Return a copy of the array data as a (nested) Python list. Data items are converted to the nearest compatible builtin Python type, via the item function.

If a.ndim is 0, then since the depth of the nested list is 0, it will not be a list at all, but a simple Python scalar.

Parameters

none

Returns

y

[object, or list of object, or list of list of object, or …] The possibly nested list of array elements.

Notes

The array may be recreated via a = np.array(a.tolist()), although this may sometimes lose precision.
Examples

For a 1D array, `a.tolist()` is almost the same as `list(a)`, except that `tolist` changes numpy scalars to Python scalars:

```python
>>> a = np.uint32([1, 2])
>>> a_list = list(a)
>>> a_list
[1, 2]
>>> type(a_list[0])
<class 'numpy.uint32'>
>>> a_tolist = a.tolist()
>>> a_tolist
[1, 2]
>>> type(a_tolist[0])
<class 'int'>
```

Additionally, for a 2D array, `tolist` applies recursively:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> list(a)
[array([1, 2]), array([3, 4])]
>>> a.tolist()
[[1, 2], [3, 4]]
```

The base case for this recursion is a 0D array:

```python
>>> a = np.array(1)
>>> list(a)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
TypeError: iteration over a 0-d array
>>> a.tolist()
```

method

`chararray.tostring(order='C')`

A compatibility alias for `tobytes`, with exactly the same behavior.

Despite its name, it returns `bytes` not `strs`.

Deprecated since version 1.19.0.

method

`chararray.translate(table, deletechars=None)`

For each element in `self`, return a copy of the string where all characters occurring in the optional argument `deletechars` are removed, and the remaining characters have been mapped through the given translation table.

See also:

`char.translate`

method

`chararray.transpose(*axes)`

Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.
For a 1-D array this has no effect, as a transposed vector is simply the same vector. To convert a 1-D array into a 2D column vector, an additional dimension must be added. `np.atleast2d(a).T` achieves this, as does `a[:, np.newaxis]`. For a 2-D array, this is a standard matrix transpose. For an n-D array, if axes are given, their order indicates how the axes are permuted (see Examples). If axes are not provided and `a.shape = (i[0], i[1], ... i[n-2], i[n-1])`, then `a.transpose().shape = (i[n-1], i[n-2], .. . i[1], i[0])`.

**Parameters**

axes

[None, tuple of ints, or n ints]

- None or no argument: reverses the order of the axes.
- tuple of ints: `i` in the `j`-th place in the tuple means `a`'s `i`-th axis becomes `a.transpose()`'s `j`-th axis.
- `n` ints: same as an `n`-tuple of the same ints (this form is intended simply as a “convenience” alternative to the tuple form)

**Returns**

out

[ndarray] View of `a`, with axes suitably permuted.

See also:

`transpose`

Equivalent function

`ndarray.T`

Array property returning the array transposed.

`ndarray.reshape`

Give a new shape to an array without changing its data.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> a
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]])
>>> a.transpose()
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
>>> a.transpose((1, 0))
array([[1, 0],
       [3, 2]])
>>> a.transpose(1, 0)
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
```

chararray.upper()

Return an array with the elements of self converted to uppercase.

See also:

char.upper

method

chararray.view([dtype], type)

New view of array with the same data.

Note: Passing None for dtype is different from omitting the parameter, since the former invokes dtype(None) which is an alias for dtype('float_').

Parameters

dtype
[data-type or ndarray sub-class, optional] Data-type descriptor of the returned view, e.g., float32 or int16. Omitting it results in the view having the same data-type as a. This argument can also be specified as an ndarray sub-class, which then specifies the type of the returned object (this is equivalent to setting the type parameter).

Notes

a.view() is used two different ways:

a.view(some_dtype) or a.view(dtype=some_dtype) constructs a view of the array's memory with a different data-type. This can cause a reinterpretation of the bytes of memory.

a.view(ndarray_subclass) or a.view(type=ndarray_subclass) just returns an instance of ndarray_subclass that looks at the same array (same shape, dtype, etc.) This does not cause a reinterpretation of the memory.

For a.view(some_dtype), if some_dtype has a different number of bytes per entry than the previous dtype (for example, converting a regular array to a structured array), then the behavior of the view cannot be predicted just from the superficial appearance of a (shown by print(a)). It also depends on exactly how a is stored in memory. Therefore if a is C-ordered versus fortran-ordered, versus defined as a slice or transpose, etc., the view may give different results.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([(1, 2), (3, 4)], dtype=[('a', np.int8), ('b', np.int8)])
```

Viewing array data using a different type and dtype:

```python
>>> y = x.view(dtype=np.int16, type=np.matrix)
>>> y
matrix([[513]], dtype=int16)
>>> print(type(y))
<class 'numpy.matrix'>
```

Creating a view on a structured array so it can be used in calculations

```python
>>> x = np.array([(1, 2), (3, 4)], dtype=[('a', np.int8), ('b', np.int8)])
>>> xv = x.view(dtype=np.int8).reshape(-1, 2)
>>> xv
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]], dtype=int8)
>>> xv.mean(0)
array([2., 3.])
```

Making changes to the view changes the underlying array

```python
>>> xv[0, 1] = 20
>>> x
array([(1, 20), (3, 4)], dtype=[('a', 'i1'), ('b', 'i1')])
```

Using a view to convert an array to a recarray:

```python
>>> z = x.view(np.recarray)
>>> z.a
array([(1, 3)], dtype=[('a', '<i2'), ('b', '<i2')])
```

Views share data:

```python
>>> x[0] = (9, 10)
>>> z[0]
(9, 10)
```

Views that change the dtype size (bytes per entry) should normally be avoided on arrays defined by slices, transposes, fortran-ordering, etc.:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1,2,3],[4,5,6]], dtype=np.int16)
>>> y = x[:, 0:2]
>>> y
array([[1, 2],
       [4, 5]], dtype=int16)
>>> y.view(dtype=[('width', np.int16), ('length', np.int16)])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
ValueError: To change to a dtype of a different size, the array must be C-
contiguous
>>> z = y.copy()
>>> z.view(dtype=[('width', np.int16), ('length', np.int16)])
array([[1, 2],
       [4, 5]], dtype=[('width', '<i2'), ('length', '<i2')])
```
method

```
chararray.zfill(width)
```

Return the numeric string left-filled with zeros in a string of length `width`.

See also:

```
char.zfill
```

core.defchararray.array(obj, itemsize=None, copy=True, unicode=None, order=None)

Create a chararray.

Note: This class is provided for numarray backward-compatibility. New code (not concerned with numarray compatibility) should use arrays of type `string_` or `unicode_` and use the free functions in `numpy.char` for fast vectorized string operations instead.

Versus a regular NumPy array of type `str` or `unicode`, this class adds the following functionality:

1) values automatically have whitespace removed from the end when indexed
2) comparison operators automatically remove whitespace from the end when comparing values
3) vectorized string operations are provided as methods (e.g. `str.endswith`) and infix operators (e.g. `+`, `*`, `%`)

Parameters

**obj**

[array of str or unicode-like]

**itemsize**

[int, optional] `itemsize` is the number of characters per scalar in the resulting array. If `itemsize` is None, and `obj` is an object array or a Python list, the `itemsize` will be automatically determined. If `itemsize` is provided and `obj` is of type `str` or `unicode`, then the `obj` string will be chunked into `itemsize` pieces.

**copy**

[bool, optional] If true (default), then the object is copied. Otherwise, a copy will only be made if `__array__` returns a copy, if `obj` is a nested sequence, or if a copy is needed to satisfy any of the other requirements (`itemsize`, `unicode`, `order`, etc.).

**unicode**

[bool, optional] When true, the resulting chararray can contain Unicode characters, when false only 8-bit characters. If unicode is None and `obj` is one of the following:

- a chararray,
- an ndarray of type `str` or `unicode`
- a Python str or unicode object,

then the unicode setting of the output array will be automatically determined.

**order**

[\{'C', 'F', 'A'\}, optional] Specify the order of the array. If order is 'C' (default), then the array will be in C-contiguous order (last-index varies the fastest). If order is 'F', then the returned
array will be in Fortran-contiguous order (first-index varies the fastest). If order is ‘A’, then the returned array may be in any order (either C-, Fortran-contiguous, or even discontiguous).

Another difference with the standard ndarray of str data-type is that the chararray inherits the feature introduced by Numarray that white-space at the end of any element in the array will be ignored on item retrieval and comparison operations.

### 1.6.5 Record arrays (numpy.rec)

See also:

- Creating record arrays (numpy.rec)
- Data type routines
- Data type objects (dtype)

NumPy provides the `recarray` class which allows accessing the fields of a structured array as attributes, and a corresponding scalar data type object `record`.

```python
recarray(shape[, dtype, buf, offset, …]) Construct an ndarray that allows field access using attributes.

record A data-type scalar that allows field access as attribute lookup.
```

```python
class numpy.recarray (shape, dtype=None, buf=None, offset=0, strides=None, formats=None, names=None, titles=None, byteorder=None, aligned=False, order='C')
```

Construct an ndarray that allows field access using attributes.

Arrays may have a data-types containing fields, analogous to columns in a spread sheet. An example is `[(x, int), (y, float)]`, where each entry in the array is a pair of (int, float). Normally, these attributes are accessed using dictionary lookups such as `arr[‘x’]` and `arr[‘y’]`. Record arrays allow the fields to be accessed as members of the array, using `arr.x` and `arr.y`.

#### Parameters

- **shape**
  - [tuple] Shape of output array.

- **dtype**
  - [data-type, optional] The desired data-type. By default, the data-type is determined from `formats`, `names`, `titles`, `aligned` and `byteorder`.

- **formats**
  - [list of data-types, optional] A list containing the data-types for the different columns, e.g. `['i4', 'f8', 'i4']`. `formats` does not support the new convention of using types directly, i.e. `(int, float, int)`. Note that `formats` must be a list, not a tuple. Given that `formats` is somewhat limited, we recommend specifying `dtype` instead.

- **names**
  - [tuple of str, optional] The name of each column, e.g. `('x', 'y', 'z')`.

- **buf**
  - [buffer, optional] By default, a new array is created of the given shape and data-type. If `buf` is specified and is an object exposing the buffer interface, the array will use the memory from the existing buffer. In this case, the `offset` and `strides` keywords are available.

#### Returns
rec

[recarray] Empty array of the given shape and type.

Other Parameters

titles

[tuple of str, optional] Aliases for column names. For example, if names were ('x', 'y', 'z') and titles is ('x_coordinate', 'y_coordinate', 'z_coordinate'), then arr['x'] is equivalent to both arr.x and arr.x_coordinate.

byteorder

[{'<', '>', '='}, optional] Byte-order for all fields.

aligned

[bool, optional] Align the fields in memory as the C compiler would.

strides

[tuple of ints, optional] Buffer (buf) is interpreted according to these strides (strides define how many bytes each array element, row, column, etc. occupy in memory).

offset

[int, optional] Start reading buffer (buf) from this offset onwards.

order

[{'C', 'F'}, optional] Row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order.

See also:

core.records.fromrecords

Construct a record array from data.

record

fundamental data-type for recarray.

format_parser

determine a data-type from formats, names, titles.

Notes

This constructor can be compared to empty: it creates a new record array but does not fill it with data. To create a record array from data, use one of the following methods:

1. Create a standard ndarray and convert it to a record array, using arr.view(np.recarray)
2. Use the buf keyword.
3. Use np.rec.fromrecords.
Examples

Create an array with two fields, x and y:

```python
>>> x = np.array([(1.0, 2), (3.0, 4)], dtype=[('x', '<f8'), ('y', '<i8')])
>>> x
array([(1., 2), (3., 4)], dtype=[('x', '<f8'), ('y', '<i8')])

>>> x['x']
array([1., 3.])
```

View the array as a record array:

```python
>>> x = x.view(np.recarray)
>>> x.x
array([1., 3.])
```

Create a new, empty record array:

```python
>>> np.recarray((2,),
...      dtype=[('x', int), ('y', float), ('z', int)])
rec.array([(-1073741821, 1.2249118382103472e-301, 24547520),
          (3471280, 1.2134086255804012e-316, 0)],
       dtype=[('x', '<i4'), ('y', '<f8'), ('z', '<i4')])
```

Attributes

- `T`
  The transposed array.
- `base`
  Base object if memory is from some other object.
- `ctypes`
  An object to simplify the interaction of the array with the ctypes module.
- `data`
  Python buffer object pointing to the start of the array’s data.
- `dtype`
  Data-type of the array’s elements.
- `flags`
  Information about the memory layout of the array.
- `flat`
  A 1-D iterator over the array.
- `imag`
  The imaginary part of the array.
**itemsize**

Length of one array element in bytes.

**nbytes**

Total bytes consumed by the elements of the array.

**ndim**

Number of array dimensions.

**real**

The real part of the array.

**shape**

Tuple of array dimensions.

**size**

Number of elements in the array.

**strides**

Tuple of bytes to step in each dimension when traversing an array.

## Methods

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<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td><code>all</code> ([axis, out, keepdims, where])</td>
<td>Returns True if all elements evaluate to True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>any</code> ([axis, out, keepdims, where])</td>
<td>Returns True if any of the elements of a evaluate to True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>argmax</code> ([axis, out])</td>
<td>Return indices of the maximum values along the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>argmin</code> ([axis, out])</td>
<td>Return indices of the minimum values along the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>argpartition</code> (kth [, axis, kind, order])</td>
<td>Returns the indices that would partition this array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>argsort</code> ([axis, kind, order])</td>
<td>Return the indices that would sort this array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>astype</code> (dtype [, order, casting, subok, copy])</td>
<td>Copy of the array, cast to a specified type.</td>
</tr>
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<td>Swap the bytes of the array elements</td>
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<td>Use an index array to construct a new array from a set of choices.</td>
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<td><code>clip</code> ([min, max, out])</td>
<td>Return an array whose values are limited to [min, max].</td>
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<td><code>compress</code> (condition [, axis, out])</td>
<td>Return selected slices of this array along given axis.</td>
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<td><code>conj</code> ()</td>
<td>Complex-conjugate all elements.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>conjugate</code> ()</td>
<td>Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.</td>
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<td><code>copy</code> ([order])</td>
<td>Return a copy of the array.</td>
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<td><code>cumprod</code> ([axis, dtype, out])</td>
<td>Return the cumulative product of the elements along the given axis.</td>
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#### Method

**recarray.all** *(axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False, *, where=True)*

Returns True if all elements evaluate to True.

Refer to `numpy.all` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.all`

equivalent function

**Method**

**recarray.any** *(axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False, *, where=True)*

Returns True if any of the elements of `a` evaluate to True.

Refer to `numpy.any` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.any`

equivalent function

**Method**

**recarray.argmax** *(axis=None, out=None)*

Return indices of the maximum values along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.argmax` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.argmax`

equivalent function

**Method**

**recarray.argmin** *(axis=None, out=None)*

Return indices of the minimum values along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.argmin` for detailed documentation.

See also:

`numpy.argmin`

equivalent function

### 1.6. Standard array subclasses

195
method

recarray.argpartition(kth, axis=-1, kind='introselect', order=None)
Returns the indices that would partition this array.

Refer to numpy.argpartition for full documentation.

New in version 1.8.0.

See also:

numpy.argpartition
equivalent function

method

recarray.argsort(axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)
Returns the indices that would sort this array.

Refer to numpy.argsort for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.argsort
equivalent function

method

recarray.astype(dtype, order='K', casting='unsafe', subok=True, copy=True)
Copy of the array, cast to a specified type.

Parameters

dtype
[|str or dtype] Typecode or data-type to which the array is cast.

order
[|{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the memory layout order of the result. ‘C’ means C
order, ‘F’ means Fortran order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ order if all the arrays are Fortran contiguous,
‘C’ order otherwise, and ‘K’ means as close to the order the array elements appear in memory
as possible. Default is ‘K’.

casting
[|{'no', 'equiv', 'safe', 'same_kind', 'unsafe'}, optional] Controls what kind of data casting may
occur. Defaults to ‘unsafe’ for backwards compatibility.

• ‘no’ means the data types should not be cast at all.
• ‘equiv’ means only byte-order changes are allowed.
• ‘safe’ means only casts which can preserve values are allowed.
• ‘same_kind’ means only safe casts or casts within a kind, like float64 to float32, are allowed.
• ‘unsafe’ means any data conversions may be done.

subok
[|bool, optional] If True, then sub-classes will be passed-through (default), otherwise the ret-
turned array will be forced to be a base-class array.
copy

[bool, optional] By default, astype always returns a newly allocated array. If this is set to false, and the *dtype*, *order*, and *subok* requirements are satisfied, the input array is returned instead of a copy.

Returns

arr_t

[ndarray] Unless *copy* is False and the other conditions for returning the input array are satisfied (see description for *copy* input parameter), *arr_t* is a new array of the same shape as the input array, with dtype, order given by *dtype*, *order*.

Raises

ComplexWarning

When casting from complex to float or int. To avoid this, one should use `a.real.astype(t)`.

Notes

Changed in version 1.17.0: Casting between a simple data type and a structured one is possible only for “unsafe” casting. Casting to multiple fields is allowed, but casting from multiple fields is not.

Changed in version 1.9.0: Casting from numeric to string types in ‘safe’ casting mode requires that the string dtype length is long enough to store the max integer/float value converted.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 2.5])
>>> x
array([1., 2., 2.5])

>>> x.astype(int)
array([1, 2, 2])
```

method

```
recarray.byteswap(inplace=False)
```

Swap the bytes of the array elements

Toggle between low-endian and big-endian data representation by returning a byteswapped array, optionally swapped in-place. Arrays of byte-strings are not swapped. The real and imaginary parts of a complex number are swapped individually.

Parameters

inplace

[bool, optional] If True, swap bytes in-place, default is False.

Returns
out

[ndarray] The byteswapped array. If inplace is True, this is a view to self.

Examples

```python
>>> A = np.array([1, 256, 8755], dtype=np.int16)
>>> list(map(hex, A))
['0x1', '0x100', '0x2233']
>>> A.byteswap(inplace=True)
array([ 256, 1, 13090], dtype=int16)
>>> list(map(hex, A))
['0x100', '0x1', '0x3322']
```

Arrays of byte-strings are not swapped

```python
>>> A = np.array([b'ceg', b'fac'])
>>> A.byteswap()
array([b'ceg', b'fac'], dtype='|S3')
```

**A.newbyteorder().byteswap()** produces an array with the same values but different representation in memory

```python
>>> A = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> A.view(np.uint8)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 3], dtype=uint8)
>>> A.newbyteorder().byteswap(inplace=True)
array([1, 2, 3])
>>> A.view(np.uint8)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 3], dtype=uint8)
```

method

**(recarray.choose)** (choices, out=None, mode='raise')

Use an index array to construct a new array from a set of choices.

Refer to **numpy.choose** for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.choose**
equivalent function

method

**(recarray.clip)** (min=None, max=None, out=None, **kwargs)

Return an array whose values are limited to \([\text{min}, \text{max}]\). One of max or min must be given.

Refer to **numpy.clip** for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.clip**
equivalent function
method

```python
recarray.compress(condition, axis=None, out=None)
```
Return selected slices of this array along given axis.

Refer to `numpy.compress` for full documentation.

See also:

```python
numpy.compress
```
equivalent function

method

```python
recarray.conj()
```
Complex-conjugate all elements.

Refer to `numpy.conjugate` for full documentation.

See also:

```python
numpy.conjugate
```
equivalent function

method

```python
recarray.conjugate()
```
Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.

Refer to `numpy.conjugate` for full documentation.

See also:

```python
numpy.conjugate
```
equivalent function

method

```python
recarray.copy(order='C')
```
Return a copy of the array.

Parameters

order

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the memory layout of the copy. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ if a is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means match the layout of a as closely as possible. (Note that this function and `numpy.copy` are very similar but have different default values for their order= arguments, and this function always passes sub-classes through.)

See also:

```python
numpy.copy
```
Similar function with different default behavior

```python
numpy.copyto
```
Notes

This function is the preferred method for creating an array copy. The function `numpy.copy` is similar, but it defaults to using order ‘K’, and will not pass sub-classes through by default.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], order='F')
>>> y = x.copy()
>>> x.fill(0)
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])
>>> y
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
>>> y.flags['C_CONTIGUOUS']
True
```

method

recarray.cumprod (axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the cumulative product of the elements along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.cumprod` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.cumprod`

equivalent function

method

recarray.cumsum (axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the cumulative sum of the elements along the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.cumsum` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.cumsum`

equivalent function

method

recarray.diagonal (offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1)

Return specified diagonals. In NumPy 1.9 the returned array is a read-only view instead of a copy as in previous NumPy versions. In a future version the read-only restriction will be removed.

Refer to `numpy.diagonal` for full documentation.
See also:

**numpy.diagonal**

equivalent function

method

**recarray.dot(b, out=None)**

Dot product of two arrays.

Refer to **numpy.dot** for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.dot**

equivalent function

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.eye(2)
>>> b = np.ones((2, 2)) * 2
>>> a.dot(b)
array([[2., 2.],
       [2., 2.]])
```

This array method can be conveniently chained:

```python
>>> a.dot(b).dot(b)
array([[8., 8.],
       [8., 8.]])
```

method

**recarray.dump(file)**

Dump a pickle of the array to the specified file. The array can be read back with pickle.load or numpy.load.

**Parameters**

file

[ str or Path ] A string naming the dump file.

Changed in version 1.17.0: **pathlib.Path** objects are now accepted.

method

**recarray.dumps()**

Returns the pickle of the array as a string. pickle.loads or numpy.loads will convert the string back to an array.

**Parameters**

None

method

**recarray.fill(value)**

Fill the array with a scalar value.
Parameters

value

[scalar] All elements of \( a \) will be assigned this value.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2]])
>>> a.fill(0)
>>> a
array([0, 0])

>>> a = np.empty(2)
>>> a.fill(1)
>>> a
array([1., 1.])
```

method

recarray.fill

Return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension.

Parameters

order

[\{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'\}, optional] 'C' means to flatten in row-major (C-style) order. 'F' means to flatten in column-major (Fortran-style) order. 'A' means to flatten in column-major order if \( a \) is Fortran contiguous in memory, row-major order otherwise. 'K' means to flatten \( a \) in the order the elements occur in memory. The default is 'C'.

Returns

y

[ndarray] A copy of the input array, flattened to one dimension.

See also:

ravel

Return a flattened array.

flat

A 1-D flat iterator over the array.
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> a.flatten()
array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> a.flatten('F')
array([1, 3, 2, 4])
```

**method**

`recarray.getfield(dtype, offset=0)`

Returns a field of the given array as a certain type.

A field is a view of the array data with a given data-type. The values in the view are determined by the given type and the offset into the current array in bytes. The offset needs to be such that the view dtype fits in the array dtype; for example an array of dtype complex128 has 16-byte elements. If taking a view with a 32-bit integer (4 bytes), the offset needs to be between 0 and 12 bytes.

**Parameters**

- **dtype**
  - [str or dtype] The data type of the view. The dtype size of the view can not be larger than that of the array itself.
- **offset**
  - [int] Number of bytes to skip before beginning the element view.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.diag([1.+1.j] * 2)
>>> x[1, 1] = 2 + 4.j
>>> x
array([[1.+1.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+0.j, 2.+4.j]])
>>> x.getfield(np.float64)
array([[1., 0.],
       [0., 2.]])
```

By choosing an offset of 8 bytes we can select the complex part of the array for our view:

```python
>>> x.getfield(np.float64, offset=8)
array([[1., 0.],
       [0., 4.]])
```

**method**

`recarray.item(*args)`

Copy an element of an array to a standard Python scalar and return it.

**Parameters**

- ***args**
  - [Arguments (variable number and type)]
    - none: in this case, the method only works for arrays with one element (a.size == 1), which element is copied into a standard Python scalar object and returned.
• int_type: this argument is interpreted as a flat index into the array, specifying which element to copy and return.
• tuple of int_types: functions as does a single int_type argument, except that the argument is interpreted as an nd-index into the array.

Returns

\[ z \]

[Standard Python scalar object] A copy of the specified element of the array as a suitable Python scalar

Notes

When the data type of \( a \) is longdouble or clongdouble, item() returns a scalar array object because there is no available Python scalar that would not lose information. Void arrays return a buffer object for item(), unless fields are defined, in which case a tuple is returned.

item is very similar to a[args], except, instead of an array scalar, a standard Python scalar is returned. This can be useful for speeding up access to elements of the array and doing arithmetic on elements of the array using Python’s optimized math.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> x = np.random.randint(9, size=(3, 3))
>>> x
array([[2, 2, 6],
       [1, 3, 6],
       [1, 0, 1]])
>>> x.item(3)
1
>>> x.item(7)
0
>>> x.item((0, 1))
2
>>> x.item((2, 2))
1
```

method
recarray.itemset(*args)

Insert scalar into an array (scalar is cast to array’s dtype, if possible)

There must be at least 1 argument, and define the last argument as item. Then, a.itemset(*args) is equivalent to but faster than a[args] = item. The item should be a scalar value and args must select a single item in the array \( a \).

Parameters

*args

[Arguments] If one argument: a scalar, only used in case \( a \) is of size 1. If two arguments: the last argument is the value to be set and must be a scalar, the first argument specifies a single array element location. It is either an int or a tuple.
Notes

Compared to indexing syntax, itemset provides some speed increase for placing a scalar into a particular location in an ndarray, if you must do this. However, generally this is discouraged: among other problems, it complicates the appearance of the code. Also, when using itemset (and item) inside a loop, be sure to assign the methods to a local variable to avoid the attribute look-up at each loop iteration.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> x = np.random.randint(9, size=(3, 3))
>>> x
array([[2, 2, 6],
       [1, 3, 6],
       [1, 0, 1]])
>>> x.itemset(4, 0)
>>> x.itemset((2, 2), 9)
>>> x
array([[2, 2, 6],
       [1, 0, 6],
       [1, 0, 9]])
```

method

```
recarray.max(axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False, initial=<no value>, where=True)
```

Return the maximum along a given axis.

Refer to `numpy.amax` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.amax
```

equivalent function

method

```
recarray.mean(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=False, *, where=True)
```

Returns the average of the array elements along given axis.

Refer to `numpy.mean` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.mean
```

equivalent function

method

```
recarray.min(axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False, initial=<no value>, where=True)
```

Return the minimum along a given axis.

Refer to `numpy.amin` for full documentation.

See also:

```
numpy.amin
```

equivalent function
method

recarray.newbyteorder(new_order='S', /)

Return the array with the same data viewed with a different byte order.

Equivalent to:

```
arr.view(arr.dtype.newbyteorder(new_order))
```

Changes are also made in all fields and sub-arrays of the array data type.

Parameters

new_order

[string, optional] Byte order to force; a value from the byte order specifications below.

new_order codes can be any of:

- `S` - swap dtype from current to opposite endian
- `<'`, `little` - little endian
- `'>`, `big` - big endian
- `=' - native order, equivalent to sys.byteorder
- `|`, `I` - ignore (no change to byte order)

The default value (`'S'`) results in swapping the current byte order.

Returns

new_arr

[array] New array object with the dtype reflecting given change to the byte order.

method

recarray.nonzero()

Return the indices of the elements that are non-zero.

Refer to numpy.nonzero for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.nonzero
equivalent function

method

recarray.partition(kth, axis=-1, kind='introselect', order=None)

Rearranges the elements in the array in such a way that the value of the element in kth position is in the position it would be in a sorted array. All elements smaller than the kth element are moved before this element and all equal or greater are moved behind it. The ordering of the elements in the two partitions is undefined.

New in version 1.8.0.

Parameters

kth

[int or sequence of ints] Element index to partition by. The kth element value will be in its final sorted position and all smaller elements will be moved before it and all equal or greater
elements behind it. The order of all elements in the partitions is undefined. If provided with
a sequence of kth it will partition all elements indexed by kth of them into their sorted position
at once.

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which to sort. Default is -1, which means sort along the last axis.

kind

[{'introselect'}, optional] Selection algorithm. Default is ‘introselect’.

order

[str or list of str, optional] When a is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies
which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not
all fields need to be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which
they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

See also:

numpy.partition

Return a partitioned copy of an array.

argpartition

Indirect partition.

sort

Full sort.

Notes

See np.partition for notes on the different algorithms.

Examples

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

```python
>>> a.partition((1, 3))
array([1, 2, 3, 4])
```

method

recarray.prod (axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=False, initial=1, where=True)

Return the product of the array elements over the given axis

Refer to numpy.prod for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.prod

equivalent function
method

```python
recarray.ptp(axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False)
```

Peak to peak (maximum - minimum) value along a given axis.

Refer to `numpy.ptp` for full documentation.

See also:

```python
numpy.ptp
```
equivalent function

method

```python
recarray.put(indices, values, mode='raise')
```

Set `a.flat[n] = values[n]` for all `n` in `indices`.

Refer to `numpy.put` for full documentation.

See also:

```python
numpy.put
```
equivalent function

method

```python
recarray.ravel([order])
```

Return a flattened array.

Refer to `numpy.ravel` for full documentation.

See also:

```python
numpy.ravel
```
equivalent function

```python
ndarray.flat
```
a flat iterator on the array.

method

```python
recarray.repeat(repeats, axis=None)
```

Repeat elements of an array.

Refer to `numpy.repeat` for full documentation.

See also:

```python
numpy.repeat
```
equivalent function

method

```python
recarray.reshape(shape, order='C')
```

Returns an array containing the same data with a new shape.

Refer to `numpy.reshape` for full documentation.

See also:
`numpy.reshape`

equivalent function

**Notes**

Unlike the free function `numpy.reshape`, this method on `ndarray` allows the elements of the shape parameter to be passed in as separate arguments. For example, `a.reshape(10, 11)` is equivalent to `a.reshape((10, 11))`.

method

`recarray.resize(new_shape, refcheck=True)`

Change shape and size of array in-place.

**Parameters**

- `new_shape` [tuple of ints, or `n` ints] Shape of resized array.
- `refcheck` [bool, optional] If False, reference count will not be checked. Default is True.

**Returns**

None

**Raises**

- `ValueError` If `a` does not own its own data or references or views to it exist, and the data memory must be changed. PyPy only: will always raise if the data memory must be changed, since there is no reliable way to determine if references or views to it exist.

- `SystemError` If the `order` keyword argument is specified. This behaviour is a bug in NumPy.

**See also:**

- `resize`

Return a new array with the specified shape.

**Notes**

This reallocates space for the data area if necessary.

Only contiguous arrays (data elements consecutive in memory) can be resized.

The purpose of the reference count check is to make sure you do not use this array as a buffer for another Python object and then reallocate the memory. However, reference counts can increase in other ways so if you are sure that you have not shared the memory for this array with another Python object, then you may safely set `refcheck` to False.
Examples

Shrinking an array: array is flattened (in the order that the data are stored in memory), resized, and reshaped:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], order='C')
>>> a.resize((2, 1))
array([[0],
       [1]])

>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], order='F')
>>> a.resize((2, 1))
array([[0],
       [2]])
```

Enlarging an array: as above, but missing entries are filled with zeros:

```python
>>> b = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]])
>>> b.resize(2, 3)  # new_shape parameter doesn't have to be a tuple
>>> b
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 0, 0]])
```

Referencing an array prevents resizing...

```python
>>> c = a
>>> a.resize((1, 1))
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
ValueError: cannot resize an array that references or is referenced ...
```

Unless `refcheck` is False:

```python
>>> a.resize((1, 1), refcheck=False)
>>> a
array([[0]])
>>> c
array([[0]])
```

method

`recarray.round(decimals=0, out=None)`

Return `a` with each element rounded to the given number of decimals.

Refer to `numpy.around` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.around`

equivalent function

method

`recarray.searchsorted(v, side='left', sorter=None)`

Find indices where elements of `v` should be inserted in `a` to maintain order.

For full documentation, see `numpy.searchsorted`
See also:

```
numpy.searchsorted
```
equivalent function

```
recarray.setfield(val, dtype, offset=0)
```
method

Put a value into a specified place in a field defined by a data-type.

Place `val` into `a`'s field defined by `dtype` and beginning `offset` bytes into the field.

**Parameters**

- `val`  
  [object] Value to be placed in field.

- `dtype`  
  [dtype object] Data-type of the field in which to place `val`.

- `offset`  
  [int, optional] The number of bytes into the field at which to place `val`.

**Returns**

None

See also:

```
getfield
```

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.eye(3)
>>> x.getfield(np.float64)
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
>>> x.setfield(3, np.int32)
>>> x.getfield(np.int32)
array([[3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3]], dtype=int32)
>>> x
array([[1.0e+000, 1.5e-323, 1.5e-323],
       [1.5e-323, 1.0e+000, 1.5e-323],
       [1.5e-323, 1.5e-323, 1.0e+000]])
>>> x.setfield(np.eye(3), np.int32)
>>> x
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
```
recarray.setflags(write=None, align=None, uic=None)

Set array flags WRITEABLE, ALIGNED, (WRITEBACKIFCOPY and UPDATEIFCOPY), respectively.

These Boolean-valued flags affect how numpy interprets the memory area used by a (see Notes below). The ALIGNED flag can only be set to True if the data is actually aligned according to the type. The WRITEBACKIFCOPY and (deprecated) UPDATEIFCOPY flags can never be set to True. The flag WRITEABLE can only be set to True if the array owns its own memory, or the ultimate owner of the memory exposes a writeable buffer interface, or is a string. (The exception for string is made so that unpickling can be done without copying memory.)

**Parameters**

write

[bool, optional] Describes whether or not a can be written to.

align

[bool, optional] Describes whether or not a is aligned properly for its type.

uic

[bool, optional] Describes whether or not a is a copy of another “base” array.

**Notes**

Array flags provide information about how the memory area used for the array is to be interpreted. There are 7 Boolean flags in use, only four of which can be changed by the user: WRITEBACKIFCOPY, UPDATEIFCOPY, WRITEABLE, and ALIGNED.

WRITEABLE (W) the data area can be written to;

ALIGNED (A) the data and strides are aligned appropriately for the hardware (as determined by the compiler);

UPDATEIFCOPY (U) (deprecated), replaced by WRITEBACKIFCOPY;

WRITEBACKIFCOPY (X) this array is a copy of some other array (referenced by .base). When the C-API function PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy is called, the base array will be updated with the contents of this array.

All flags can be accessed using the single (uppercase) letter as well as the full name.

**Examples**

```python
g = np.array([[3, 1, 7],
               [2, 0, 0],
               [8, 5, 9]])
g.flags
C_CONTIGUOUS : True
F_CONTIGUOUS : False
OWNDATA : True
WRITEABLE : True
ALIGNED : True
WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
```

(continues on next page)
```python
>>> y.setflags(write=0, align=0)
>>> y.flags
    C_CONTIGUOUS : True
    F_CONTIGUOUS : False
    OWNDATA : True
    WRITEABLE : False
    ALIGNED : False
    WRITEMBACKIFCOPY : False
    UPDATEIFCOPY : False
```

Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: cannot set WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag to True

```
```

The `recarray.sort` method

```python
recarray.sort(axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)
```

Sort an array in-place. Refer to `numpy.sort` for full documentation.

### Parameters

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] Axis along which to sort. Default is -1, which means sort along the last axis.

- **kind**
  - [{'quicksort', 'mergesort', 'heapsort', 'stable'}, optional] Sorting algorithm. The default is 'quicksort'. Note that both 'stable' and 'mergesort' use timsort under the covers and, in general, the actual implementation will vary with datatype. The 'mergesort' option is retained for backwards compatibility.
  
  Changed in version 1.15.0: The 'stable' option was added.

- **order**
  - [str or list of str, optional] When `a` is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not all fields need be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

### See also:

- `numpy.sort`
  - Return a sorted copy of an array.

- `numpy.argsort`
  - Indirect sort.

- `numpy.lexsort`
  - Indirect stable sort on multiple keys.

- `numpy.searchsorted`
  - Find elements in sorted array.
**numpy.partition**

Partial sort.

**Notes**

See `numpy.sort` for notes on the different sorting algorithms.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([[4, 1], [3, 1]])
>>> a.sort(axis=1)
array([[1, 4],
       [1, 3]])
>>> a.sort(axis=0)
array([[1, 3],
       [1, 4]])
```

Use the `order` keyword to specify a field to use when sorting a structured array:

```python
>>> a = np.array([('a', 2), ('c', 1)], dtype=[('x', 'S1'), ('y', int)])
>>> a.sort(order='y')
array([('b'c', 1), ('b'a', 2)],
     dtype=[('x', 'S1'), ('y', '<i8')])
```

**method**

`recarray.squeeze(axis=None)`

Remove axes of length one from `a`.

Refer to `numpy.squeeze` for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.squeeze**

equivalent function

**method**

`recarray.std(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=False, *, where=True)`

Returns the standard deviation of the array elements along given axis.

Refer to `numpy.std` for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.std**

equivalent function

**method**
`recarray.sum` \( (\text{axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=False, initial=0, where=True}) \)

Return the sum of the array elements over the given axis.

Refer to `numpy.sum` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.sum`

equivalent function

method

`recarray.swapaxes` \( (\text{axis1, axis2}) \)

Return a view of the array with `axis1` and `axis2` interchanged.

Refer to `numpy.swapaxes` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.swapaxes`

equivalent function

method

`recarray.take` \( (\text{indices, axis=None, out=None, mode='raise'}) \)

Return an array formed from the elements of `a` at the given indices.

Refer to `numpy.take` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.take`

equivalent function

method

`recarray.tobytes` \( (\text{order='C'}) \)

Construct Python bytes containing the raw data bytes in the array.

Constructs Python bytes showing a copy of the raw contents of data memory. The bytes object is produced in C-order by default. This behavior is controlled by the `order` parameter.

New in version 1.9.0.

Parameters

- `order`

  \[\{'C', 'F', 'A'\}, \text{optional}\] Controls the memory layout of the bytes object. 'C' means C-order, 'F' means F-order, 'A' (short for Any) means 'F' if `a` is Fortran contiguous, 'C' otherwise. Default is 'C'.

Returns

- `s`

  [bytes] Python bytes exhibiting a copy of `a`'s raw data.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], dtype='<u2')
>>> x.tobytes()
'b\x00\x00\x01\x00\x02\x00\x03\x00'
>>> x.tobytes('C') == x.tobytes()
True
>>> x.tobytes('F')
b'\x00\x00\x02\x00\x01\x00\x03\x00'
```

method

```
recarray.tofile (fid, sep='", format='\%s')
```

Write array to a file as text or binary (default).

Data is always written in ‘C’ order, independent of the order of a. The data produced by this method can be recovered using the function fromfile().

Parameters

- **fid**
  - [file or str or Path] An open file object, or a string containing a filename.

  Changed in version 1.17.0: pathlib.Path objects are now accepted.

- **sep**
  - [str] Separator between array items for text output. If “” (empty), a binary file is written, equivalent to file.write(a.tobytes()).

- **format**
  - [str] Format string for text file output. Each entry in the array is formatted to text by first converting it to the closest Python type, and then using “format” % item.

Notes

This is a convenience function for quick storage of array data. Information on endianness and precision is lost, so this method is not a good choice for files intended to archive data or transport data between machines with different endianness. Some of these problems can be overcome by outputting the data as text files, at the expense of speed and file size.

When fid is a file object, array contents are directly written to the file, bypassing the file object's write method. As a result, tofile cannot be used with files objects supporting compression (e.g., GzipFile) or file-like objects that do not support fileno() (e.g., BytesIO).

method

```
recarray.tolist ()
```

Return the array as an a.ndim-levels deep nested list of Python scalars.

Return a copy of the array data as a (nested) Python list. Data items are converted to the nearest compatible builtin Python type, via the item function.

If a.ndim is 0, then since the depth of the nested list is 0, it will not be a list at all, but a simple Python scalar.

Parameters

- **none**
Returns

\[ y \]
[object, or list of object, or list of list of object, or …] The possibly nested list of array elements.

Notes

The array may be recreated via `a = np.array(a.tolist())`, although this may sometimes lose precision.

Examples

For a 1D array, `a.tolist()` is almost the same as `list(a)`, except that `tolist` changes numpy scalars to Python scalars:

```python
>>> a = np.uint32([1, 2])
>>> a_list = list(a)
>>> a_list
[1, 2]
>>> type(a_list[0])
<class 'numpy.uint32'>
>>> a_tolist = a.tolist()
>>> a_tolist
[1, 2]
>>> type(a_tolist[0])
<class 'int'>
```

Additionally, for a 2D array, `tolist` applies recursively:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> list(a)
[array([1, 2]), array([3, 4])]
>>> a.tolist()
[[1, 2], [3, 4]]
```

The base case for this recursion is a 0D array:

```python
>>> a = np.array(1)
>>> list(a)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
TypeError: iteration over a 0-d array
>>> a.tolist()
1
```

method

```
recarray.tostring(order='C')
```

A compatibility alias for `tobytes`, with exactly the same behavior.

Despite its name, it returns `bytes` not `strs`.

Deprecated since version 1.19.0.
recarray.trace(offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the sum along diagonals of the array.

Refer to numpy.trace for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.trace

equivalent function

method

recarray.transpose(*axes)

Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.

For a 1-D array this has no effect, as a transposed vector is simply the same vector. To convert a 1-D array into a 2D column vector, an additional dimension must be added. np.atleast2d(a).T achieves this, as does a[:,
np.newaxis]. For a 2-D array, this is a standard matrix transpose. For an n-D array, if axes are given, their order indicates how the axes are permuted (see Examples). If axes are not provided and a.shape = (i[0],
i[1], ... i[n-2], i[n-1]), then a.transpose().shape = (i[n-1], i[n-2], ..
. i[1], i[0]).

Parameters

axes

[None, tuple of ints, or n ints]

• None or no argument: reverses the order of the axes.

• tuple of ints: i in the j-th place in the tuple means a’s i-th axis becomes a.transpose()’s j-th
axis.

• n ints: same as an n-tuple of the same ints (this form is intended simply as a “convenience”
alternative to the tuple form)

Returns

out

[ndarray] View of a, with axes suitably permuted.

See also:

transpose

Equivalent function

ndarray.T

Array property returning the array transposed.

ndarray.reshape

Give a new shape to an array without changing its data.
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> a
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]])
>>> a.transpose()
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
>>> a.transpose((1, 0))
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
>>> a.transpose(1, 0)
array([[1, 3],
       [2, 4]])
```

method

```
recarray.var (axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=False, *, where=True)
```

Returns the variance of the array elements, along given axis.

Refer to `numpy.var` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.var`

equivalent function

method

```
recarray.view ([dtype][, type])
```

New view of array with the same data.

**Note:** Passing None for `dtype` is different from omitting the parameter, since the former invokes `dtype(None)` which is an alias for `dtype('float_')`.

**Parameters**

`dtype`

[data-type or ndarray sub-class, optional] Data-type descriptor of the returned view, e.g., `float32` or `int16`. Omitting it results in the view having the same data-type as `a`. This argument can also be specified as an ndarray sub-class, which then specifies the type of the returned object (this is equivalent to setting the `type` parameter).

`type`

[Python type, optional] Type of the returned view, e.g., `ndarray` or `matrix`. Again, omission of the parameter results in type preservation.
Notes

*a.view()* is used two different ways:

*a.view(some_dtype)* or *a.view(dtype=some_dtype)* constructs a view of the array's memory with a different data-type. This can cause a reinterpretation of the bytes of memory.

*a.view(ndarray_subclass)* or *a.view(type=ndarray_subclass)* just returns an instance of *ndarray_subclass* that looks at the same array (same shape, dtype, etc.) This does not cause a reinterpretation of the memory.

For *a.view(some_dtype)*, if *some_dtype* has a different number of bytes per entry than the previous dtype (for example, converting a regular array to a structured array), then the behavior of the view cannot be predicted just from the superficial appearance of *a* (shown by *print(a)*). It also depends on exactly how *a* is stored in memory. Therefore if *a* is C-ordered versus fortran-ordered, versus defined as a slice or transpose, etc., the view may give different results.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([(1, 2)], dtype=[('a', np.int8), ('b', np.int8)])
```

Viewing array data using a different type and dtype:

```python
>>> y = x.view(dtype=np.int16, type=np.matrix)
>>> y
matrix([[513]], dtype=int16)
>>> print(type(y))
<class 'numpy.matrix'>
```

Creating a view on a structured array so it can be used in calculations

```python
>>> x = np.array([(1, 2), (3, 4)], dtype=[('a', np.int8), ('b', np.int8)])
>>> xv = x.view(dtype=np.int8).reshape(-1, 2)
>>> xv
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]], dtype=int8)
>>> xv.mean(0)
array([2., 3.])
```

Making changes to the view changes the underlying array

```python
>>> xv[0, 1] = 20
>>> x
array([[1, 20],
       [3, 4]], dtype=[('a', 'i1'), ('b', 'i1')])
```

Using a view to convert an array to a recarray:

```python
>>> z = x.view(np.recarray)
>>> z.a
array([1, 3], dtype=int8)
```

Views share data:

```python
>>> x[0] = (9, 10)
>>> z[0]
(9, 10)
```
Views that change the dtype size (bytes per entry) should normally be avoided on arrays defined by slices, transposes, fortran-ordering, etc.:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], dtype=np.int16)
>>> y = x[:, 0:2]
>>> y
array([[1, 2],
       [4, 5]], dtype=int16)
>>> y.view(dtype=[('width', np.int16), ('length', np.int16)])
Traceback (most recent call last):
 ... ValueError: To change to a dtype of a different size, the array must be C-
→contiguous
>>> z = y.copy()
>>> z.view(dtype=[('width', np.int16), ('length', np.int16)])
array([[1, 2],
       [4, 5]], dtype=[('width', '<i2'), ('length', '<i2')])
```

### class numpy.record
A data-type scalar that allows field access as attribute lookup.

**Attributes**

- **T**
  Scalar attribute identical to the corresponding array attribute.

- **base**
  base object

- **data**
  Pointer to start of data.

- **dtype**
  dtype object

- **flags**
  integer value of flags

- **flat**
  A 1-D view of the scalar.

- **imag**
  The imaginary part of the scalar.

- **itemsize**
  The length of one element in bytes.

- **nbytes**
  The length of the scalar in bytes.

- **ndim**
  The number of array dimensions.
real
The real part of the scalar.

shape
Tuple of array dimensions.

size
The number of elements in the genotype.

strides
Tuple of bytes steps in each dimension.

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>setflags</td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sort</td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>squeeze</td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>std</td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sum</td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swapaxes</td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>take</code></td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tolist</code></td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>tolist</code></td>
<td>Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

method

```python
record.all()
```
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.all`.

method

```python
record.any()
```
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.any`.

method

```python
record.argmax()
```
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.argmax`.

method

```python
record.argmin()
```
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.argmin`.

method

```python
record.argsort()
```
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.argsort`.

method

```python
record.astype()
```
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.astype`.
record.byteswap()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.byteswap.

method
record.choose()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.choose.

method
record.clip()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.clip.

method
record.compress()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.compress.

method
record.conjugate()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.conjugate.

method
record.copy()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.copy.

method
record.cumprod()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.cumprod.

method
record.cumsum()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.cumsum.

method
record.diagonal()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.diagonal.

method
record.dump()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.dump.
method
record.dumps()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.dumps.

method
record.fill()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.fill.

method
record.flatten()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.flatten.

method
record.getfield()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.getfield.

method
record.item()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.item.

method
record.itemset()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.itemset.

method
record.max()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.max.

method
record.mean()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.mean.

method
record.min()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.min.

method
record.newbyteorder(new_order='S',)
Return a new dtype with a different byte order.
Changes are also made in all fields and sub-arrays of the data type.

The `new_order` code can be any from the following:

- ‘S’ - swap dtype from current to opposite endian
- ‘<’, ‘little’ - little endian
- ‘>’, ‘big’ - big endian
- ‘=' - native order
- ‘|’, ‘I’ - ignore (no change to byte order)

**Parameters**

`new_order`  
[str, optional] Byte order to force; a value from the byte order specifications above. The default value (‘S’) results in swapping the current byte order.

**Returns**

`new_dtype`  
[dtype] New `dtype` object with the given change to the byte order.

method

`record.nonzero()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.nonzero`.

method

`record.pprint()`  
Pretty-print all fields.

method

`record.prod()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.prod`.

method

`record.ptp()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.ptp`.

method

`record.put()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.put`.

method

`record.ravel()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see `ndarray.ravel`.

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method

record.repeat()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.repeat.

method

record.reshape()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.reshape.

method

record.resize()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.resize.

method

record.round()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.round.

method

record.searchsorted()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.searchsorted.

method

record.setfield()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.setfield.

method

record.setflags()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.setflags.

method

record.sort()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.sort.

method

record.squeeze()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see ndarray.squeeze.

method

record.std()  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.
Please see `ndarray.std`.

**method**

`record.sum()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.  
Please see `ndarray.sum`.

**method**

`record.swapaxes()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.  
Please see `ndarray.swapaxes`.

**method**

`record.take()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.  
Please see `ndarray.take`.

**method**

`record.tofile()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.  
Please see `ndarray.tofile`.

**method**

`record.tolist()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.  
Please see `ndarray.tolist`.

**method**

`record.tostring()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.  
Please see `ndarray.tostring`.

**method**

`record.trace()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.  
Please see `ndarray.trace`.

**method**

`record.transpose()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.  
Please see `ndarray.transpose`.

**method**

`record.var()`  
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.  
Please see `ndarray.var`.
record.view()
Scalar method identical to the corresponding array attribute.

Please see ndarray.view.

| conj |
| tobytes |

1.6.6 Masked arrays (numpy.ma)

See also:
Masked arrays

1.6.7 Standard container class

For backward compatibility and as a standard “container “class, the UserArray from Numeric has been brought over to NumPy and named numpy.lib.user_array.container. The container class is a Python class whose self.array attribute is an ndarray. Multiple inheritance is probably easier with numpy.lib.user_array.container than with the ndarray itself and so it is included by default. It is not documented here beyond mentioning its existence because you are encouraged to use the ndarray class directly if you can.

```python
numpy.lib.user_array.container(data[, ..., dtype=None, copy=True])
```

Standard container-class for easy multiple-inheritance.

class numpy.lib.user_array.container (data, dtype=None, copy=True)
Standard container-class for easy multiple-inheritance.

Methods

| copy |
| tostring |
| byteswap |
| astype |

1.6.8 Array Iterators

Iterators are a powerful concept for array processing. Essentially, iterators implement a generalized for-loop. If myiter is an iterator object, then the Python code:

```python
for val in myiter:
    ...
    some code involving val
    ...
```

calls val = next (myiter) repeatedly until StopIteration is raised by the iterator. There are several ways to iterate over an array that may be useful: default iteration, flat iteration, and N-dimensional enumeration.
Default iteration

The default iterator of an ndarray object is the default Python iterator of a sequence type. Thus, when the array object itself is used as an iterator. The default behavior is equivalent to:

```python
for i in range(arr.shape[0]):
    val = arr[i]
```

This default iterator selects a sub-array of dimension $N - 1$ from the array. This can be a useful construct for defining recursive algorithms. To loop over the entire array requires $N$ for-loops.

```python
>>> a = np.arange(24).reshape(3,2,4)+10
>>> for val in a:
...    print('item:', val)
item: [[10 11 12 13]
     [14 15 16 17]]
item: [[18 19 20 21]
     [22 23 24 25]]
item: [[26 27 28 29]
     [30 31 32 33]]
```

Flat iteration

```python
ndarray.flat
```
A 1-D iterator over the array.

As mentioned previously, the flat attribute of ndarray objects returns an iterator that will cycle over the entire array in C-style contiguous order.

```python
>>> for i, val in enumerate(a.flat):
...      if i%5 == 0: print(i, val)
0 10
5 15
10 20
15 25
20 30
```

Here, I’ve used the built-in enumerate iterator to return the iterator index as well as the value.

N-dimensional enumeration

```python
ndenumerate(arr)
```
Multidimensional index iterator.

```python
class numpy.ndenumerate(arr)
```
Multidimensional index iterator.

Return an iterator yielding pairs of array coordinates and values.

Parameters

arr

[ndarray] Input array.
See also:

`ndindex`, `flatiter`

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> for index, x in np.ndenumerate(a):
...    print(index, x)
(0, 0) 1
(0, 1) 2
(1, 0) 3
(1, 1) 4
```

Sometimes it may be useful to get the N-dimensional index while iterating. The ndenumerate iterator can achieve this.

```python
>>> for i, val in np.ndenumerate(a):
...    if sum(i) % 5 == 0: print(i, val)
(0, 0, 0) 10
(1, 1, 3) 25
(2, 0, 3) 29
(2, 1, 2) 32
```

**Iterator for broadcasting**

`broadcast`

 Produce an object that mimics broadcasting.

```python
class numpy.broadcast
    Produce an object that mimics broadcasting.

    Parameters

    in1, in2, ...

    [array_like] Input parameters.

    Returns

    b

    [broadcast object] Broadcast the input parameters against one another, and return an object that encapsulates the result. Amongst others, it has `shape` and `nd` properties, and may be used as an iterator.

    See also:

    `broadcast_arrays`
    `broadcast_to`
    `broadcast_shapes`
```
Examples

Manually adding two vectors, using broadcasting:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1], [2], [3]])
>>> y = np.array([4, 5, 6])
>>> b = np.broadcast(x, y)

>>> out = np.empty(b.shape)
>>> out.flat = [u+v for (u,v) in b]
>>> out
array([[5., 6., 7.],
       [6., 7., 8.],
       [7., 8., 9.]])
```

Compare against built-in broadcasting:

```python
>>> x + y
array([[5, 6, 7],
       [6, 7, 8],
       [7, 8, 9]])
```

Attributes

- **index**
  current index in broadcasted result

- **iters**
  tuple of iterators along `self`'s “components.”

- **nd**
  Number of dimensions of broadcasted result.

- **ndim**
  Number of dimensions of broadcasted result.

- **numiter**
  Number of iterators possessed by the broadcasted result.

- **shape**
  Shape of broadcasted result.

- **size**
  Total size of broadcasted result.
Methods

reset()  Reset the broadcasted result’s iterator(s).

Method

`.broadcast.reset()`  Reset the broadcasted result’s iterator(s).

Parameters

None

Returns

None

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> y = np.array([[4], [5], [6]])
>>> b = np.broadcast(x, y)
>>> b.index
0
>>> next(b), next(b), next(b)
((1, 4), (2, 4), (3, 4))
>>> b.index
3
>>> b.reset()
>>> b.index
0
```

The general concept of broadcasting is also available from Python using the `broadcast` iterator. This object takes $N$ objects as inputs and returns an iterator that returns tuples providing each of the input sequence elements in the broadcasted result.

```python
>>> for val in np.broadcast([[1,0],[2,3]],[0,1]):
...   print(val)
(1, 0)
(0, 1)
(2, 0)
(3, 1)
```

1.7 Masked arrays

Masked arrays are arrays that may have missing or invalid entries. The `numpy.ma` module provides a nearly work-alike replacement for numpy that supports data arrays with masks.
1.7.1 The `numpy.ma` module

Rationale

Masked arrays are arrays that may have missing or invalid entries. The `numpy.ma` module provides a nearly work-alike replacement for `numpy` that supports data arrays with masks.

What is a masked array?

In many circumstances, datasets can be incomplete or tainted by the presence of invalid data. For example, a sensor may have failed to record a data, or recorded an invalid value. The `numpy.ma` module provides a convenient way to address this issue, by introducing masked arrays.

A masked array is the combination of a standard `numpy.ndarray` and a mask. A mask is either `nomask`, indicating that no value of the associated array is invalid, or an array of booleans that determines for each element of the associated array whether the value is valid or not. When an element of the mask is `False`, the corresponding element of the associated array is valid and is said to be unmasked. When an element of the mask is `True`, the corresponding element of the associated array is said to be masked (invalid).

The package ensures that masked entries are not used in computations.

As an illustration, let’s consider the following dataset:

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3, -1, 5])
```

We wish to mark the fourth entry as invalid. The easiest is to create a masked array:

```python
>>> mx = ma.masked_array(x, mask=[0, 0, 0, 1, 0])
```

We can now compute the mean of the dataset, without taking the invalid data into account:

```python
>>> mx.mean()
2.75
```

The `numpy.ma` module

The main feature of the `numpy.ma` module is the `MaskedArray` class, which is a subclass of `numpy.ndarray`. The class, its attributes and methods are described in more details in the `MaskedArray class` section.

The `numpy.ma` module can be used as an addition to `numpy`:

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
```

To create an array with the second element invalid, we would do:

```python
>>> y = ma.array([1, 2, 3], mask=[0, 1, 0])
```

To create a masked array where all values close to 1.e20 are invalid, we would do:

```python
>>> z = ma.masked_values([1.0, 1.e20, 3.0, 4.0], 1.e20)
```

For a complete discussion of creation methods for masked arrays please see section Constructing masked arrays.
1.7.2 Using numpy.ma

Constructing masked arrays

There are several ways to construct a masked array.

- A first possibility is to directly invoke the `MaskedArray` class.
- A second possibility is to use the two masked array constructors, `array` and `masked_array`.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>array</code></td>
<td>An array class with possibly masked values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>masked_array</code></td>
<td>Alias of <code>numpy.ma.core.MaskedArray</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
ma.array(data, dtype=None, copy=False, order=None, mask=False, fill_value=None, keep_mask=True, hard_mask=False, shrink=True, subok=True, ndmin=0)
```

An array class with possibly masked values.

Masked values of `True` exclude the corresponding element from any computation.

Construction:

```python
x = MaskedArray(data, mask=nomask, dtype=None, copy=False, subok=True, ndmin=0, fill_value=None, keep_mask=True, hard_mask=None, shrink=True, order=None)
```

Parameters

- **data**
  - [array_like] Input data.

- **mask**
  - [sequence, optional] Mask. Must be convertible to an array of booleans with the same shape as `data`. True indicates a masked (i.e. invalid) data.

- **dtype**
  - [dtype, optional] Data type of the output. If `dtype` is None, the type of the data argument (`data.dtype`) is used. If `dtype` is not None and different from `data.dtype`, a copy is performed.

- **copy**
  - [bool, optional] Whether to copy the input data (True), or to use a reference instead. Default is False.

- **subok**
  - [bool, optional] Whether to return a subclass of `MaskedArray` if possible (True) or a plain `MaskedArray`. Default is True.

- **ndmin**
  - [int, optional] Minimum number of dimensions. Default is 0.

- **fill_value**
  - [scalar, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values when necessary. If None, a default based on the data-type is used.
keep_mask

[bool, optional] Whether to combine mask with the mask of the input data, if any (True), or to use only mask for the output (False). Default is True.

hard_mask

[bool, optional] Whether to use a hard mask or not. With a hard mask, masked values cannot be unmasked. Default is False.

shrink


order

[‘C’, ‘F’, ‘A’], optional Specify the order of the array. If order is ‘C’, then the array will be in C-contiguous order (last-index varies the fastest). If order is ‘F’, then the returned array will be in Fortran-contiguous order (first-index varies the fastest). If order is ‘A’ (default), then the returned array may be in any order (either C-, Fortran-contiguous, or even discontiguous), unless a copy is required, in which case it will be C-contiguous.

Examples

The mask can be initialized with an array of boolean values with the same shape as data.

```python
>>> data = np.arange(6).reshape((2, 3))
>>> np.ma.MaskedArray(data, mask=[[False, True, False],
[False, False, True]])
masked_array(data=[[0, --, 2],
[3, 4, --]],
mask=[[False, True, False],
[False, False, True]],
fill_value=999999)
```

Alternatively, the mask can be initialized to homogeneous boolean array with the same shape as data by passing in a scalar boolean value:

```python
>>> np.ma.MaskedArray(data, mask=False)
masked_array(data=[[0, 1, 2],
[3, 4, 5]],
mask=[[False, False, False],
[False, False, False]],
fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> np.ma.MaskedArray(data, mask=True)
masked_array(data=[[--, --, --],
[--, --, --]],
mask=[[ True, True, True],
[ True, True, True]],
fill_value=999999,
dtype=int64)
```

Note: The recommended practice for initializing mask with a scalar boolean value is to use True/False rather than np.True_/np.False_. The reason is nomask is represented internally as np.False_.

1.7. Masked arrays
A third option is to take the view of an existing array. In that case, the mask of the view is set to `nomask` if the array has no named fields, or an array of boolean with the same structure as the array otherwise.

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> x.view(ma.MaskedArray)
masked_array(data=[1, 2, 3], mask=False, fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([(1, 1.0), (2, 2.0)], dtype=[('a', int), ('b', float)])
>>> x.view(ma.MaskedArray)
masked_array(data=[(1, 1.0), (2, 2.0)], mask=[(False, False), (False, False)],
fill_value=(999999, 1.e+20),
dtype=[('a', '<i8'), ('b', '<f8')])
```

Yet another possibility is to use any of the following functions:

### Functions

- **asarray(a[, dtype, order])**
  Convert the input to a masked array of the given data-type.  
  No copy is performed if the input is already an `ndarray`. If `a` is a subclass of `MaskedArray`, a base class `MaskedArray` is returned.

  **Parameters**

  - `a`
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

[array_like] Input data, in any form that can be converted to a masked array. This includes lists, lists of tuples, tuples, tuples of tuples, tuples of lists, ndarrays and masked arrays.

dtype
[dtype, optional] By default, the data-type is inferred from the input data.

order
[{'C', 'F'}, optional] Whether to use row-major ('C') or column-major ('FORTRAN') memory representation. Default is 'C'.

Returns
out

See also:

asanyarray
Similar to asarray, but conserves subclasses.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(10.).reshape(2, 5)
>>> x
array([[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.,  4.],
       [ 5.,  6.,  7.,  8.,  9.]])
>>> np.ma.asarray(x)
masked_array(
    data=[[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.,  4.],
           [ 5.,  6.,  7.,  8.,  9.]],
    mask=False,
    fill_value=1e+20)
>>> type(np.ma.asarray(x))
<class 'numpy.ma.core.MaskedArray'>
```

ma.asanyarray (a, dtype=None)
Convert the input to a masked array, conserving subclasses.

If a is a subclass of MaskedArray, its class is conserved. No copy is performed if the input is already an ndarray.

Parameters

a
[array_like] Input data, in any form that can be converted to an array.

dtype
[dtypes, optional] By default, the data-type is inferred from the input data.

order
[{'C', 'F'}, optional] Whether to use row-major ('C') or column-major ('FORTRAN') memory representation. Default is 'C'.

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Returns

out


See also:

asarray

Similar to asanyarray, but does not conserve subclass.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(10.).reshape(2, 5)
>>> x
array([[0., 1., 2., 3., 4.],
       [5., 6., 7., 8., 9.]])
>>> np.ma.asanyarray(x)
masked_array(data=[[0., 1., 2., 3., 4.],
                   [5., 6., 7., 8., 9.]],
           mask=False,
           fill_value=1e+20)
>>> type(np.ma.asanyarray(x))
<class 'numpy.ma.core.MaskedArray'>
```

ma.fix_invalid(a, mask=False, copy=True, fill_value=None)

Return input with invalid data masked and replaced by a fill value.

Invalid data means values of nan, inf, etc.

Parameters

a

[array_like] Input array, a (subclass of) ndarray.

mask

[sequence, optional] Mask. Must be convertible to an array of booleans with the same shape as data. True indicates a masked (i.e. invalid) data.

copy

[bool, optional] Whether to use a copy of a (True) or to fix a in place (False). Default is True.

fill_value

[scalar, optional] Value used for fixing invalid data. Default is None, in which case the a.fill_value is used.

Returns

b

[MaskedArray] The input array with invalid entries fixed.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

Notes

A copy is performed by default.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([1., -1, np.nan, np.inf], mask=[1] + [0]*3)
>>> x
masked_array(data=[--, -1.0, nan, inf],
             mask=[ True, False, False, False],
             fill_value=1e+20)
>>> np.ma.fix_invalid(x)
masked_array(data=[--, -1.0, --, --],
             mask=[ True, False, True, True],
             fill_value=1e+20)
```

```python
>>> fixed = np.ma.fix_invalid(x)
>>> fixed.data
array([ 1.e+00, -1.e+00, 1.e+20, 1.e+20])
```

```python
>>> a = np.arange(4)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> np.ma.masked_equal(a, 2)
masked_array(data=[0, 1, --, 3],
             mask=[False, False, True, False],
             fill_value=2)
```

```python
>>> ma.masked_equal(x, value, copy=True)
Mask an array where equal to a given value.

This function is a shortcut to masked_where, with condition = (x == value). For floating point arrays, consider using masked_values(x, value).

See also:

masked_where

Mask where a condition is met.

masked_values

Mask using floating point equality.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.arange(4)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
```

```python
>>> np.ma.masked_greater(x, value, copy=True)
Mask an array where greater than a given value.

This function is a shortcut to masked_where, with condition = (x > value).

See also:

1.7. Masked arrays 241
**masked_where**

Mask where a condition is met.

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.arange(4)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> ma.masked_greater(a, 2)
masked_array(data=[0, 1, 2, --],
              mask=[False, False, False, True],
              fill_value=999999)
```

**ma.masked_greater_equal** (x, value, copy=True)

Mask an array where greater than or equal to a given value.

This function is a shortcut to masked_where, with condition = (x >= value).

See also:

**masked_where**

Mask where a condition is met.

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.arange(4)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> ma.masked_greater_equal(a, 2)
masked_array(data=[0, 1, --, --],
              mask=[False, False, True, True],
              fill_value=999999)
```

**ma.masked_inside** (x, v1, v2, copy=True)

Mask an array inside a given interval.

Shortcut to masked_where, where condition is True for x inside the interval [v1,v2] (v1 <= x <= v2). The boundaries v1 and v2 can be given in either order.

See also:

**masked_where**

Mask where a condition is met.
Notes

The array \( x \) is prefilled with its filling value.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> x = [0.31, 1.2, 0.01, 0.2, -0.4, -1.1]
>>> ma.masked_inside(x, -0.3, 0.3)
masked_array(data=[0.31, 1.2, --, --, -0.4, -1.1],
             mask=[False, False, True, True, False, False],
             fill_value=1e+20)
```

The order of \( v1 \) and \( v2 \) doesn’t matter.

```python
>>> ma.masked_inside(x, 0.3, -0.3)
masked_array(data=[0.31, 1.2, --, --, -0.4, -1.1],
             mask=[False, False, True, True, False, False],
             fill_value=1e+20)
```

```python
ma.masked_invalid(a, copy=True)
```

Mask an array where invalid values occur (NaNs or infs).

This function is a shortcut to `masked_where`, with `condition = ~(np.isfinite(a))`. Any pre-existing mask is conserved. Only applies to arrays with a dtype where NaNs or infs make sense (i.e. floating point types), but accepts any array_like object.

See also:

`masked_where`

Mask where a condition is met.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(5, dtype=float)
>>> a[2] = np.NaN
>>> a[3] = np.PINF
>>> a
array([ 0.,  1., nan, inf,  4.])
>>> ma.masked_invalid(a)
masked_array(data=[ 0.0,  1.0, --, --,  4.0],
             mask=[False, False, True, True, False],
             fill_value=1e+20)
```

```python
ma.masked_less(x, value, copy=True)
```

Mask an array where less than a given value.

This function is a shortcut to `masked_where`, with `condition = (x < value)`.

See also:

`masked_where`

Mask where a condition is met.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.arange(4)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> ma.masked_less(a, 2)
masked_array(data=[--, --, 2, 3],
             mask=[ True, True, False, False],
             fill_value=999999)
```

`ma.masked_less_equal(x, value, copy=True)`

Mask an array where less than or equal to a given value.

This function is a shortcut to `masked_where`, with `condition = (x <= value)`.

See also:

`masked_where`

     Mask where a condition is met.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.arange(4)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> ma.masked_less_equal(a, 2)
masked_array(data=[--, --, --, 3],
             mask=[ True, True, True, False],
             fill_value=999999)
```

`ma.masked_not_equal(x, value, copy=True)`

Mask an array where not equal to a given value.

This function is a shortcut to `masked_where`, with `condition = (x != value)`.

See also:

`masked_where`

     Mask where a condition is met.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.arange(4)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> ma.masked_not_equal(a, 2)
masked_array(data=[--, --, 2, --],
             mask=[ True, True, False, True],
             fill_value=999999)
```
**ma.masked_object**(x, value, copy=True, shrink=True)

Mask the array x where the data are exactly equal to value.

This function is similar to **masked_values**, but only suitable for object arrays: for floating point, use **masked_values** instead.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  - [array_like] Array to mask
- **value**
  - [object] Comparison value
- **copy**
  - [{True, False}, optional] Whether to return a copy of x.
- **shrink**
  - [{True, False}, optional] Whether to collapse a mask full of False to nomask

**Returns**

- **result**
  - [MaskedArray] The result of masking x where equal to value.

**See also:**

- **masked_where**
  - Mask where a condition is met.
- **masked_equal**
  - Mask where equal to a given value (integers).
- **masked_values**
  - Mask using floating point equality.

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> food = np.array(['green_eggs', 'ham'], dtype=object)
>>> # don't eat spoiled food
>>> eat = ma.masked_object(food, 'green_eggs')
>>> eat
masked_array(data=['--', 'ham'],
             mask=[ True, False],
            fill_value='green_eggs',
            dtype=object)
>>> # plain ol' ham is boring
>>> fresh_food = np.array(['cheese', 'ham', 'pineapple'], dtype=object)
>>> eat = ma.masked_object(fresh_food, 'green_eggs')
>>> eat
masked_array(data=['cheese', 'ham', 'pineapple'],
             mask=False,
```

(continues on next page)
Note that mask is set to nomask if possible.

```python
>>> eat
masked_array(data=['cheese', 'ham', 'pineapple'],
             mask=False,
             fill_value='green_eggs',
             dtype=object)
```

**ma.masked_values** (x, value, rtol=1e-05, atol=1e-08, copy=True, shrink=True)

Mask using floating point equality.

Return a MaskedArray, masked where the data in array x are approximately equal to value, determined using isclose. The default tolerances for masked_values are the same as those for isclose.

For integer types, exact equality is used, in the same way as masked_equal.

The fill_value is set to value and the mask is set to nomask if possible.

**Parameters**
x

[array_like] Array to mask.

value

[float] Masking value.

rtol, atol

[float, optional] Tolerance parameters passed on to isclose

copy

[bool, optional] Whether to return a copy of x.

shrink

[bool, optional] Whether to collapse a mask full of False to nomask.

Returns

result

[MaskedArray] The result of masking x where approximately equal to value.

See also:

masked_where

Mask where a condition is met.

masked_equal

Mask where equal to a given value (integers).

Examples

>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> x = np.array([1, 1.1, 2, 1.1, 3])
>>> ma.masked_values(x, 1.1)
masked_array(data=[1.0, --, 2.0, --, 3.0],
             mask=[False, True, False, True, False],
             fill_value=1.1)

Note that mask is set to nomask if possible.

>>> ma.masked_values(x, 1.5)
masked_array(data=[1. , 1.1, 2. , 1.1, 3. ],
             mask=False,
             fill_value=1.5)

For integers, the fill value will be different in general to the result of masked_equal.

>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> x
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> ma.masked_values(x, 2)
masked_array(data=[0, 1, --, 3, 4],
             mask=[False, False, True, False, False],
             fill_value=2)
>>> ma.masked_equal(x, 2)
masked_array(data=[0, 1, --, 3, 4],
             mask=[False, False, True, False, False],
           fill_value=2)

ma.masked_where(condition, a, copy=True)

Mask an array where a condition is met.

Return $a$ as an array masked where $condition$ is True. Any masked values of $a$ or $condition$ are also masked in the output.

Parameters

condition
[array_like] Masking condition. When $condition$ tests floating point values for equality, consider using `masked_values` instead.

$a$
[array_like] Array to mask.

copy
[bool] If True (default) make a copy of $a$ in the result. If False modify $a$ in place and return a view.

Returns

result
[MaskedArray] The result of masking $a$ where $condition$ is True.

See also:

masked_values
Mask using floating point equality.

masked_equal
Mask where equal to a given value.

masked_not_equal
Mask where not equal to a given value.

masked_less_equal
Mask where less than or equal to a given value.

masked_greater_equal
Mask where greater than or equal to a given value.

masked_less
Mask where less than a given value.

masked_greater
Mask where greater than a given value.
**masked_inside**

Mask inside a given interval.

**masked_outside**

Mask outside a given interval.

**masked_invalid**

Mask invalid values (NaNs or infs).

### Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.arange(4)
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> ma.masked_where(a <= 2, a)
masked_array(data=[--, --, --, 3],
             mask=[ True, True, True, False],
             fill_value=999999)
```

Mask array `b` conditional on `a`.

```python
>>> b = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
>>> ma.masked_where(a == 2, b)
masked_array(data=['a', 'b', --, 'd'],
             mask=[False, False, True, False],
             fill_value='N/A',
             dtype='<U1')
```

Effect of the `copy` argument.

```python
>>> c = ma.masked_where(a <= 2, a)
>>> c
c
masked_array(data=[--, --, --, 3],
             mask=[ True, True, True, False],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> c[0] = 99
>>> c
c
masked_array(data=[99, --, --, 3],
             mask=[False, True, True, False],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> c = ma.masked_where(a <= 2, a, copy=False)
>>> c[0] = 99
>>> c
c
masked_array(data=[99, --, --, 3],
             mask=[False, True, True, False],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> a
array([99, 1, 2, 3])
```

When `condition` or `a` contain masked values.
Accessing the data

The underlying data of a masked array can be accessed in several ways:

- through the `data` attribute. The output is a view of the array as a `numpy.ndarray` or one of its subclasses, depending on the type of the underlying data at the masked array creation.
- through the `__array__` method. The output is then a `numpy.ndarray`.
- by directly taking a view of the masked array as a `numpy.ndarray` or one of its subclass (which is actually what using the `data` attribute does).
- by using the `getdata` function.

None of these methods is completely satisfactory if some entries have been marked as invalid. As a general rule, where a representation of the array is required without any masked entries, it is recommended to fill the array with the `filled` method.

Accessing the mask

The mask of a masked array is accessible through its `mask` attribute. We must keep in mind that a `True` entry in the mask indicates an invalid data.

Another possibility is to use the `getmask` and `getmaskarray` functions. `getmask(x)` outputs the mask of `x` if `x` is a masked array, and the special value `nomask` otherwise. `getmaskarray(x)` outputs the mask of `x` if `x` is a masked array. If `x` has no invalid entry or is not a masked array, the function outputs a boolean array of `False` with as many elements as `x`.

Accessing only the valid entries

To retrieve only the valid entries, we can use the inverse of the mask as an index. The inverse of the mask can be calculated with the `numpy.logical_not` function or simply with the `~` operator:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(4)
>>> a = ma.masked_where(a == 2, a)
>>> a
masked_array(data=[0, 1, --, 3],
             mask=[False, False, True, False],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> b = np.arange(4)
>>> b = ma.masked_where(b == 0, b)
>>> b
masked_array(data=[--, 1, 2, 3],
             mask=[ True, False, False, False],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> ma.masked_where(a == 3, b)
masked_array(data=[--, 1, --, --],
             mask=[ True, False, True, True],
             fill_value=999999)
```

```python
Accessing the data

The underlying data of a masked array can be accessed in several ways:

- through the `data` attribute. The output is a view of the array as a `numpy.ndarray` or one of its subclasses, depending on the type of the underlying data at the masked array creation.
- through the `__array__` method. The output is then a `numpy.ndarray`.
- by directly taking a view of the masked array as a `numpy.ndarray` or one of its subclass (which is actually what using the `data` attribute does).
- by using the `getdata` function.

None of these methods is completely satisfactory if some entries have been marked as invalid. As a general rule, where a representation of the array is required without any masked entries, it is recommended to fill the array with the `filled` method.

Accessing the mask

The mask of a masked array is accessible through its `mask` attribute. We must keep in mind that a `True` entry in the mask indicates an invalid data.

Another possibility is to use the `getmask` and `getmaskarray` functions. `getmask(x)` outputs the mask of `x` if `x` is a masked array, and the special value `nomask` otherwise. `getmaskarray(x)` outputs the mask of `x` if `x` is a masked array. If `x` has no invalid entry or is not a masked array, the function outputs a boolean array of `False` with as many elements as `x`.

Accessing only the valid entries

To retrieve only the valid entries, we can use the inverse of the mask as an index. The inverse of the mask can be calculated with the `numpy.logical_not` function or simply with the `~` operator:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(4)
>>> a = ma.masked_where(a == 2, a)
>>> a
masked_array(data=[0, 1, --, 3],
             mask=[False, False, True, False],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> b = np.arange(4)
>>> b = ma.masked_where(b == 0, b)
>>> b
masked_array(data=[--, 1, 2, 3],
             mask=[ True, False, False, False],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> ma.masked_where(a == 3, b)
masked_array(data=[--, 1, --, --],
             mask=[ True, False, True, True],
             fill_value=999999)
```
Another way to retrieve the valid data is to use the \texttt{compressed} method, which returns a one-dimensional \texttt{ndarray} (or one of its subclasses, depending on the value of the \texttt{baseclass} attribute):

```
>>> x.compressed()
array([1, 4])
```

Note that the output of \texttt{compressed} is always 1D.

## Modifying the mask

### Masking an entry

The recommended way to mark one or several specific entries of a masked array as invalid is to assign the special value \texttt{masked} to them:

```
>>> x = ma.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> x[0] = ma.masked
>>> x
masked_array(data=[--, 2, 3],
             mask=[ True, False, False],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> y = ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]])
>>> y[(0, 1, 2), (1, 2, 0)] = ma.masked
>>> y
masked_array(data=[[1, --, 3],
                   [4, 5, --],
                   [--, 8, 9]],
             mask=[[False, True, False],
                   [False, False, True],
                   [ True, False, False]],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> z = ma.array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> z[:-2] = ma.masked
```

A second possibility is to modify the \texttt{mask} directly, but this usage is discouraged.

**Note:** When creating a new masked array with a simple, non-structured datatype, the mask is initially set to the special value \texttt{nomask}, that corresponds roughly to the boolean \texttt{False}. Trying to set an element of \texttt{nomask} will fail with a \texttt{TypeError} exception, as a boolean does not support item assignment.

All the entries of an array can be masked at once by assigning \texttt{True} to the mask:

```
>>> x = ma.array([1, 2, 3], mask=[0, 0, 1])
>>> x.mask = True
>>> x
masked_array(data=[--, --, --],
             mask=[ True, True, False],
             fill_value=999999,
             dtype=int64)
```

Finally, specific entries can be masked and/or unmasked by assigning to the mask a sequence of booleans:
```python
>>> x = ma.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> x.mask = [0, 1, 0]
>>> x
masked_array(data=[1, --, 3],
             mask=[False, True, False],
             fill_value=999999)
```

**Unmasking an entry**

To unmask one or several specific entries, we can just assign one or several new valid values to them:

```python
>>> x = ma.array([1, 2, 3], mask=[0, 0, 1])
>>> x
masked_array(data=[1, 2, --],
             mask=[False, False, True],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> x[-1] = 5
>>> x
masked_array(data=[1, 2, 5],
             mask=[False, False, False],
             fill_value=999999)
```

**Note:** Unmasking an entry by direct assignment will silently fail if the masked array has a *hard* mask, as shown by the `hardmask` attribute. This feature was introduced to prevent overwriting the mask. To force the unmasking of an entry where the array has a hard mask, the mask must first be softened using the `soften_mask` method before the allocation. It can be re-hardened with `harden_mask`:

```python
>>> x = ma.array([1, 2, 3], mask=[0, 0, 1], hard_mask=True)
>>> x
masked_array(data=[1, 2, --],
             mask=[False, False, True],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> x[-1] = 5
>>> x
masked_array(data=[1, 2, --],
             mask=[False, False, True],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> x.soften_mask()
masked_array(data=[1, 2, --],
             mask=[False, False, True],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> x[-1] = 5
>>> x
masked_array(data=[1, 2, 5],
             mask=[False, False, False],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> x.harden_mask()
masked_array(data=[1, 2, 5],
             mask=[False, False, False],
             fill_value=999999)
```

To unmask all masked entries of a masked array (provided the mask isn’t a hard mask), the simplest solution is to assign the constant `nomask` to the mask:
Indexing and slicing

As a MaskedArray is a subclass of numpy.ndarray, it inherits its mechanisms for indexing and slicing.

When accessing a single entry of a masked array with no named fields, the output is either a scalar (if the corresponding entry of the mask is False) or the special value masked (if the corresponding entry of the mask is True):

```python
>>> x = ma.array([1, 2, 3], mask=[0, 0, 1])
>>> x[0]
1
>>> x[-1]
masked
>>> x[-1] is ma.masked
True
```

If the masked array has named fields, accessing a single entry returns a numpy.void object if none of the fields are masked, or a 0d masked array with the same dtype as the initial array if at least one of the fields is masked.

```python
>>> y = ma.masked_array([(1,2), (3, 4)],
...                      mask=[(0, 0), (0, 1)],
...                      dtype=[('a', int), ('b', int)])
>>> y[0]
(1, 2)
>>> y[-1]
(3, --)
```

When accessing a slice, the output is a masked array whose data attribute is a view of the original data, and whose mask is either nomask (if there was no invalid entries in the original array) or a view of the corresponding slice of the original mask. The view is required to ensure propagation of any modification of the mask to the original.

```python
>>> x = ma.array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5], mask=[0, 1, 0, 0, 1])
>>> mx = x[:3]
>>> mx
masked_array(data=[1, --, 3],
...            mask=[False, True, False],
...            fill_value=999999)
>>> mx[1] = -1
>>> mx
masked_array(data=[1, -1, 3],
...            mask=[False, False, False],
...            fill_value=999999)
>>> x.mask
array([False, False, False, False, True])
>>> x.data
array([ 1, -1,  3,  4,  5])
```
Accessing a field of a masked array with structured datatype returns a *MaskedArray*.

### Operations on masked arrays

Arithmetic and comparison operations are supported by masked arrays. As much as possible, invalid entries of a masked array are not processed, meaning that the corresponding data entries should be the same before and after the operation.

**Warning:** We need to stress that this behavior may not be systematic, that masked data may be affected by the operation in some cases and therefore users should not rely on this data remaining unchanged.

The *numpy.ma* module comes with a specific implementation of most ufuncs. Unary and binary functions that have a validity domain (such as *log* or *divide*) return the masked constant whenever the input is masked or falls outside the validity domain:

```python
>>> ma.log([-1, 0, 1, 2])
masked_array(data=[--, --, 0.0, 0.6931471805599453],
    mask=[ True, True, False, False],
    fill_value=1e+20)
```

Masked arrays also support standard numpy ufuncs. The output is then a masked array. The result of a unary ufunc is masked wherever the input is masked. The result of a binary ufunc is masked wherever any of the input is masked. If the ufunc also returns the optional context output (a 3-element tuple containing the name of the ufunc, its arguments and its domain), the context is processed and entries of the output masked array are masked wherever the corresponding input fall outside the validity domain:

```python
>>> x = ma.array([-1, 1, 0, 2, 3], mask=[0, 0, 0, 0, 1])
>>> np.log(x)
masked_array(data=[-- 0.0 -- 0.6931471805599453 --],
    mask=[ True False True False True],
    fill_value=1e+20)
```

### 1.7.3 Examples

**Data with a given value representing missing data**

Let's consider a list of elements, *x*, where values of -9999. represent missing data. We wish to compute the average value of the data and the vector of anomalies (deviations from the average):

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> x = [0., 1., -9999., 3., 4.]
>>> mx = ma.masked_values (x, -9999.)
>>> print (mx.mean())
2.0
>>> print (mx - mx.mean())
[-2.0 -1.0 -- 1.0 2.0]
>>> print (mx.anom())
[-2.0 -1.0 -- 1.0 2.0]
```
Filling in the missing data

Suppose now that we wish to print that same data, but with the missing values replaced by the average value.

```
>>> print(mx.filled(mx.mean()))
[ 0.  1.  2.  3.  4.]
```

Numerical operations

Numerical operations can be easily performed without worrying about missing values, dividing by zero, square roots of negative numbers, etc.:

```
>>> import numpy as ma
>>> x = ma.array([1., -1., 3., 4., 5., 6.], mask=[0,0,0,0,1,0])
>>> y = ma.array([1., 2., 0., 4., 5., 6.], mask=[0,0,0,0,0,1])
>>> print(ma.sqrt(x/y))
[1.0 -- -- 1.0 -- --]
```

Four values of the output are invalid: the first one comes from taking the square root of a negative number, the second from the division by zero, and the last two where the inputs were masked.

Ignoring extreme values

Let's consider an array `d` of floats between 0 and 1. We wish to compute the average of the values of `d` while ignoring any data outside the range `[0.2, 0.9]`:

```
>>> d = np.linspace(0, 1, 20)
>>> print(d.mean() - ma.masked_outside(d, 0.2, 0.9).mean())
-0.05263157894736836
```

1.7.4 Constants of the `numpy.ma` module

In addition to the `MaskedArray` class, the `numpy.ma` module defines several constants.

`numpy.ma.masked`

The `masked` constant is a special case of `MaskedArray`, with a float datatype and a null shape. It is used to test whether a specific entry of a masked array is masked, or to mask one or several entries of a masked array:

```
>>> x = ma.array([1, 2, 3], mask=[0, 1, 0])
>>> x[1] is ma.masked
True
>>> x[-1] = ma.masked
>>> x
masked_array(data=[1, --, --], 
             mask=[False, True, True],
            fill_value=999999)
```

`numpy.ma.nomask`

Value indicating that a masked array has no invalid entry. `nomask` is used internally to speed up computations when the mask is not needed. It is represented internally as `np.False_`

`numpy.ma.masked_print_options`

String used in lieu of missing data when a masked array is printed. By default, this string is `''`. 

1.7. Masked arrays
1.7.5 The MaskedArray class

class numpy.ma.MaskedArray

A subclass of ndarray designed to manipulate numerical arrays with missing data. An instance of MaskedArray can be thought as the combination of several elements:

- The data, as a regular numpy.ndarray of any shape or datatype (the data).
- A boolean mask with the same shape as the data, where a True value indicates that the corresponding element of the data is invalid. The special value nomask is also acceptable for arrays without named fields, and indicates that no data is invalid.
- A fill_value, a value that may be used to replace the invalid entries in order to return a standard numpy.ndarray.

Attributes and properties of masked arrays

See also:

Array Attributes

MaskedArray.data

Returns the underlying data, as a view of the masked array.

If the underlying data is a subclass of numpy.ndarray, it is returned as such.

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array(np.matrix([[1, 2], [3, 4]]), mask=[[0, 1], [1, 0]])
>>> x.data
matrix([[1, 2],
        [3, 4]])
```

The type of the data can be accessed through the baseclass attribute.

MaskedArray.mask

Current mask.

MaskedArray.recordmask

Get or set the mask of the array if it has no named fields. For structured arrays, returns a ndarray of booleans where entries are True if all the fields are masked, False otherwise:

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3), (4, 4), (5, 5)],
                  mask=[(0, 0), (1, 0), (1, 1), (0, 1), (0, 0)],
                  dtype=[('a', int), ('b', int)])
>>> x.recordmask
array([False, False, True, False, False])
```

MaskedArray.fill_value

The filling value of the masked array is a scalar. When setting, None will set to a default based on the data type.
Examples

```python
>>> for dt in [np.int32, np.int64, np.float64, np.complex128]:
...   np.ma.array([0, 1], dtype=dt).get_fill_value()
...
999999
999999
1e+20
(1e+20+0j)
```

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([0, 1.], fill_value=np.inf)
>>> x.fill_value
-inf
>>> x.fill_value = np.pi
>>> x.fill_value
3.1415926535897931 # may vary
```

Reset to default:

```python
>>> x.fill_value = None
>>> x.fill_value
1e+20
```

*MaskedArray*. **baseclass**

Class of the underlying data (read-only).

*MaskedArray*. **sharedmask**

Share status of the mask (read-only).

*MaskedArray*. **hardmask**

Hardness of the mask

As *MaskedArray* is a subclass of *ndarray*, a masked array also inherits all the attributes and properties of a *ndarray* instance.

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attribute

1.7. Masked arrays
ma.MaskedArray.base
   Base object if memory is from some other object.

Examples

The base of an array that owns its memory is None:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3, 4]])
>>> x.base is None
True
```

Slicing creates a view, whose memory is shared with x:

```python
>>> y = x[2:]
>>> y.base is x
True
```

attribute

ma.MaskedArray.ctypes
   An object to simplify the interaction of the array with the ctypes module.

   This attribute creates an object that makes it easier to use arrays when calling shared libraries with the ctypes module. The returned object has, among others, data, shape, and strides attributes (see Notes below) which themselves return ctypes objects that can be used as arguments to a shared library.

Parameters

None

Returns

c
   [Python object] Possessing attributes data, shape, strides, etc.

See also:

numpy.ctypeslib

Notes

Below are the public attributes of this object which were documented in “Guide to NumPy” (we have omitted undocumented public attributes, as well as documented private attributes):

_ctypes.data
   A pointer to the memory area of the array as a Python integer. This memory area may contain data that is not aligned, or not in correct byte-order. The memory area may not even be writeable. The array flags and data-type of this array should be respected when passing this attribute to arbitrary C-code to avoid trouble that can include Python crashing. User Beware! The value of this attribute is exactly the same as self._array_interface_['data'][0].

   Note that unlike data_as, a reference will not be kept to the array: code like ctypes.c_void_p((a + b).ctypes.data) will result in a pointer to a deallocated array, and should be spelt (a + b).ctypes.data_as(ctypes.c_void_p)
_ctypes.shape
(c_intp*self.ndim): A ctypes array of length self.ndim where the base-type is the C-integer corresponding
to dtype('p') on this platform. This base-type could be ctypes.c_int, ctypes.c_long, or
ctypes.c_longlong depending on the platform. The c_intp type is defined accordingly in numpy.
ctypeslib. The ctypes array contains the shape of the underlying array.

_ctypes.strides
(c_intp*self.ndim): A ctypes array of length self.ndim where the base-type is the same as for the shape at-
tribute. This ctypes array contains the strides information from the underlying array. This strides information
is important for showing how many bytes must be jumped to get to the next element in the array.

_ctypes.data_as(obj)
Return the data pointer cast to a particular c-types object. For example, calling self._as_parameter_
is equivalent to self.data_as(ctypes.c_void_p). Perhaps you want to use the data as a pointer to
a ctypes array of floating-point data: self.data_as(ctypes.POINTER(ctypes.c_double)).
The returned pointer will keep a reference to the array.

_ctypes.shape_as(obj)
Return the shape tuple as an array of some other c-types type. For example: self.shape_as(ctypes.
c_short).

_ctypes.strides_as(obj)
Return the strides tuple as an array of some other c-types type. For example: self.
strides_as(ctypes.c_longlong).

If the ctypes module is not available, then the ctypes attribute of array objects still returns something useful,
but ctypes objects are not returned and errors may be raised instead. In particular, the object will still have the
as_parameter attribute which will return an integer equal to the data attribute.

Examples

```python
>>> import ctypes
>>> x = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], dtype=np.int32)
>>> x
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]], dtype=int32)
>>> x.ctypes.data
31962608 # may vary
>>> x.ctypes.data_as(ctypes.POINTER(ctypes.c_uint32))
<__main__.LP_c_uint object at 0x7ff2fc1fc200> # may vary
>>> x.ctypes.data_as(ctypes.POINTER(ctypes.c_uint32)).contents
  c_uint(0)
>>> x.ctypes.data_as(ctypes.POINTER(ctypes.c_uint64)).contents
  c_ulong(4294967296)
>>> x.ctypes.shape
<numpy.core._internal.c_long_Array_2 object at 0x7ff2fc1fce60> # may vary
>>> x.ctypes.strides
<numpy.core._internal.c_long_Array_2 object at 0x7ff2fc1ff320> # may vary
```

property

property ma.MaskedArray.dtype
Data-type of the array's elements.

Parameters

None
Returns

\[ d \]

[numpy dtype object]

See also:

`numpy.dtype`

Examples

```python
>>> x
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]])
>>> x.dtype
dtype('int32')
>>> type(x.dtype)
<type 'numpy.dtype'>
```

attribute

`ma.MaskedArray.flags`

Information about the memory layout of the array.

Notes

The `flags` object can be accessed dictionary-like (as in `a.flags['WRITEABLE']`), or by using lowercased attribute names (as in `a.flags.writeable`). Short flag names are only supported in dictionary access.

Only the WRITEBACKIFCOPY, UPDATEIFCOPY, WRITEABLE, and ALIGNED flags can be changed by the user, via direct assignment to the attribute or dictionary entry, or by calling `ndarray.setflags`.

The array flags cannot be set arbitrarily:

- UPDATEIFCOPY can only be set `False`.
- WRITEBACKIFCOPY can only be set `False`.
- ALIGNED can only be set `True` if the data is truly aligned.
- WRITEABLE can only be set `True` if the array owns its own memory or the ultimate owner of the memory exposes a writeable buffer interface or is a string.

Arrays can be both C-style and Fortran-style contiguous simultaneously. This is clear for 1-dimensional arrays, but can also be true for higher dimensional arrays.

Even for contiguous arrays a stride for a given dimension `arr.strides[dim]` may be arbitrary if `arr.shape[dim] == 1` or the array has no elements. It does not generally hold that `self.strides[-1] == self.itemsize` for C-style contiguous arrays or `self.strides[0] == self.itemsize` for Fortran-style contiguous arrays is true.

Attributes

**C_CONTIGUOUS (C)**

The data is in a single, C-style contiguous segment.
F_CONTIGUOUS (F)

The data is in a single, Fortran-style contiguous segment.

OWNDATA (O)

The array owns the memory it uses or borrows it from another object.

WRITEABLE (W)

The data area can be written to. Setting this to False locks the data, making it read-only. A view (slice, etc.) inherits WRITEABLE from its base array at creation time, but a view of a writeable array may be subsequently locked while the base array remains writeable. (The opposite is not true, in that a view of a locked array may not be made writeable. However, currently, locking a base object does not lock any views that already reference it, so under that circumstance it is possible to alter the contents of a locked array via a previously created writeable view onto it.) Attempting to change a non-writeable array raises a RuntimeError exception.

ALIGNED (A)

The data and all elements are aligned appropriately for the hardware.

WRITEBACKIFCOPY (X)

This array is a copy of some other array. The C-API function PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy must be called before deallocating to the base array will be updated with the contents of this array.

UPDATEIFCOPY (U)

(Deprecated, use WRITEBACKIFCOPY) This array is a copy of some other array. When this array is deallocated, the base array will be updated with the contents of this array.

FNC

F_CONTIGUOUS and not C_CONTIGUOUS.

FORC

F_CONTIGUOUS or C_CONTIGUOUS (one-segment test).

BEHAVED (B)

ALIGNED and WRITEABLE.

CARRAY (CA)

BEHAVED and C_CONTIGUOUS.

FARRAY (FA)

BEHAVED and F_CONTIGUOUS and not C_CONTIGUOUS.

attribute

ma.MaskedArray.itemsize

Length of one array element in bytes.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.float64)
>>> x.itemsize
8
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.complex128)
>>> x.itemsize
16
```

attribute

`ma.MaskedArray.nbytes`
Total bytes consumed by the elements of the array.

Notes

Does not include memory consumed by non-element attributes of the array object.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.zeros((3, 5, 2), dtype=np.complex128)
>>> x.nbytes
480
>>> np.prod(x.shape) * x.itemsize
480
```

attribute

`ma.MaskedArray.ndim`
Number of array dimensions.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> x.ndim
1
>>> y = np.zeros((2, 3, 4))
>>> y.ndim
3
```

property

`property ma.MaskedArray.shape`
Tuple of array dimensions.

The shape property is usually used to get the current shape of an array, but may also be used to reshape the array in-place by assigning a tuple of array dimensions to it. As with `numpy.reshape`, one of the new shape dimensions can be -1, in which case its value is inferred from the size of the array and the remaining dimensions. Reshaping an array in-place will fail if a copy is required.

See also:

`numpy.reshape`

similar function
ndarray.reshape

similar method

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3, 4]])
>>> x.shape
(4,)
>>> y = np.zeros((2, 3, 4))
>>> y.shape
(2, 3, 4)
>>> y.shape = (3, 8)
>>> y
array([[0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.],
       [0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.],
       [0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.]])
>>> y.shape = (3, 6)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: total size of new array must be unchanged
>>> np.zeros((4,2))[::2].shape = (-1,)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
AttributeError: Incompatible shape for in-place modification. Use .reshape() to make a copy with the desired shape.
```

attribute

ma.MaskedArray.size

Number of elements in the array.

Equal to np.prod(a.shape), i.e., the product of the array's dimensions.

Notes

a.size returns a standard arbitrary precision Python integer. This may not be the case with other methods of obtaining the same value (like the suggested np.prod(a.shape), which returns an instance of np.int_), and may be relevant if the value is used further in calculations that may overflow a fixed size integer type.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.zeros((3, 5, 2), dtype=np.complex128)
>>> x.size
30
>>> np.prod(x.shape)
30
```

attribute

ma.MaskedArray.strides

Tuple of bytes to step in each dimension when traversing an array.

The byte offset of element \((i[0], i[1], \ldots, i[n])\) in an array \(a\) is:
offset = sum(np.array(i) * a.strides)

A more detailed explanation of strides can be found in the “ndarray.rst” file in the NumPy reference guide.

See also:

`numpy.lib.stride_tricks.as_strided`

Notes

Imagine an array of 32-bit integers (each 4 bytes):

```python
x = np.array([[0, 1, 2, 3],
              [5, 6, 7, 8]], dtype=np.int32)
```

This array is stored in memory as 40 bytes, one after the other (known as a contiguous block of memory). The strides of an array tell us how many bytes we have to skip in memory to move to the next position along a certain axis. For example, we have to skip 4 bytes (1 value) to move to the next column, but 20 bytes (5 values) to get to the same position in the next row. As such, the strides for the array `x` will be `(20, 4)`.

Examples

```python
>>> y = np.reshape(np.arange(2*3*4), (2,3,4))
>>> y
array([[[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]],
       [[12, 13, 14, 15],
        [16, 17, 18, 19],
        [20, 21, 22, 23]])
>>> y.strides
(48, 16, 4)
>>> y[1,1,1]
17
>>> offset=sum(y.strides * np.array((1,1,1)))
>>> offset/y.itemsize
17

>>> x = np.reshape(np.arange(5*6*7*8), (5,6,7,8)).transpose(2,3,1,0)
>>> x.strides
(32, 4, 224, 1344)
>>> i = np.array([3,5,2,2])
>>> offset = sum(i * x.strides)
>>> x[3,5,2,2]
813
>>> offset / x.itemsize
813
```

property

**property** `ma.MaskedArray.imag`

The imaginary part of the masked array.

This property is a view on the imaginary part of this `MaskedArray`.

See also:
real

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([1+1.j, -2j, 3.45+1.6j], mask=[False, True, False])
```
```
>>> x.imag
masked_array(data=[1.0, --, 1.6],
             mask=[False, True, False],
             fill_value=1e+20)
```

property

```python
property ma.MaskedArray.real
The real part of the masked array.
```

This property is a view on the real part of this MaskedArray.

See also:

imag

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([1+1.j, -2j, 3.45+1.6j], mask=[False, True, False])
```
```
>>> x.real
masked_array(data=[1.0, --, 3.45],
             mask=[False, True, False],
             fill_value=1e+20)
```

property

```python
property ma.MaskedArray.flat
Return a flat iterator, or set a flattened version of self to value.
```

attribute

```python
ma.MaskedArray.__array_priority__ = 15
```

1.7.6 MaskedArray methods

See also:

Array methods

Conversion

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<td>Transforms a masked array into a flexible-type array.</td>
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<td><code>MaskedArray.tostring([fill_value, order])</code></td>
<td>A compatibility alias for <code>tobytes</code>, with exactly the same behavior.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>MaskedArray.tobytes([fill_value, order])</code></td>
<td>Return the array data as a string containing the raw bytes in the array.</td>
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method

`ma.MaskedArray.__float__(())`

Convert to float.

method

`ma.MaskedArray.__int__(())`

Convert to int.

method

`ma.MaskedArray.view(dtype=None, type=None, fill_value=None)`

Return a view of the MaskedArray data.

Parameters

- **dtype**

  [data-type or ndarray sub-class, optional] Data-type descriptor of the returned view, e.g., float32 or int16. The default, None, results in the view having the same data-type as `a`. As with `ndarray.view`, `dtype` can also be specified as an ndarray sub-class, which then specifies the type of the returned object (this is equivalent to setting the `type` parameter).

- **type**

  [Python type, optional] Type of the returned view, either ndarray or a subclass. The default None results in type preservation.

- **fill_value**

  [scalar, optional] The value to use for invalid entries (None by default). If None, then this argument is inferred from the passed `dtype`, or in its absence the original array, as discussed in the notes below.

See also:

- `numpy.ndarray.view`

  Equivalent method on ndarray object.
Notes

`a.view()` is used two different ways:

- `a.view(some_dtype)` or `a.view(dtype=some_dtype)` constructs a view of the array's memory with a different data-type. This can cause a reinterpretation of the bytes of memory.
- `a.view(ndarray_subclass)` or `a.view(type=ndarray_subclass)` just returns an instance of `ndarray_subclass` that looks at the same array (same shape, dtype, etc.) This does not cause a reinterpretation of the memory.

If `fill_value` is not specified, but `dtype` is specified (and is not an ndarray sub-class), the `fill_value` of the MaskedArray will be reset. If neither `fill_value` nor `dtype` are specified (or if `dtype` is an ndarray sub-class), then the fill value is preserved. Finally, if `fill_value` is specified, but `dtype` is not, the fill value is set to the specified value.

For `a.view(some_dtype)`, if `some_dtype` has a different number of bytes per entry than the previous dtype (for example, converting a regular array to a structured array), then the behavior of the view cannot be predicted just from the superficial appearance of `a` (shown by `print(a)`). It also depends on exactly how `a` is stored in memory. Therefore if `a` is C-ordered versus fortran-ordered, versus defined as a slice or transpose, etc., the view may give different results.

```python
ma.MaskedArray.astype(dtype, order='K', casting='unsafe', subok=True, copy=True)
```

Copy of the array, cast to a specified type.

Parameters

dtype

[strtordtype] Typecode or data-type to which the array is cast.

order

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the memory layout order of the result. ‘C’ means C order, ‘F’ means Fortran order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ order if all the arrays are Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ order otherwise, and ‘K’ means as close to the order the array elements appear in memory as possible. Default is ‘K’.

casting

[{'no', 'equiv', 'safe', 'same_kind', 'unsafe'}, optional] Controls what kind of data casting may occur. Defaults to ‘unsafe’ for backwards compatibility.

- ‘no’ means the data types should not be cast at all.
- ‘equiv’ means only byte-order changes are allowed.
- ‘safe’ means only casts which can preserve values are allowed.
- ‘same_kind’ means only safe casts or casts within a kind, like float64 to float32, are allowed.
- ‘unsafe’ means any data conversions may be done.

subok

[bool, optional] If True, then sub-classes will be passed-through (default), otherwise the returned array will be forced to be a base-class array.

copy
[bool, optional] By default, astype always returns a newly allocated array. If this is set to false, and the dtype, order, and subok requirements are satisfied, the input array is returned instead of a copy.

Returns

arr_t

[ndarray] Unless copy is False and the other conditions for returning the input array are satisfied (see description for copy input parameter), arr_t is a new array of the same shape as the input array, with dtype, order given by dtype, order.

Raises

ComplexWarning

When casting from complex to float or int. To avoid this, one should use a.real.astype(t).

Notes

Changed in version 1.17.0: Casting between a simple data type and a structured one is possible only for “unsafe” casting. Casting to multiple fields is allowed, but casting from multiple fields is not.

Changed in version 1.9.0: Casting from numeric to string types in ‘safe’ casting mode requires that the string dtype length is long enough to store the max integer/float value converted.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 2.5])
>>> x
array([1., 2., 2.5])

>>> x.astype(int)
array([1, 2, 2])
```

method

ma.MaskedArray.byteswap(inplace=False)

Swap the bytes of the array elements

Toggle between low-endian and big-endian data representation by returning a byteswapped array, optionally swapped in-place. Arrays of byte-strings are not swapped. The real and imaginary parts of a complex number are swapped individually.

Parameters

inplace

[bool, optional] If True, swap bytes in-place, default is False.

Returns

out

[ndarray] The byteswapped array. If inplace is True, this is a view to self.
Examples

```python
>>> A = np.array([1, 256, 8755], dtype=np.int16)
>>> list(map(hex, A))
['0x1', '0x100', '0x2233']
>>> A.byteswap(inplace=True)
array([ 256,  1, 13090], dtype=int16)
>>> list(map(hex, A))
['0x100', '0x1', '0x3322']

Arrays of byte-strings are not swapped

```python
>>> A = np.array([b'ceg', b'fac'])
>>> A.byteswap()
array([b'ceg', b'fac'], dtype='|S3')
```

A .newbyteorder() .byteswap () produces an array with the same values
but different representation in memory

```python
>>> A = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> A.view(np.uint8)
array([1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0], dtype=uint8)
>>> A.newbyteorder().byteswap(inplace=True)
array([1, 2, 3])
>>> A.view(np.uint8)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 3], dtype=uint8)
```

method

ma.MaskedArray .compressed ()

Return all the non-masked data as a 1-D array.

Returns

data
[ndarray] A new ndarray holding the non-masked data is returned.

Notes

The result is not a MaskedArray!

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array(np.arange(5), mask=[0]*2 + [1]*3)
>>> x.compressed()
array([0, 1])
>>> type(x.compressed())
<class 'numpy.ndarray'>
```
**ma.MaskedArray.filled** (*fill_value=None*)

Return a copy of self, with masked values filled with a given value. **However**, if there are no masked values to fill, self will be returned instead as an ndarray.

**Parameters**

- **fill_value**
  
  [array_like, optional] The value to use for invalid entries. Can be scalar or non-scalar. If non-scalar, the resulting ndarray must be broadcastable over input array. Default is None, in which case, the *fill_value* attribute of the array is used instead.

**Returns**

- **filled_array**
  
  [ndarray] A copy of *self* with invalid entries replaced by *fill_value* (be it the function argument or the attribute of *self*), or *self* itself as an ndarray if there are no invalid entries to be replaced.

**Notes**

The result is **not** a MaskedArray!

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5], mask=[0, 0, 1, 0, 1], fill_value=-999)
>>> x.filled()
array([ 1, 2, -999, 4, -999])
>>> x.filled(fill_value=1000)
array([ 1, 2, 1000, 4, 1000])
>>> type(x.filled())
<class 'numpy.ndarray'>
```

Subclassing is preserved. This means that if, e.g., the data part of the masked array is a recarray, *filled* returns a recarray:

```python
>>> x = np.array([(-1, 2), (-3, 4)], dtype='i8,i8').view(np.recarray)
>>> m = np.ma.array(x, mask=[(True, False), (False, True)])
>>> m.filled()
rec.array([(999999, 2), (-3, 999999)],
dtype=[('f0', '<i8'), ('f1', '<i8')]`
```

**method**

**ma.MaskedArray.tofile** (*fid, sep=",", format="%s")*

Save a masked array to a file in binary format.

**Warning:** This function is not implemented yet.

**Raises**
NotImplementedError

When tofile is called.

method

ma.MaskedArray.toflex()

Transforms a masked array into a flexible-type array.

The flexible type array that is returned will have two fields:

- the _data field stores the _data part of the array.
- the _mask field stores the _mask part of the array.

Parameters

None

Returns

record

[ndarray] A new flexible-type ndarray with two fields: the first element containing a value, the second element containing the corresponding mask boolean. The returned record shape matches self.shape.

Notes

A side-effect of transforming a masked array into a flexible ndarray is that meta information (fill_value, ...) will be lost.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]], mask=[0] + [1, 0]*4)
>>> x
masked_array(data=[[1, --, 3],
               [--, 5, --],
               [7, --, 9]],
               mask=[[False, True, False],
                     [True, False, True],
                     [False, True, False]],
               fill_value=999999)
>>> x.toflex()
array([[1, False), (2, True), (3, False),
       (4, True), (5, False), (6, True),
       (7, False), (8, True), (9, False)],
       dtype=[('_data', '<i8'), ('_mask', '?')])
```

method

ma.MaskedArray.tolist(fill_value=None)

Return the data portion of the masked array as a hierarchical Python list.

Data items are converted to the nearest compatible Python type. Masked values are converted to fill_value. If fill_value is None, the corresponding entries in the output list will be None.
Parameters

fill_value

[scalar, optional] The value to use for invalid entries. Default is None.

Returns

result

[list] The Python list representation of the masked array.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]], mask=[0] + [1,0]*4)
>>> x.tolist()
[[None, 2, 3], [None, 5, 6], [7, None, 9]]
>>> x.tolist(-999)
[[1, -999, 3], [-999, 5, -999], [7, -999, 9]]
```

method

ma.MaskedArray.torecords()

Transforms a masked array into a flexible-type array.

The flexible type array that is returned will have two fields:

- the _data field stores the _data part of the array.
- the _mask field stores the _mask part of the array.

Parameters

None

Returns

record

[narray] A new flexible-type narray with two fields: the first element containing a value, the second element containing the corresponding mask boolean. The returned record shape matches self.shape.

Notes

A side-effect of transforming a masked array into a flexible narray is that meta information (fill_value, ...) will be lost.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([[1, 2, 3],[4, 5, 6],[7, 8, 9]], mask=[0] + [1,0]*4)
```

```python
x
```

```python
masked_array(
    data=[[1, --, 3],
          [--, 5, --],
          [7, --, 9]],
    mask=[[False, True, False],
           [ True, False, True],
           [False, True, False]],
    fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> x.toflex()
```

```python
array([[ (1, False), (2, True), (3, False)],
       [(4, True), (5, False), (6, True)],
       [(7, False), (8, True), (9, False)]],
      dtype=[('_data', '<i8'), ('_mask', '?')])
```

method

```python
ma.MaskedArray.tostring (fill_value=None, order='C')
```

A compatibility alias for tobytes, with exactly the same behavior.

Despite its name, it returns bytes not strs.

Deprecated since version 1.19.0.

method

```python
ma.MaskedArray.tobytes (fill_value=None, order='C')
```

Return the array data as a string containing the raw bytes in the array.

The array is filled with a fill value before the string conversion.

New in version 1.9.0.

Parameters

**fill_value**

[scalar, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values. Default is None, in which case
MaskedArray.fill_value is used.

**order**

[{'C','F','A'}, optional] Order of the data item in the copy. Default is ‘C’.

• ‘C’ – C order (row major).

• ‘F’ – Fortran order (column major).

• ‘A’ – Any, current order of array.

• None – Same as ‘A’.

See also:

numpy.ndarray.tobytes
tolist, tofile

1.7. Masked arrays
Notes

As for \texttt{ndarray.tobytes}, information about the shape, dtype, etc., but also about \texttt{fill_value}, will be lost.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array(np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]]), mask=[[0, 1], [1, 0]])
>>> x.tobytes()

b'\x01\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00?B\xf0\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00?B\xf0\x00\x00\x00\x00
\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00'
```

Shape manipulation

For reshape, resize, and transpose, the single tuple argument may be replaced with \( n \) integers which will be interpreted as an \( n \)-tuple.

```python
MaskedArray.flatten([order])
Return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension.

MaskedArray.ravel([order])
Returns a 1D version of self, as a view.

MaskedArray.reshape(*s,**kwargs)
Give a new shape to the array without changing its data.

MaskedArray.squeeze([axis])
Remove axes of length one from \( a \).

MaskedArray.swapaxes(axis1,axis2)
Return a view of the array with \( axis1 \) and \( axis2 \) interchanged.

MaskedArray.transpose(*axes)
Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.

```

method

\texttt{ma.MaskedArray.flatten(order='C')}

Return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension.

Parameters

order

\{‘C’, ‘F’, ‘A’, ‘K’\}, optional ‘C’ means to flatten in row-major (C-style) order. ‘F’ means to flatten in column-major (Fortran-style) order. ‘A’ means to flatten in column-major order if \( a \) is Fortran contiguous in memory, row-major order otherwise. ‘K’ means to flatten \( a \) in the order the elements occur in memory. The default is ‘C’.

Returns

y

[ndarray] A copy of the input array, flattened to one dimension.

See also:

\texttt{ravel}

Return a flattened array.
**flat**

A 1-D flat iterator over the array.

**Examples**

```python
given code snippet
```

method

**ma.MaskedArray**.ravel (order='C')

Returns a 1D version of self, as a view.

**Parameters**

order

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] The elements of a are read using this index order. ‘C’ means to index the elements in C-like order, with the last axis index changing fastest, back to the first axis index changing slowest. ‘F’ means to index the elements in Fortran-like index order, with the first index changing fastest, and the last index changing slowest. Note that the ‘C’ and ‘F’ options take no account of the memory layout of the underlying array, and only refer to the order of axis indexing. ‘A’ means to read the elements in Fortran-like index order if m is Fortran contiguous in memory, C-like order otherwise. ‘K’ means to read the elements in the order they occur in memory, except for reversing the data when strides are negative. By default, ‘C’ index order is used.

**Returns**

MaskedArray

Output view is of shape (self.size,) (or (np.ma.product(self.shape),)).

**Examples**

```python
given code snippet
```
ma.MaskedArray.reshape(*s, **kwargs)

Give a new shape to the array without changing its data.

Returns a masked array containing the same data, but with a new shape. The result is a view on the original array; if this is not possible, a ValueError is raised.

Parameters

shape

[int or tuple of ints] The new shape should be compatible with the original shape. If an integer is supplied, then the result will be a 1-D array of that length.

order

[\{'C', 'F'\}, optional] Determines whether the array data should be viewed as in C (row-major) or FORTRAN (column-major) order.

Returns

reshaped_array


See also:

reshape

Equivalent function in the masked array module.

numpy.ndarray.reshape

Equivalent method on ndarray object.

numpy.reshape

Equivalent function in the NumPy module.

Notes

The reshaping operation cannot guarantee that a copy will not be made, to modify the shape in place, use a.shape = s

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]], mask=[1, 0, 0, 1])
>>> x
masked_array(
    data=[[-- 2],
          [3 --]],
    mask=[[ True False],
           [False  True]],
    fill_value=999999)
>>> x = x.reshape((4,1))
>>> x
masked_array(
    data=[[--],
          [2],
          [--],
          [4]],
    mask=[[ True],
           [False],
           [ True],
           [False]],
    fill_value=999999)
```
method

ma.MaskedArray.resize (newshape, refcheck=True, order=False)

Warning: This method does nothing, except raise a ValueError exception. A masked array does not own its data and therefore cannot safely be resized in place. Use the numpy.ma.resize function instead.

This method is difficult to implement safely and may be deprecated in future releases of NumPy.

method

ma.MaskedArray.squeeze (axis=None)

Remove axes of length one from a.

Refer to numpy.squeeze for full documentation.

See also:
	numpy.squeeze
equivalent function

method

ma.MaskedArray.swapaxes (axis1, axis2)

Return a view of the array with axis1 and axis2 interchanged.

Refer to numpy.swapaxes for full documentation.

See also:
	numpy.swapaxes
equivalent function

method

ma.MaskedArray.transpose (*axes)

Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.

For a 1-D array this has no effect, as a transposed vector is simply the same vector. To convert a 1-D array into a 2D column vector, an additional dimension must be added. np.atleast2d(a).T achieves this, as does a[:, np.newaxis]. For a 2-D array, this is a standard matrix transpose. For an n-D array, if axes are given, their order indicates how the axes are permuted (see Examples). If axes are not provided and a.shape = (i[0], i[1], ... i[n-2], i[n-1]), then a.transpose().shape = (i[n-1], i[n-2], ... i[1], i[0]).

Parameters
axes

[None, tuple of ints, or n ints]

- None or no argument: reverses the order of the axes.
- tuple of ints: i in the j-th place in the tuple means a’s i-th axis becomes a.transpose()’s j-th axis.
- n ints: same as an n-tuple of the same ints (this form is intended simply as a “convenience” alternative to the tuple form)

Returns

out

[ndarray] View of a, with axes suitably permuted.

See also:

transpose

Equivalent function

ndarray.T

Array property returning the array transposed.

ndarray.reshape

Give a new shape to an array without changing its data.

Examples

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

property

property ma.MaskedArray.T

The transposed array.

Same as self.transpose().

See also:

transpose
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1., 2.], [3., 4.]])
>>> x
array([[ 1.,  2.],
       [ 3.,  4.]])
>>> x.T
array([[ 1.,  3.],
       [ 2.,  4.]])
>>> x = np.array([1., 2., 3., 4.])
>>> x
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.,  4.])
>>> x.T
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.,  4.])
```

Item selection and manipulation

For array methods that take an `axis` keyword, it defaults to None. If axis is None, then the array is treated as a 1-D array. Any other value for `axis` represents the dimension along which the operation should proceed.

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Method

```python
ma.MaskedArray.argmax(axis=None, fill_value=None, out=None)
```

Returns array of indices of the maximum values along the given axis. Masked values are treated as if they had the value `fill_value`.

Parameters

axis

[[None, integer]] If None, the index is into the flattened array, otherwise along the specified
axis

fill_value
[scalar or None, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values. If None, the output of
maximum_fill_value(self._data) is used instead.

out
[[None, array], optional] Array into which the result can be placed. Its type is preserved and
it must be of the right shape to hold the output.

Returns

index_array
[[integer_array]]

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3)
>>> a.argmax()
5
>>> a.argmax(0)
array([1, 1, 1])
>>> a.argmax(1)
array([2, 2])
```

ma.MaskedArray.argmin (axis=None, fill_value=None, out=None)

Return array of indices to the minimum values along the given axis.

Parameters

axis
[[None, integer]] If None, the index is into the flattened array, otherwise along the specified
axis

fill_value
[scalar or None, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values. If None, the output of
minimum_fill_value(self._data) is used instead.

out
[[None, array], optional] Array into which the result can be placed. Its type is preserved and
it must be of the right shape to hold the output.

Returns

ndarray or scalar
If multi-dimension input, returns a new ndarray of indices to the minimum values along the
given axis. Otherwise, returns a scalar of index to the minimum values along the given axis.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array(np.arange(4), mask=[1,1,0,0])
>>> x.shape = (2,2)
>>> x
masked_array(
    data=[[--, --],
           [2, 3]],
    mask=[[ True,  True],
           [False, False]],
    fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> x.argmin(axis=0, fill_value=-1)
array([0, 0])
```

```python
>>> x.argmin(axis=0, fill_value=9)
array([1, 1])
```

**method**

`ma.MaskedArray.argsort (axis=<no value>, kind=None, order=None, endwith=True, fill_value=None)`

Return an ndarray of indices that sort the array along the specified axis. Masked values are filled beforehand to `fill_value`.

**Parameters**

- **axis**
  
  [int, optional] Axis along which to sort. If None, the default, the flattened array is used.

  Changed in version 1.13.0: Previously, the default was documented to be -1, but that was in error. At some future date, the default will change to -1, as originally intended. Until then, the axis should be given explicitly when `arr.ndim > 1`, to avoid a `FutureWarning`.

- **kind**
  

- **order**
  
  [list, optional] When `a` is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. Not all fields need be specified.

- **endwith**
  
  [True, False], optional] Whether missing values (if any) should be treated as the largest values (True) or the smallest values (False) When the array contains unmasked values at the same extremes of the datatype, the ordering of these values and the masked values is undefined.

- **fill_value**
  
  [scalar or None, optional] Value used internally for the masked values. If `fill_value` is not None, it supersedes `endwith`.

**Returns**

- **index_array**
  
  [ndarray, int] Array of indices that sort `a` along the specified axis. In other words, `a[index_array]` yields a sorted `a`.

**See also:**
**NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0**

```python
ma.MaskedArray.sort

Describes sorting algorithms used.

**lexsort**

Indirect stable sort with multiple keys.

**numpy.ndarray.sort**

Inplace sort.

**Notes**

See `sort` for notes on the different sorting algorithms.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([3, 2, 1], mask=[False, False, True])
>>> a
masked_array(data=[3, 2, --],
             mask=[False, False, True],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> a.argsort()
array([1, 0, 2])
```

**method**

**ma.MaskedArray.choose (choices, out=None, mode='raise')**

Use an index array to construct a new array from a set of choices.

Refer to `numpy.choose` for full documentation.

**See also:**

**numpy.choose**

equivalent function

**method**

**ma.MaskedArray.compress (condition, axis=None, out=None)**

Return `a` where condition is **True**.

If condition is a **MaskedArray**, missing values are considered as **False**.

**Parameters**

**condition**

[var] Boolean 1-d array selecting which entries to return. If len(condition) is less than the size of `a` along the axis, then output is truncated to length of condition array.

**axis**

[[None, int], optional] Axis along which the operation must be performed.

**out**

[[None, ndarray], optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output but the type will be cast if necessary.
Returns

result

[MaskedArray] A MaskedArray object.

Notes

Please note the difference with compressed! The output of compress has a mask, the output of compressed does not.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]], mask=[0] + [1, 0]*4)
>>> x
masked_array(data=[[1, --, 3],
                  [4, 5, --],
                  [7, --, 9]],
             mask=[[False, True, False],
                   [True, False, True],
                   [False, True, False]],
             fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> x.compress([1, 0, 1])
masked_array(data=[1, 3],
             mask=[False, False],
             fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> x.compress([1, 0, 1], axis=1)
masked_array(data=[[1, 3],
                   [--, --],
                   [7, 9]],
             mask=[[False, False],
                   [True, True],
                   [False, False]],
             fill_value=999999)
```

method

ma.MaskedArray.diagonal(offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1)

Return specified diagonals. In NumPy 1.9 the returned array is a read-only view instead of a copy as in previous NumPy versions. In a future version the read-only restriction will be removed.

Refer to numpy.diagonal for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.diagonal
equivalent function

method

ma.MaskedArray.fill(value)

Fill the array with a scalar value.
Parameters

value

[scalar] All elements of a will be assigned this value.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2]])
>>> a.fill(0)
>>> a
array([0, 0])
>>> a = np.empty(2)
>>> a.fill(1)
>>> a
array([1., 1.])
```

method

`ma.MaskedArray.item(*args)`

Copy an element of an array to a standard Python scalar and return it.

Parameters

*args

[Arguments (variable number and type)]

- none: in this case, the method only works for arrays with one element (a.size == 1), which element is copied into a standard Python scalar object and returned.
- int_type: this argument is interpreted as a flat index into the array, specifying which element to copy and return.
- tuple of int_types: functions as does a single int_type argument, except that the argument is interpreted as an nd-index into the array.

Returns

z

[Standard Python scalar object] A copy of the specified element of the array as a suitable Python scalar

Notes

When the data type of a is longdouble or clongdouble, item() returns a scalar array object because there is no available Python scalar that would not lose information. Void arrays return a buffer object for item(), unless fields are defined, in which case a tuple is returned.

item is very similar to a[args], except, instead of an array scalar, a standard Python scalar is returned. This can be useful for speeding up access to elements of the array and doing arithmetic on elements of the array using Python's optimized math.
Examples

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> x = np.random.randint(9, size=(3, 3))
>>> x
array([[2, 2, 6],
       [1, 3, 6],
       [1, 0, 1]])
>>> x.item(3)
1
>>> x.item(7)
0
>>> x.item((0, 1))
2
>>> x.item((2, 2))
1
```

method

`ma.MaskedArray.nonzero()`

Return the indices of unmasked elements that are not zero.

Returns a tuple of arrays, one for each dimension, containing the indices of the non-zero elements in that dimension. The corresponding non-zero values can be obtained with:

```python
a[a.nonzero()]
```

To group the indices by element, rather than dimension, use instead:

```python
np.transpose(a.nonzero())
```

The result of this is always a 2d array, with a row for each non-zero element.

Parameters

None

Returns

`tuple_of_arrays`

[tuple] Indices of elements that are non-zero.

See also:

`numpy.nonzero`

Function operating on ndarrays.

`flatnonzero`

Return indices that are non-zero in the flattened version of the input array.

`numpy.ndarray.nonzero`

Equivalent ndarray method.

`count_nonzero`

Counts the number of non-zero elements in the input array.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> x = ma.array(np.eye(3))
>>> x
masked_array(
    data=[[1., 0., 0.],
          [0., 1., 0.],
          [0., 0., 1.]],
    mask=False,
    fill_value=1e+20)
>>> x.nonzero()
(array([0, 1, 2]), array([0, 1, 2]))
```

Masked elements are ignored.

```python
>>> x[1, 1] = ma.masked
>>> x
masked_array(
    data=[[1.0, 0.0, 0.0],
          [0.0, --, 0.0],
          [0.0, 0.0, 1.0]],
    mask=[[False, False, False],
          [False, True, False],
          [False, False, False]],
    fill_value=1e+20)
>>> x.nonzero()
(array([0, 2]), array([0, 2]))
```

Indices can also be grouped by element.

```python
>>> np.transpose(x.nonzero())
array([[0, 0],
       [2, 2]])
```

A common use for `nonzero` is to find the indices of an array, where a condition is True. Given an array `a`, the condition `a > 3` is a boolean array and since False is interpreted as 0, `ma.nonzero(a > 3)` yields the indices of the `a` where the condition is true.

```python
>>> a = ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]])
>>> a > 3
masked_array(
    data=[[False, False, False],
          [ True, True, True],
          [ True, True, True]],
    mask=False,
    fill_value=True)
>>> ma.nonzero(a > 3)
(array([1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2]), array([0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2]))
```

The `nonzero` method of the condition array can also be called.

```python
>>> (a > 3).nonzero()
(array([1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2]), array([0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2]))
```
ma.MaskedArray.put (indices, values, mode='raise')

Set storage-indexed locations to corresponding values.

Sets self._data.flat[n] = values[n] for each n in indices. If values is shorter than indices then it will repeat. If values has some masked values, the initial mask is updated in consequence, else the corresponding values are unmasked.

Parameters

indices

[1-D array_like] Target indices, interpreted as integers.

values

[array_like] Values to place in self._data copy at target indices.

mode


Notes

values can be a scalar or length 1 array.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]], mask=0 + [1, 0]*4)
>>> x
masked_array(data=[[1, --, 3],
                   [--, 5, --],
                   [7, --, 9]],
               mask=[[False, True, False],
                     [ True, False, True],
                     [False, True, False]],
          fill_value=999999)
>>> x.put((0, 4, 8), [10, 20, 30])
>>> x
masked_array(data=[[10, --, 3],
                   [--, 20, --],
                   [7, --, 30]],
               mask=[[False, True, False],
                     [ True, False, True],
                     [False, True, False]],
          fill_value=999999)
```
method

```
[False, True, False],
fill_value=999999)
```

ma.MaskedArray.repeat (repeats, axis=None)

Repeat elements of an array.

Refer to `numpy.repeat` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.repeat` equivalent function

method

ma.MaskedArray.searchsorted (v, side='left', sorter=None)

Find indices where elements of `v` should be inserted in `a` to maintain order.

For full documentation, see `numpy.searchsorted`

See also:

`numpy.searchsorted` equivalent function

method

ma.MaskedArray.sort (axis=-1, kind=None, order=None, endwith=True, fill_value=None)

Sort the array, in-place

Parameters

- `a`
  - array_like: Array to be sorted.
- `axis`
  - int, optional: Axis along which to sort. If None, the array is flattened before sorting. The default is -1, which sorts along the last axis.
- `kind`
- `order`
  - list, optional: When `a` is a structured array, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, and so on. This list does not need to include all of the fields.
- `endwith`
  - {True, False}, optional: Whether missing values (if any) should be treated as the largest values (True) or the smallest values (False) When the array contains unmasked values sorting at the same extremes of the datatype, the ordering of these values and the masked values is undefined.
fill_value
[scalar or None, optional] Value used internally for the masked values. If fill_value is not None, it supersedes endwith.

Returns

sorted_array
[ndarray] Array of the same type and shape as a.

See also:

numpy.ndarray.sort
Method to sort an array in-place.

argsort
Indirect sort.

lexsort
Indirect stable sort on multiple keys.

searchsorted
Find elements in a sorted array.

Notes

See sort for notes on the different sorting algorithms.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([1, 2, 5, 4, 3], mask=[0, 1, 0, 1, 0])
>>> # Default
>>> a.sort()
>>> a
masked_array(data=[1, 3, 5, --, --],
        mask=[False, False, False, True, True],
       fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([1, 2, 5, 4, 3], mask=[0, 1, 0, 1, 0])
>>> # Put missing values in the front
>>> a.sort(terminal=False)
>>> a
masked_array(data=[--, --, 1, 3, 5],
        mask=[ True, True, False, False, False],
       fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([1, 2, 5, 4, 3], mask=[0, 1, 0, 1, 0])
>>> # fill_value takes over endwith
>>> a.sort(terminal=False, fill_value=3)
>>> a
masked_array(data=[1, --, --, 3, 5],
        mask=[False, False, False, True, True],
       fill_value=3)
```
method
\[
ma.MaskedArray.take(indices, axis=None, out=None, mode='raise')
\]

Pickling and copy

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<td>\texttt{MaskedArray.dumps()}</td>
<td>Returns the pickle of the array as a string.</td>
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method
\[
ma.MaskedArray.copy(order='C')
\]
Return a copy of the array.

**Parameters**

**order**

\{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K', optional\} Controls the memory layout of the copy. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ if \(a\) is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means match the layout of \(a\) as closely as possible. (Note that this function and \texttt{numpy.copy} are very similar but have different default values for their order= arguments, and this function always passes sub-classes through.)

**See also:**

\texttt{numpy.copy}

Similar function with different default behavior

\texttt{numpy.copyto}

**Notes**

This function is the preferred method for creating an array copy. The function \texttt{numpy.copy} is similar, but it defaults to using order ‘K’, and will not pass sub-classes through by default.

**Examples**

\begin{verbatim}
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], order='F')

>>> y = x.copy()

>>> x.fill(0)
\end{verbatim}
>>> x
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])

>>> y
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])

>>> y.flags['C_CONTIGUOUS']
True

method

ma.MaskedArray.dump(file)

Dump a pickle of the array to the specified file. The array can be read back with pickle.load or numpy.load.

Parameters

file

[str or Path] A string naming the dump file.

Changed in version 1.17.0: pathlib.Path objects are now accepted.

method

ma.MaskedArray.dumps()

Returns the pickle of the array as a string. pickle.loads or numpy.loads will convert the string back to an array.

Parameters

None

Calculations

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<td>MaskedArray.cumprod(axis, dtype, out)</td>
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<td>Return the cumulative sum of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
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<td>MaskedArray.max(axis, fill_value, ...)</td>
<td>Return the maximum along a given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.mean(axis, dtype, out, keepdims)</td>
<td>Returns the average of the array elements along given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.min(axis, fill_value, ...)</td>
<td>Return the minimum along a given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.prod(axis, dtype, out, keepdims)</td>
<td>Return the product of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
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<td>Return each element rounded to the given number of decimals.</td>
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<td>Return the standard deviation of the array elements along given axis.</td>
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<td><code>MaskedArray.sum()</code></td>
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<td><code>MaskedArray.var()</code></td>
<td>Compute the variance along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Method

`ma.MaskedArray.all` (axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)

Returns True if all elements evaluate to True.

The output array is masked where all the values along the given axis are masked: if the output would have been a scalar and that all the values are masked, then the output is masked.

Refer to `numpy.all` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.ndarray.all`

corresponding function for ndarrays

`numpy.all`

equivalent function

Examples

```python
>>> np.ma.array([[1,2,3]]).all()
True
>>> a = np.ma.array([[1,2,3], mask=True)
>>> (a.all() is np.ma.masked)
True
```

Method

`ma.MaskedArray.anom` (axis=None, dtype=None)

Compute the anomalies (deviations from the arithmetic mean) along the given axis.

Returns an array of anomalies, with the same shape as the input and where the arithmetic mean is computed along the given axis.

Parameters

axis

[int, optional] Axis over which the anomalies are taken. The default is to use the mean of the flattened array as reference.

dtype

[dtype, optional]
Type to use in computing the variance. For arrays of integer type
the default is float32; for arrays of float types it is the same as the array type.

See also:

mean

Compute the mean of the array.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> a.anom()
masked_array(data=[-1.,  0.,  1.],
               mask=False,
               fill_value=1e+20)
```

method

`ma.MaskedArray.any (axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)`

Returns True if any of the elements of `a` evaluate to True.

Masked values are considered as False during computation.

Refer to `numpy.any` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.ndarray.any`

corresponding function for ndarrays

`numpy.any`

equivalent function

method

`ma.MaskedArray.clip (min=None, max=None, out=None, **kwargs)`

Return an array whose values are limited to `[min, max]`. One of max or min must be given.

Refer to `numpy.clip` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.clip`

equivalent function

method

`ma.MaskedArray.conj()`

Complex-conjugate all elements.

Refer to `numpy.conjugate` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.conjugate`

equivalent function
method

ma.MaskedArray.conjugate()

Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.

Refer to `numpy.conjugate` for full documentation.

See also:

- `numpy.conjugate`
  equivalent function

method

ma.MaskedArray.cumprod(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the cumulative product of the array elements over the given axis.

Masked values are set to 1 internally during the computation. However, their position is saved, and the result will be masked at the same locations.

Refer to `numpy.cumprod` for full documentation.

See also:

- `numpy.ndarray.cumprod`
  corresponding function for ndarrays
- `numpy.cumprod`
  equivalent function

Notes

The mask is lost if `out` is not a valid MaskedArray!

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow.

method

ma.MaskedArray.cumsum(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the cumulative sum of the array elements over the given axis.

Masked values are set to 0 internally during the computation. However, their position is saved, and the result will be masked at the same locations.

Refer to `numpy.cumsum` for full documentation.

See also:

- `numpy.ndarray.cumsum`
  corresponding function for ndarrays
- `numpy.cumsum`
  equivalent function
Notes

The mask is lost if `out` is not a valid `ma.MaskedArray`!

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow.

Examples

```python
>>> marr = ma.array(np.arange(10), mask=[0,0,0,1,1,0,0,0,0,0])
>>> marr.cumsum()
masked_array(data=[0, 1, 3, --, --, --, 9, 16, 24, 33],
            mask=[False, False, False, True, True, True, False, False, False, False],
            fill_value=999999)
```

`ma.MaskedArray.max` *(axis=None, out=None, fill_value=None, keepdims=None)*

Return the maximum along a given axis.

Parameters

- **axis**
  
  [[None, int], optional] Axis along which to operate. By default, `axis` is None and the flattened input is used.

- **out**
  
  [array_like, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. Must be of the same shape and buffer length as the expected output.

- **fill_value**
  
  [scalar or None, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values. If None, use the output of `maximum_fill_value()`.

- **keepdims**
  
  [bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the array.

Returns

- **amax**
  
  [array_like] New array holding the result. If `out` was specified, `out` is returned.

See also:

- `ma.maximum_fill_value`

  Returns the maximum filling value for a given datatype.

method

`ma.MaskedArray.mean` *(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)*

Returns the average of the array elements along given axis.

Masked entries are ignored, and result elements which are not finite will be masked.
Refer to *numpy.mean* for full documentation.

See also:

*numpy.ndarray.mean*

corresponding function for ndarrays

*numpy.mean*

Equivalent function

*numpy.ma.average*

Weighted average.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([1, 2, 3], mask=[False, False, True])
>>> a
masked_array(data=[1, 2, --],
             mask=[False, False, True],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> a.mean()
1.5
```

**method**

`ma.MaskedArray.min(axis=None, out=None, fill_value=None, keepdims=<no value>)`

Return the minimum along a given axis.

**Parameters**

axis

[(None, int), optional] Axis along which to operate. By default, `axis` is None and the flattened input is used.

out

[array_like, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. Must be of the same shape and buffer length as the expected output.

fill_value

[scalar or None, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values. If None, use the output of `minimum_fill_value`.

keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the array.

**Returns**

amin

[array_like] New array holding the result. If `out` was specified, `out` is returned.

See also:
**ma.minimum_fill_value**

Returns the minimum filling value for a given datatype.

method

`ma.MaskedArray.prod(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=None)`

Return the product of the array elements over the given axis.

Masked elements are set to 1 internally for computation.

Refer to `numpy.prod` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.ndarray.prod`

corresponding function for ndarrays

`numpy.prod`

equivalent function

**Notes**

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow.

method

`ma.MaskedArray.product(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=None)`

Return the product of the array elements over the given axis.

Masked elements are set to 1 internally for computation.

Refer to `numpy.prod` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.ndarray.prod`

corresponding function for ndarrays

`numpy.prod`

equivalent function

**Notes**

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow.

method

`ma.MaskedArray.ptp(axis=None, out=None, fill_value=None, keepdims=False)`

Return (maximum - minimum) along the given dimension (i.e. peak-to-peak value).

**Warning:** `ptp` preserves the data type of the array. This means the return value for an input of signed integers with n bits (e.g. `np.int8`, `np.int16`, etc) is also a signed integer with n bits. In that case, peak-to-peak values greater than \(2^{n-1}-1\) will be returned as negative values. An example with a work-around is shown below.
Parameters

axis

[[None, int], optional] Axis along which to find the peaks. If None (default) the flattened array is used.

out

[[None, array_like], optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output but the type will be cast if necessary.

fill_value

[scalar or None, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values.

keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the array.

Returns

ptp

[ndarray.] A new array holding the result, unless out was specified, in which case a reference to out is returned.

Examples

```python
def f(x):
    y = x * x + 1
    return y

x = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5])
x = f(x)
x = np.ma.array(x, mask=[False, False, True, False, False])
```

```python
def f(x):
    y = x * x + 1
    return y

x = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5])
x = np.ma.array(x, mask=[False, False, True, False, False])
```
A work-around is to use the `view()` method to view the result as unsigned integers with the same bit width:

```python
>>> y.ptp(axis=1).view(np.uint8)
masked_array(data=[126, 127, 128, 129],
          mask=False,
          fill_value=999999,
          dtype=uint8)
```

**method**

`ma.MaskedArray.round`(decimals=0, out=None)

Return each element rounded to the given number of decimals.

Refer to `numpy.around` for full documentation.

See also:

- `numpy.ndarray.round`
  - corresponding function for ndarrays
- `numpy.around`
  - equivalent function

**method**

`ma.MaskedArray.std`(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=<no value>)

Returns the standard deviation of the array elements along given axis.

Masked entries are ignored.

Refer to `numpy.std` for full documentation.

See also:

- `numpy.ndarray.std`
  - corresponding function for ndarrays
- `numpy.std`
  - Equivalent function

**method**

`ma.MaskedArray.sum`(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)

Return the sum of the array elements over the given axis.

Masked elements are set to 0 internally.

Refer to `numpy.sum` for full documentation.

See also:

- `numpy.ndarray.sum`
  - corresponding function for ndarrays
- `numpy.sum`
  - equivalent function
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]], mask=[0] + [1,0]*4)
>>> x
masked_array(
    data=[[1, --, 3],
          [--, 5, --],
          [7, --, 9]],
    mask=[[False, True, False],
          [ True, False, True],
          [False, True, False]],
    fill_value=999999)
>>> x.sum()
25
>>> x.sum(axis=1)
masked_array(data=[4, 5, 16],
             mask=[[False, False, False],
                   [False, False, False]],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> x.sum(axis=0)
masked_array(data=[8, 5, 12],
             mask=[[False, False, False]],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> print(type(x.sum(axis=0, dtype=np.int64)[0]))
<class 'numpy.int64'>
```

method

`ma.MaskedArray.trace(offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1, dtype=None, out=None)`

Return the sum along diagonals of the array.

Refer to `numpy.trace` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.trace`

equivalent function

method

`ma.MaskedArray.var(axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=<no value>)`

Compute the variance along the specified axis.

Returns the variance of the array elements, a measure of the spread of a distribution. The variance is computed for the flattened array by default, otherwise over the specified axis.

Parameters

- `a`
  
  [array_like] Array containing numbers whose variance is desired. If `a` is not an array, a conversion is attempted.

- `axis`
  
  [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which the variance is computed. The default is to compute the variance of the flattened array.

New in version 1.7.0.
If this is a tuple of ints, a variance is performed over multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

**dtype**

[data-type, optional] Type to use in computing the variance. For arrays of integer type the default is float64; for arrays of float types it is the same as the array type.

**out**

[ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type is cast if necessary.

**ddof**

[int, optional] “Delta Degrees of Freedom”: the divisor used in the calculation is \( N - ddof \), where \( N \) represents the number of elements. By default \( ddof \) is zero.

**keepdims**

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

If the default value is passed, then keepdims will not be passed through to the var method of sub-classes of ndarray, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class' method does not implement keepdims any exceptions will be raised.

**where**

[array_like of bool, optional] Elements to include in the variance. See reduce for details.

New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

**variance**

[ndarray, see dtype parameter above] If out=None, returns a new array containing the variance; otherwise, a reference to the output array is returned.

**See also:**

std, mean, nanmean, nanstd, nanvar

**Output type determination**

**Notes**

The variance is the average of the squared deviations from the mean, i.e., \( var = mean(x) \), where \( x = abs(a - a.mean())**2 \).

The mean is typically calculated as \( x.sum() / N \), where \( N = len(x) \). If, however, \( ddof \) is specified, the divisor \( N - ddof \) is used instead. In standard statistical practice, \( ddof=1 \) provides an unbiased estimator of the variance of a hypothetical infinite population. \( ddof=0 \) provides a maximum likelihood estimate of the variance for normally distributed variables.

Note that for complex numbers, the absolute value is taken before squaring, so that the result is always real and nonnegative.
For floating-point input, the variance is computed using the same precision the input has. Depending on the input data, this can cause the results to be inaccurate, especially for float32 (see example below). Specifying a higher-accuracy accumulator using the dtype keyword can alleviate this issue.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> np.var(a)
1.25
>>> np.var(a, axis=0)
array([1., 1.])
>>> np.var(a, axis=1)
array([0.25, 0.25])
```

In single precision, var() can be inaccurate:

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((2, 512*512), dtype=np.float32)
>>> a[0, :] = 1.0
>>> a[1, :] = 0.1
>>> np.var(a)
0.20250003

Computing the variance in float64 is more accurate:

```python
>>> np.var(a, dtype=np.float64)
0.20249999932944759 # may vary
>>> ((1-0.55)**2 + (0.1-0.55)**2)/2
0.2025
```

Specifying a where argument:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[14, 8, 11, 10], [7, 9, 10, 11], [10, 15, 5, 10]])
>>> np.var(a)
6.833333333333333 # may vary
>>> np.var(a, where=[[True], [True], [False]])
4.0
```

Arithmetic and comparison operations

Comparison operators:

```
Method
MaskedArray.__lt__(value,/) Return self<value.
MaskedArray.__le__(value,/) Return self<=value.
MaskedArray.__gt__(value,/) Return self>value.
MaskedArray.__ge__(value,/) Return self>=value.
MaskedArray.__eq__(other) Check whether other equals self elementwise.
MaskedArray.__ne__(other) Check whether other does not equal self elementwise.
```

method
ma.MaskedArray.__lt__(value,/) Return self<value.
method
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

```
ma.MaskedArray.__le__(value, /)
    Return self<=value.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__gt__(value, /)
    Return self>value.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__ge__(value, /)
    Return self>=value.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__eq__(other)
    Check whether other equals self elementwise.
    When either of the elements is masked, the result is masked as well, but the underlying boolean data are still set, with self and other considered equal if both are masked, and unequal otherwise.
    For structured arrays, all fields are combined, with masked values ignored. The result is masked if all fields were masked, with self and other considered equal only if both were fully masked.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__ne__(other)
    Check whether other does not equal self elementwise.
    When either of the elements is masked, the result is masked as well, but the underlying boolean data are still set, with self and other considered equal if both are masked, and unequal otherwise.
    For structured arrays, all fields are combined, with masked values ignored. The result is masked if all fields were masked, with self and other considered equal only if both were fully masked.

Truth value of an array (bool()):

```

MaskedArray.__bool__(/)
    self != 0

method

ma.MaskedArray.__bool__(/)
    self != 0

Arithmetic:

```

MaskedArray.__abs__(self)

MaskedArray.__add__(other)       Add self to other, and return a new masked array.
MaskedArray.__radd__(other)      Add other to self, and return a new masked array.
MaskedArray.__sub__(other)       Subtract other from self, and return a new masked array.
MaskedArray.__rsub__(other)      Subtract self from other, and return a new masked array.
MaskedArray.__mul__(other)       Multiply self by other, and return a new masked array.
MaskedArray.__rmul__(other)      Multiply other by self, and return a new masked array.
MaskedArray.__div__(other)       Divide other into self, and return a new masked array.
MaskedArray.__truediv__(other)   Divide other into self, and return a new masked array.
MaskedArray.__rtruediv__(other)  Divide self into other, and return a new masked array.
MaskedArray.__floordiv__(other)  Divide self into other, and return a new masked array.
MaskedArray.__rfloordiv__(other) Divide other into self, and return a new masked array.
```

continues on next page
Table 60 – continued from previous page

```
MaskedArray.__mod__(value,/)  Return self % value.

MaskedArray.__rmod__(value,/)  Return value % self.

MaskedArray.__divmod__(value,/)  Return divmod(self, value).

MaskedArray.__rdivmod__(value,/)  Return divmod(value, self).

MaskedArray.__pow__(other)  Raise self to the power other, masking the potential NaNs/Infs

MaskedArray.__rpow__(other)  Raise other to the power self, masking the potential NaNs/Infs

MaskedArray.__lshift__(value,/)  Return self << value.

MaskedArray.__rlshift__(value,/)  Return value << self.

MaskedArray.__rshift__(value,/)  Return self >> value.

MaskedArray.__rrshift__(value,/)  Return value >> self.

MaskedArray.__and__(value,/)  Return self & value.

MaskedArray.__rand__(value,/)  Return value & self.

MaskedArray.__or__(value,/)  Return self | value.

MaskedArray.__ror__(value,/)  Return value | self.

MaskedArray.__xor__(value,/)  Return self ^ value.

MaskedArray.__rxor__(value,/)  Return value ^ self.
```

method

```
ma.MaskedArray.__abs__(self)
```

method

```
ma.MaskedArray.__add__(other)
  Add self to other, and return a new masked array.
```

method

```
ma.MaskedArray.__radd__(other)
  Add other to self, and return a new masked array.
```

method

```
ma.MaskedArray.__sub__(other)
  Subtract other from self, and return a new masked array.
```

method

```
ma.MaskedArray.__rsub__(other)
  Subtract self from other, and return a new masked array.
```

method

```
ma.MaskedArray.__mul__(other)
  Multiply self by other, and return a new masked array.
```

method

```
ma.MaskedArray.__rmul__(other)
  Multiply other by self, and return a new masked array.
```

method

```
ma.MaskedArray.__div__(other)
  Divide other into self, and return a new masked array.
```

method
ma.MaskedArray.__truediv__(other)
    Divide other into self, and return a new masked array.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__rtruediv__(other)
    Divide self into other, and return a new masked array.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__floordiv__(other)
    Divide other into self, and return a new masked array.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__rfloordiv__(other)
    Divide self into other, and return a new masked array.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__mod__(value, /)
    Return self%value.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__rmod__(value, /)
    Return value%self.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__divmod__(value, /)
    Return divmod(self, value).

method

ma.MaskedArray.__rdivmod__(value, /)
    Return divmod(value, self).

method

ma.MaskedArray.__pow__(other)
    Raise self to the power other, masking the potential NaNs/Infs

method

ma.MaskedArray.__rpow__(other)
    Raise other to the power self, masking the potential NaNs/Infs

method

ma.MaskedArray.__lshift__(value, /)
    Return self«value.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__rlshift__(value, /)
    Return value«self.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__rshift__(value, /)
    Return self»value.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__rrshift__(value, /)
    Return value»self.
method

ma.MaskedArray.__and__(value, /)
    Return self&value.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__rand__(value, /)
    Return value&self.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__or__(value, /)
    Return self|value.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__ror__(value, /)
    Return value|self.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__xor__(value, /)
    Return self^value.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__rxor__(value, /)
    Return value^self.

Arithmetic, in-place:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>iadd</strong></td>
<td>Add other to self in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>isub</strong></td>
<td>Subtract other from self in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>imul</strong></td>
<td>Multiply self by other in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>idiv</strong></td>
<td>Divide self by other in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>itruediv</strong></td>
<td>True divide self by other in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ifloordiv</strong></td>
<td>Floor divide self by other in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>imod</strong></td>
<td>Return self %= value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ipow</strong></td>
<td>Raise self to the power other, in place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ilshift</strong></td>
<td>Return self «= value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>irshift</strong></td>
<td>Return self »= value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>iand</strong></td>
<td>Return self &amp;= value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ior</strong></td>
<td>Return self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ixor</strong></td>
<td>Return self ^= value.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

method

ma.MaskedArray.__iadd__(other)
    Add other to self in-place.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__isub__(other)
    Subtract other from self in-place.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__imul__(other)
    Multiply self by other in-place.
ma.MaskedArray.__idiv__(other)
    Divide self by other in-place.

method
ma.MaskedArray.__itruediv__(other)
    True divide self by other in-place.

method
ma.MaskedArray.__ifloordiv__(other)
    Floor divide self by other in-place.

method
ma.MaskedArray.__imod__(value, /)
    Return self %= value.

method
ma.MaskedArray.__ipow__(other)
    Raise self to the power other, in place.

method
ma.MaskedArray.__ilshift__(value, /)
    Return self <<= value.

method
ma.MaskedArray.__irshift__(value, /)
    Return self >>= value.

method
ma.MaskedArray.__iand__(value, /)
    Return self &= value.

method
ma.MaskedArray.__ior__(value, /)
    Return self |= value.

method
ma.MaskedArray.__ixor__(value, /)
    Return self ^= value.

Representation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.<strong>repr</strong>()</td>
<td>Literal string representation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.<strong>str</strong>()</td>
<td>Return str(self).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.ids()</td>
<td>Return the addresses of the data and mask areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.iscontiguous()</td>
<td>Return a boolean indicating whether the data is contiguous.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

method
ma.MaskedArray.__repr__()  
    Literal string representation.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

ma.MaskedArray.__str__()  
    Return str(self).

method

ma.MaskedArray.ids()  
    Return the addresses of the data and mask areas.

    Parameters

    None

Examples

>>> x = np.ma.array([1, 2, 3], mask=[0, 1, 1])
>>> x.ids()
(166670640, 166659832) # may vary

If the array has no mask, the address of nomask is returned. This address is typically not close to the data in memory:

>>> x = np.ma.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> x.ids()
(166691080, 3083169284) # may vary

method

ma.MaskedArray.iscontiguous()  
    Return a boolean indicating whether the data is contiguous.

    Parameters

    None

Examples

>>> x = np.ma.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> x.iscontiguous()
True

iscontiguous returns one of the flags of the masked array:

>>> x.flags
    C_CONTIGUOUS : True
    F_CONTIGUOUS : True
    OWNDATA : False
    WRITEABLE : True
    ALIGNED : True
    WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
    UPDATEIFCOPY : False
Special methods

For standard library functions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>MaskedArray.__copy__()</code></td>
<td>Used if <code>copy.copy</code> is called on an array. Returns a copy of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>MaskedArray.__deepcopy__(memo, /)</code></td>
<td>Used if <code>copy.deepcopy</code> is called on an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>MaskedArray.__getstate__()</code></td>
<td>Return the internal state of the masked array, for pickling purposes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>MaskedArray.__reduce__()</code></td>
<td>Return a 3-tuple for pickling a MaskedArray.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>MaskedArray.__setstate__(state)</code></td>
<td>Restore the internal state of the masked array, for pickling purposes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

method

ma.MaskedArray.__copy__()

Used if `copy.copy` is called on an array. Returns a copy of the array.

Equivalent to `a.copy(order='K')`.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__deepcopy__(memo, /) → Deep copy of array.

Used if `copy.deepcopy` is called on an array.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__getstate__()

Return the internal state of the masked array, for pickling purposes.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__reduce__()

Return a 3-tuple for pickling a MaskedArray.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__setstate__(state)

Restore the internal state of the masked array, for pickling purposes. `state` is typically the output of the `__getstate__` output, and is a 5-tuple:

- class name
- a tuple giving the shape of the data
- a typecode for the data
- a binary string for the data
- a binary string for the mask.

Basic customization:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>MaskedArray.__new__([cls], data, mask, ...)</code></td>
<td>Create a new masked array from scratch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>MaskedArray.__array__(dtype, /)</code></td>
<td>Returns either a new reference to self if <code>dtype</code> is not given or a new array of provided data type if <code>dtype</code> is different from the current dtype of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>MaskedArray.__array_wrap__(obj, context)</code></td>
<td>Special hook for ufuncs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

method
static ma.MaskedArray.__new__(cls, data=None, mask=False, dtype=None, copy=False, subok=True, ndmin=0, fill_value=None, keep_mask=True, hard_mask=None, shrink=True, order=None)

Create a new masked array from scratch.

Notes

A masked array can also be created by taking a .view(MaskedArray).

method

ma.MaskedArray.__array__([dtype], /) → reference if type unchanged, copy otherwise.
Returns either a new reference to self if dtype is not given or a new array of provided data type if dtype is different from the current dtype of the array.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__array_wrap__(obj, context=None)

Special hook for ufuncs.
Wraps the numpy array and sets the mask according to context.

Container customization: (see Indexing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.<strong>len</strong>(/)</td>
<td>Return len(self).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.<strong>getitem</strong>(indx)</td>
<td>x.<strong>getitem</strong>(y) &lt;==&gt; x[y]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.<strong>setitem</strong>(indx, value)</td>
<td>x.<strong>setitem</strong>(i, y) &lt;==&gt; x[i]=y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.<strong>delitem</strong>(key,/)</td>
<td>Deletes self[key].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.<strong>contains</strong>(key,/)</td>
<td>Return key in self.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

method

ma.MaskedArray.__len__(/)

Return len(self).

method

ma.MaskedArray.__getitem__(indx)

x.__getitem__(y) <==> x[y]

Return the item described by i, as a masked array.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__setitem__(indx, value)

x.__setitem__(i, y) <==> x[i]=y

Set item described by index. If value is masked, masks those locations.

method

ma.MaskedArray.__delitem__(key,)

Delete self[key].

method

ma.MaskedArray.__contains__(key,/) | Return key in self. |
Specific methods

Handling the mask

The following methods can be used to access information about the mask or to manipulate the mask.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>__setmask__</code></td>
<td>Set the mask.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>harden_mask</code></td>
<td>Force the mask to hard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>soften_mask</code></td>
<td>Force the mask to soft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>unshare_mask</code></td>
<td>Copy the mask and set the sharedmask flag to False.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>shrink_mask</code></td>
<td>Reduce a mask to nomask when possible.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

method

```python
ma.MaskedArray.__setmask__(mask[, copy])

Set the mask.
```

method

```python
ma.MaskedArray.harden_mask()

Force the mask to hard.
```

Whether the mask of a masked array is hard or soft is determined by its `hardmask` property. `harden_mask` sets `hardmask` to True.

See also:

```python
ma.MaskedArray.hardmask
```

method

```python
ma.MaskedArray.soften_mask()

Force the mask to soft.
```

Whether the mask of a masked array is hard or soft is determined by its `hardmask` property. `soften_mask` sets `hardmask` to False.

See also:

```python
ma.MaskedArray.hardmask
```

method

```python
ma.MaskedArray.unshare_mask()

Copy the mask and set the sharedmask flag to False.
```

Whether the mask is shared between masked arrays can be seen from the `sharedmask` property. `unshare_mask` ensures the mask is not shared. A copy of the mask is only made if it was shared.

See also:

```python
sharedmask
```

method

```python
ma.MaskedArray.shrink_mask()

Reduce a mask to nomask when possible.
```

Parameters
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

None

Returns

None

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]], mask=[0]*4)
>>> x.mask
array([[False, False],
       [False, False]])
>>> x.shrink_mask()
masked_array(
    data=[[1, 2],
          [3, 4]],
    mask=False,
    fill_value=999999)
>>> x.mask
False
```

Handling the fill_value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MaskedArray.get_fill_value()</th>
<th>The filling value of the masked array is a scalar.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MaskedArray.set_fill_value([value])</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

method

ma.MaskedArray.get_fill_value()

The filling value of the masked array is a scalar. When setting, None will set to a default based on the data type.

Examples

```python
>>> for dt in [np.int32, np.int64, np.float64, np.complex128]:
...    np.ma.array([0, 1], dtype=dt).get_fill_value()
...
999999
999999
1e+20
(1e+20+0j)

>>> x = np.ma.array([0, 1.], fill_value=-np.inf)
>>> x.fill_value
-inf
>>> x.fill_value = np.pi
>>> x.fill_value
3.1415926535897931 # may vary
```

Reset to default:
>>> x.fill_value = None
>>> x.fill_value
1e+20

method

\texttt{ma.MaskedArray.set\_fill\_value\(\texttt{(value=}\texttt{None})\)}

\textbf{Counting the missing elements}

\texttt{MaskedArray.count([axis, keepdims])} \hspace{1em} Count the non-masked elements of the array along the given axis.

method

\texttt{ma.MaskedArray.count (axis=\texttt{None, keepdims=}\texttt{<no value>})}

Count the non-masked elements of the array along the given axis.

\textbf{Parameters}

\texttt{axis}

[None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which the count is performed. The default, None, performs the count over all the dimensions of the input array. \texttt{axis} may be negative, in which case it counts from the last to the first axis.

New in version 1.10.0.

If this is a tuple of ints, the count is performed on multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

\texttt{keepdims}

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the array.

\textbf{Returns}

\texttt{result}

[ndarray or scalar] An array with the same shape as the input array, with the specified axis removed. If the array is a 0-d array, or if \texttt{axis} is None, a scalar is returned.

\textbf{See also:}

\texttt{ma.count\_masked}

Count masked elements in array or along a given axis.
Examples

```
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = ma.arange(6).reshape((2, 3))
>>> a[1, :] = ma.masked
>>> a
masked_array(
   data=[[0, 1, 2],
        [--, --, --]],
   mask=[[False, False, False],
         [ True, True, True]],
   fill_value=999999)
>>> a.count()
3
```

When the `axis` keyword is specified an array of appropriate size is returned.

```
>>> a.count(axis=0)
array([1, 1, 1])
>>> a.count(axis=1)
array([3, 0])
```

1.7.7 Masked array operations

Constants

```python
ma.MaskType
```

alias of `numpy.bool_`

```python
numpy.ma.MaskType
```

alias of `numpy.bool_`

Creation

From existing data

```python
ma.masked_array
```

alias of `numpy.ma.core.MaskedArray`

```python
ma.array(data[, dtype, copy, order, mask, ...])
```

An array class with possibly masked values.

```python
ma.copy(self, *args, **params)
a.copy(order=)
```

Return a copy of the array.

```python
ma.frombuffer(buffer[, dtype, count, ...])
```

Interpret a buffer as a 1-dimensional array.

```python
ma.fromfunction(function, shape, **dtype)
```

Construct an array by executing a function over each coordinate.

```python
ma.MaskedArray.copy([order])
```

Return a copy of the array.

```python
ma.copy(self, *args, **params)
a.copy(order='C') = <numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>
```

Return a copy of the array.

Parameters

order
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the memory layout of the copy. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ if a is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means match the layout of a as closely as possible. (Note that this function and numpy.copy are very similar but have different default values for their order= arguments, and this function always passes sub-classes through.)

See also:

numpy.copy

Similar function with different default behavior numpy.copyto

Notes

This function is the preferred method for creating an array copy. The function numpy.copy is similar, but it defaults to using order ‘K’, and will not pass sub-classes through by default.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], order='F')
>>> y = x.copy()
>>> x.fill(0)

>>> x
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])

>>> y
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])

>>> y.flags['C_CONTIGUOUS']
True
```

ma.frombuffer (buffer, dtype=float, count=-1, offset=0, *, like=None) = <numpy.ma.core._convert2ma object>

Interpret a buffer as a 1-dimensional array.

Parameters

buffer

[buffer_like] An object that exposes the buffer interface.

dtype

[data-type, optional] Data-type of the returned array; default: float.

count

[int, optional] Number of items to read. -1 means all data in the buffer.

1.7. Masked arrays
offset

[int, optional] Start reading the buffer from this offset (in bytes); default: 0.

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Notes

If the buffer has data that is not in machine byte-order, this should be specified as part of the data-type, e.g.:

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype(int)
>>> dt = dt.newbyteorder('>')  
>>> np.frombuffer(buf, dtype=dt)
```

The data of the resulting array will not be byteswapped, but will be interpreted correctly.

Examples

```python
>>> s = b'hello world'
>>> np.frombuffer(s, dtype='S1', count=5, offset=6)
array([b'w', b'o', b'r', b'l', b'd'], dtype='|S1')
```

```python
>>> np.frombuffer(b'\x01\x02', dtype=np.uint8)
array([1, 2], dtype=uint8)
```

```python
>>> np.frombuffer(b'\x01\x02\x03\x04\x05', dtype=np.uint8, count=3)
array([1, 2, 3], dtype=uint8)
```

ma.fromfunction (function, shape, **dtype) = <numpy.ma.core._convert2ma object>

Construct an array by executing a function over each coordinate.

The resulting array therefore has a value \( f_n(x, y, z) \) at coordinate \((x, y, z)\).

Parameters

function

[callable] The function is called with N parameters, where N is the rank of \( \text{shape} \). Each parameter represents the coordinates of the array varying along a specific axis. For example, if \( \text{shape} \) were \((2, 2)\), then the parameters would be \( \text{array}([[0, 0], [1, 1]]) \) and \( \text{array}([[0, 1], [0, 1]]) \)

shape

[[N,] tuple of ints] Shape of the output array, which also determines the shape of the coordinate arrays passed to \( \text{function} \).

dtype

[data-type, optional] Data-type of the coordinate arrays passed to \( \text{function} \). By default, \( \text{dtype} \) is float.
like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

fromfunction

[any] The result of the call to function is passed back directly. Therefore the shape of fromfunction is completely determined by function. If function returns a scalar value, the shape of fromfunction would not match the shape parameter.

See also:

indices, meshgrid

Notes

Keywords other than dtype are passed to function.

Examples

```python
>>> np.fromfunction(lambda i, j: i == j, (3, 3), dtype=int)
array([[ True, False, False],
       [False,  True, False],
       [False, False,  True]])
```

```python
>>> np.fromfunction(lambda i, j: i + j, (3, 3), dtype=int)
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [1, 2, 3],
       [2, 3, 4]])
```

Ones and zeros

- `ma.empty(shape[, dtype, order, like])`: Return a new array of given shape and type, without initializing entries.
- `ma.empty_like(prototype[, dtype, order, ...])`: Return a new array with the same shape and type as a given array.
- `ma.masked_all(shape[, dtype])`: Empty masked array with all elements masked.
- `ma.masked_all_like(arr)`: Empty masked array with the properties of an existing array.
- `ma.ones(shape[, dtype, order])`: Return a new array of given shape and type, filled with ones.
- `ma.zeros(shape[, dtype, order, like])`: Return a new array of given shape and type, filled with zeros.

```python
ma.empty(shape, dtype=float, order='C', *, like=None) = <numpy.ma.core._convert2ma object>
```

1.7. Masked arrays 317
Parameters

shape

[int or tuple of int] Shape of the empty array, e.g., (2, 3) or 2.

dtype

[data-type, optional] Desired output data-type for the array, e.g, numpy.int8. Default is numpy.float64.

order

[‘C’, ‘F’, optional, default: ‘C’] Whether to store multi-dimensional data in row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order in memory.

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Array of uninitialized (arbitrary) data of the given shape, dtype, and order. Object arrays will be initialized to None.

See also:

empty_like

Return an empty array with shape and type of input.

ones

Return a new array setting values to one.

zeros

Return a new array setting values to zero.

full

Return a new array of given shape filled with value.

Notes

empty, unlike zeros, does not set the array values to zero, and may therefore be marginally faster. On the other hand, it requires the user to manually set all the values in the array, and should be used with caution.
Examples

```python
>>> np.empty([2, 2])
array([[ -9.74499359e+001,  6.69583040e-309],
       [  2.13182611e-314,  3.06959433e-309]]) # uninitialized

>>> np.empty([2, 2], dtype=int)
array([[ -1073741821,  -1067949133],
       [   496041986,     19249760]]) # uninitialized
```

```python
ma.empty_like(prototype, dtype=None, order='K', subok=True, shape=None) =
<numpy.ma.core._convert2ma object>
```

Return a new array with the same shape and type as a given array.

Parameters

- **prototype**: [array_like] The shape and data-type of `prototype` define these same attributes of the returned array.

- **dtype**: [data-type, optional] Overrides the data type of the result.

  New in version 1.6.0.

- **order**: [{'C', 'F', 'A', or 'K'}, optional] Overrides the memory layout of the result. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ if `prototype` is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means match the layout of `prototype` as closely as possible.

  New in version 1.6.0.

- **subok**: [bool, optional.] If True, then the newly created array will use the sub-class type of `prototype`, otherwise it will be a base-class array. Defaults to True.

- **shape**: [int or sequence of ints, optional.] Overrides the shape of the result. If order=’K’ and the number of dimensions is unchanged, will try to keep order, otherwise, order=’C’ is implied.

  New in version 1.17.0.

Returns

- **out**: [ndarray] Array of uninitialized (arbitrary) data with the same shape and type as `prototype`.

See also:

- **ones_like**: Return an array of ones with shape and type of input.

- **zeros_like**: Return an array of zeros with shape and type of input.
**full_like**

Return a new array with shape of input filled with value.

**empty**

Return a new uninitialized array.

**Notes**

This function does *not* initialize the returned array; to do that use `zeros_like` or `ones_like` instead. It may be marginally faster than the functions that do set the array values.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = ([1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6])  # a is array-like
>>> np.empty_like(a)
array([[ 3], [-1073741821, -1073741821], [0, -1073741821]])
>>> a = np.array([[1., 2., 3.], [4., 5., 6.]])
>>> np.empty_like(a)
array([[ 3], [-2.00000572e+000, -2.00000715e+000], [4.17269252e-309, -2.00000715e+000]])
```

**ma.masked_all** *(shape, dtype=class 'float')*

Empty masked array with all elements masked.

Parameters

- **shape**
  - [tuple] Shape of the required MaskedArray.

- **dtype**
  - [dtype, optional] Data type of the output.

Returns

- **a**
  - [MaskedArray] A masked array with all data masked.

See also:

**masked_all_like**

Empty masked array modelled on an existing array.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> ma.masked_all((3, 3))
masked_array(
    data=[[ --, --, --],
          [ --, --, --],
          [ --, --, --]],
    mask=[[ True, True, True],
           [ True, True, True],
           [ True, True, True]],
    fill_value=1e+20,
    dtype=float64)
```

The `dtype` parameter defines the underlying data type.

```python
>>> a = ma.masked_all((3, 3))
>>> a.dtype
dtype('float64')
>>> a = ma.masked_all((3, 3), dtype=np.int32)
```

`ma.masked_all_like(arr)`

Empty masked array with the properties of an existing array.

Return an empty masked array of the same shape and dtype as the array `arr`, where all the data are masked.

- **Parameters**
  - `arr` (ndarray) An array describing the shape and dtype of the required `MaskedArray`.

- **Returns**
  - `a` (MaskedArray) A masked array with all data masked.

- **Raises**
  - AttributeError
    - If `arr` doesn’t have a shape attribute (i.e. not an ndarray)

- **See also:**
  - `masked_all`
    - Empty masked array with all elements masked.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> arr = np.zeros((2, 3), dtype=np.float32)
>>> arr
array([[0., 0., 0.],
       [0., 0., 0.]], dtype=float32)
>>> ma.masked_all_like(arr)
masked_array(
    data=[[--, --, --],
          [--, --, --]],
    mask=[[ True, True, True],
          [ True, True, True]],
    fill_value=1e+20,
    dtype=float32)
```

The dtype of the masked array matches the dtype of `arr`.

```python
>>> arr.dtype
dtype('float32')
>>> ma.masked_all_like(arr).dtype
dtype('float32')
```

```
ma.ones(shape, dtype=None, order='C') = <numpy.ma.core._convert2ma object>
```

Return a new array of given shape and type, filled with ones.

Parameters

- **shape**
  
  [int or sequence of ints] Shape of the new array, e.g., (2, 3) or 2.

- **dtype**
  
  [data-type, optional] The desired data-type for the array, e.g., `numpy.int8`. Default is `numpy.float64`.

- **order**
  
  [{'C', 'F'}, optional, default: C] Whether to store multi-dimensional data in row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order in memory.

- **like**
  
  [array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as `like` supports the `__array_function__` protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

- **out**
  
  [ndarray] Array of ones with the given shape, dtype, and order.

See also:
**ones_like**

Return an array of ones with shape and type of input.

**empty**

Return a new uninitialized array.

**zeros**

Return a new array setting values to zero.

**full**

Return a new array of given shape filled with value.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.ones(5)
array([1., 1., 1., 1., 1.])
```

```python
>>> np.ones((5,), dtype=int)
array([1, 1, 1, 1, 1])
```

```python
>>> np.ones((2,))
array([[1.],
       [1.]]))
```

```python
>>> s = (2,2)
>>> np.ones(s)
array([[1., 1.],
       [1., 1.]]])
```

```python
ma.zeros(shape, dtype=float, order='C', *, like=None) = <numpy.ma.core._convert2ma object>
```

Return a new array of given shape and type, filled with zeros.

**Parameters**

- **shape**
  - [int or tuple of ints] Shape of the new array, e.g., (2, 3) or 2.

- **dtype**
  - [data-type, optional] The desired data-type for the array, e.g., `numpy.int8`. Default is `numpy.float64`.

- **order**
  - [{'C', 'F'}, optional, default: 'C'] Whether to store multi-dimensional data in row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order in memory.

- **like**
  - [array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.
Returns

out

[ndarray] Array of zeros with the given shape, dtype, and order.

See also:

zeros_like

Return an array of zeros with shape and type of input.

empty

Return a new uninitialized array.

ones

Return a new array setting values to one.

full

Return a new array of given shape filled with value.

Examples

```python
>>> np.zeros(5)
array([ 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.])

>>> np.zeros((5,), dtype=int)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0])

>>> np.zeros((2, 1))
array([[ 0.],
      [ 0.]])

>>> s = (2,2)
>>> np.zeros(s)
array([[ 0., 0.],
      [ 0., 0.]])

>>> np.zeros((2,), dtype=[('x', 'i4'), ('y', 'i4')]) # custom dtype
array([[0, 0],
       [0, 0]],
       dtype=[('x', '<i4'), ('y', '<i4')])
```
## Inspecting the array

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</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.size(obj[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Return the number of elements along a given axis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```
ma.all (self, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>) = <numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>
```

Returns True if all elements evaluate to True.

The output array is masked where all the values along the given axis are masked: if the output would have been a scalar and that all the values are masked, then the output is masked.

Refer to `numpy.all` for full documentation.

See also:

- `numpy.ndarray.all`
  - corresponding function for ndarrays
- `numpy.all`
  - equivalent function
Examples

```python
>>> np.ma.array([1, 2, 3]).all()
True
>>> a = np.ma.array([1, 2, 3], mask=True)
>>> (a.all() is np.ma.masked)
True
```

```python
def any (self, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)
```

Returns True if any of the elements of `a` evaluate to `True`.

Masked values are considered as `False` during computation.

Refer to `numpy.any` for full documentation.

See also:

- `numpy.ndarray.any`
  corresponding function for ndarrays
- `numpy.any` equivalent function

```python
def count (self, axis=None, keepdims=<no value>)
```

Count the non-masked elements of the array along the given axis.

Parameters

- **axis**
  [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which the count is performed. The default, `None`, performs the count over all the dimensions of the input array. `axis` may be negative, in which case it counts from the last to the first axis.

  New in version 1.10.0.

  If this is a tuple of ints, the count is performed on multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

- **keepdims**
  [bool, optional] If this is set to `True`, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the array.

Returns

- **result**
  [ndarray or scalar] An array with the same shape as the input array, with the specified axis removed. If the array is a 0-d array, or if `axis` is `None`, a scalar is returned.

See also:

- `ma.count_masked`
  Count masked elements in array or along a given axis.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = ma.arange(6).reshape([2, 3])
>>> a[1, :] = ma.masked
>>> a
masked_array(
    data=[[0, 1, 2],
          [--, --, --]],
    mask=[[False, False, False],
          [ True, True, True]],
    fill_value=999999)
```

When the `axis` keyword is specified an array of appropriate size is returned.

```python
>>> a.count(axis=0)
array([1, 1, 1])
>>> a.count(axis=1)
array([3, 0])
```

`ma.count_masked(arr, axis=None)`

Count the number of masked elements along the given axis.

**Parameters**

- `arr` (array_like) An array with (possibly) masked elements.

- `axis` (int, optional) Axis along which to count. If None (default), a flattened version of the array is used.

**Returns**

- `count` (int, ndarray) The total number of masked elements (axis=None) or the number of masked elements along each slice of the given axis.

**See also:**

`MaskedArray.count`

Count non-masked elements.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.arange(9).reshape((3,3))
>>> a = ma.array(a)
>>> a[1, 0] = ma.masked
>>> a[1, 2] = ma.masked
>>> a[2, 1] = ma.masked
>>> a
masked_array(data=[[0, 1, 2],
                   [--, 4, --],
                   [6, --, 8]],
               mask=[[False, False, False],
                     [ True, False, True],
                     [False, True, False]],
          fill_value=999999)
>>> ma.count_masked(a)
3
```

When the `axis` keyword is used an array is returned.

```python
>>> ma.count_masked(a, axis=0)
dtype=float64
array([1, 1, 1])
>>> ma.count_masked(a, axis=1)
dtype=float64
array([0, 2, 1])
```

`ma.getmask(a)`

Return the mask of a masked array, or nomask.

Return the mask of `a` as an ndarray if `a` is a `MaskedArray` and the mask is not `nomask`, else return `nomask`. To guarantee a full array of booleans of the same shape as `a`, use `getmaskarray`.

**Parameters**

- `a`

  [array_like] Input `MaskedArray` for which the mask is required.

**See also:**

- `getdata`

  Return the data of a masked array as an ndarray.

- `getmaskarray`

  Return the mask of a masked array, or full array of False.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = ma.masked_equal([[1,2],[3,4]], 2)
>>> a
masked_array(
    data=[[1, --],
          [3, 4]],
    mask=[[False, True],
          [False, False]],
    fill_value=2)
>>> ma.getmask(a)
array([[False, True],
          [False, False]])

Equivalently use the `MaskedArray` mask attribute.

```python
>>> a.mask
array([[False, True],
          [False, False]])

Result when mask == `nomask`

```python
>>> b = ma.masked_array([[1,2],[3,4]])
>>> b
masked_array(
    data=[[1, 2],
          [3, 4]],
    mask=False,
    fill_value=999999)
>>> ma.nomask
False
>>> ma.getmask(b) == ma.nomask
True
>>> b.mask == ma.nomask
True

```

`ma.getmaskarray(arr)`

Return the mask of a masked array, or full boolean array of False.

Return the mask of `arr` as an ndarray if `arr` is a `MaskedArray` and the mask is not `nomask`, else return a full boolean array of False of the same shape as `arr`.

Parameters

arr

[array_like] Input `MaskedArray` for which the mask is required.

See also:

`getmask`

Return the mask of a masked array, or nomask.

`getdata`

Return the data of a masked array as an ndarray.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = ma.masked_equal([[1,2],[3,4]], 2)
>>> a
masked_array(
data=[[1, --],
      [3, 4]],
mask=[[False, True],
      [False, False]],
fill_value=2)
>>> ma.getmaskarray(a)
array([[False, True],
      [False, False]])
```

Result when mask == nomask

```python
>>> b = ma.masked_array([[1,2],[3,4]])
>>> b
masked_array(
data=[[1, 2],
      [3, 4]],
mask=False,
fill_value=999999)
>>> ma.getmaskarray(b)
array([[False, False],
      [False, False]])
```

```
ma.getdata (a, subok=True)
Return the data of a masked array as an ndarray.

Return the data of a (if any) as an ndarray if a is a MaskedArray, else return a as a ndarray or subclass (depending on subok) if not.

Parameters

    a

[array_like] Input MaskedArray, alternatively a ndarray or a subclass thereof.

    subok

[bool] Whether to force the output to be a pure ndarray (False) or to return a subclass of ndarray if appropriate (True, default).

See also:

    getmask

Return the mask of a masked array, or nomask.

    getmaskarray

Return the mask of a masked array, or full array of False.
```
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = ma.masked_equal([[1,2],[3,4]], 2)
>>> a
masked_array(
  data=[[1, --],
        [3, 4]],
  mask=[[False, True],
        [False, False]],
  fill_value=2)
>>> ma.getdata(a)
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]])
```

Equivalently use the `MaskedArray` `data` attribute.

```python
>>> a.data
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]])
```

```
ma.nonzero(self) = <numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>
```

Return the indices of unmasked elements that are not zero.

Returns a tuple of arrays, one for each dimension, containing the indices of the non-zero elements in that dimension. The corresponding non-zero values can be obtained with:

```python
a[a.nonzero()]
```

To group the indices by element, rather than dimension, use instead:

```python
np.transpose(a.nonzero())
```

The result of this is always a 2d array, with a row for each non-zero element.

Parameters

None

Returns

tuple_of_arrays

[tuple] Indices of elements that are non-zero.

See also:

- `numpy.nonzero`  
  Function operating on ndarrays.

- `flatnonzero`  
  Return indices that are non-zero in the flattened version of the input array.

- `numpy.ndarray.nonzero`  
  Equivalent ndarray method.
**count_nonzero**

Counts the number of non-zero elements in the input array.

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> x = ma.array(np.eye(3))
>>> x
masked_array(
   data=[[1., 0., 0.],
         [0., 1., 0.],
         [0., 0., 1.]],
   mask=False,
   fill_value=1e+20)
>>> x.nonzero()
(array([0, 1, 2]), array([0, 1, 2]))
```

Masked elements are ignored.

```python
>>> x[1, 1] = ma.masked
>>> x
masked_array(
   data=[[1.0, 0.0, 0.0],
         [0.0, --, 0.0],
         [0.0, 0.0, 1.0]],
   mask=[[False, False, False],
         [False, True, False],
         [False, False, False]],
   fill_value=1e+20)
>>> x.nonzero()
(array([0, 2]), array([0, 2]))
```

Indices can also be grouped by element.

```python
>>> np.transpose(x.nonzero())
array([[0, 0],
       [2, 2]])
```

A common use for `nonzero` is to find the indices of an array, where a condition is True. Given an array `a`, the condition `a > 3` is a boolean array and since `False` is interpreted as 0, `ma.nonzero(a > 3)` yields the indices of the `a` where the condition is true.

```python
>>> a = ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]])
>>> a > 3
masked_array(
   data=[[False, False, False],
         [ True, True, True],
         [ True, True, True]],
   mask=False,
   fill_value=True)
>>> a.nonzero()
(array([1, 1, 2, 2, 2]), array([0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2]))
```

The `nonzero` method of the condition array can also be called.
>>> (a > 3).nonzero()
(array([1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2]), array([0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2]))

`ma.shape(obj)`

Return the shape of an array.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] Input array.

**Returns**

- **shape**
  - [tuple of ints] The elements of the shape tuple give the lengths of the corresponding array dimensions.

**See also:**

- `len`
- `ndarray.shape`

Equivalent array method.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.shape(np.eye(3))
(3, 3)
>>> np.shape([[1, 2]])
(1, 2)
>>> np.shape([0])
(1,)
>>> np.shape(0)
()```

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]], dtype=[('x', 'i4'), ('y', 'i4')])
>>> np.shape(a)
(2,)
>>> a.shape
(2,)
```

`ma.size(obj, axis=None)`

Return the number of elements along a given axis.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] Input data.

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] Axis along which the elements are counted. By default, give the total number of elements.
Returns

element_count

[int] Number of elements along the specified axis.

See also:

shape
dimensions of array

ndarray.shape
dimensions of array

ndarray.size
number of elements in array

Examples

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

ma.is_masked(x)
Determine whether input has masked values.
Accepts any object as input, but always returns False unless the input is a MaskedArray containing masked values.

Parameters

x
array_like] Array to check for masked values.

Returns

result
[bool] True if x is a MaskedArray with masked values, False otherwise.

Examples

>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> x = ma.masked_equal([0, 1, 0, 2, 3], 0)
>>> x
masked_array(data=[-- 1 -- 2 3],
              mask=[ True, False,  True, False, False],
              fill_value=0)
>>> ma.is_masked(x)
True
Always returns False if \( x \) isn’t a MaskedArray.

```python
>>> x = [False, True, False]
>>> ma.is_masked(x)
False
```

`ma.is_mask(m)`

Return True if \( m \) is a valid, standard mask.

This function does not check the contents of the input, only that the type is MaskType. In particular, this function returns False if the mask has a flexible dtype.

**Parameters**

- \( m \)
  
  [array_like] Array to test.

**Returns**

- `result`
  
  [bool] True if \( m.dtype.type \) is MaskType, False otherwise.

**See also:**

`ma.isMaskedArray`

Test whether input is an instance of MaskedArray.

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> m = ma.masked_equal([0, 1, 0, 2, 3], 0)
>>> m
masked_array(data=[--, 1, --, 2, 3],
        mask=[ True, False, True, False, False],
       fill_value=0)
>>> ma.is_mask(m)
False
>>> ma.is_mask(m.mask)
True
```

Input must be an ndarray (or have similar attributes) for it to be considered a valid mask.
```python
>>> m = [False, True, False]
>>> ma.is_mask(m)
False
>>> m = np.array([False, True, False])
>>> m
array([False,  True, False])
>>> ma.is_mask(m)
True
```

Arrays with complex dtypes don’t return True.

```python
>>> dtype = np.dtype({
... 'names': ['monty', 'pithon'],
... 'formats': ['bool', 'bool']
... })
>>> dtype
dtype([('monty', '<b1'), ('pithon', '<b1')])
>>> m = np.array([(True, False), (False, True), (True, False)],
... dtype=dtype)
>>> m
array([( True, False), (False,  True), ( True, False)],
      dtype=[('monty', '?'), ('pithon', '?')])
>>> ma.is_mask(m)
False
```

`ma.isMaskedArray(x)`

Test whether input is an instance of MaskedArray.

This function returns True if `x` is an instance of MaskedArray and returns False otherwise. Any object is accepted as input.

**Parameters**

- `x` : [object] Object to test.

**Returns**

- `result` : [bool] True if `x` is a MaskedArray.

**See also:**

- `isMA` : Alias to `isMaskedArray`.
- `isarray` : Alias to `isMaskedArray`.  

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.eye(3, 3)
>>> a
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
>>> m = ma.masked_values(a, 0)
>>> m
masked_array(data=[[1., --, --],
                   [--, 1., --],
                   [--, --, 1.]],
              mask=[[False, True, True],
                     [True, False, True],
                     [True, True, False]],
              fill_value=0.0)
>>> ma.isMaskedArray(a)
False
>>> ma.isMaskedArray(m)
True
>>> ma.isMaskedArray([0, 1, 2])
False
```

`ma.isMA(x)`

Test whether input is an instance of MaskedArray.

This function returns True if `x` is an instance of MaskedArray and returns False otherwise. Any object is accepted as input.

**Parameters**

- `x` [object] Object to test.

**Returns**

- `result` [bool] True if `x` is a MaskedArray.

**See also:**

- `isMA` Alias to `isMaskedArray`
- `isarray` Alias to `isMaskedArray`
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.eye(3, 3)
>>> a
array([[ 1.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  1.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  1.]])
>>> m = ma.masked_values(a, 0)
>>> m
masked_array(
data=[[1.0, --, --],
     [--, 1.0, --],
     [--, --, 1.0]],
mask=[[False, True, True],
     [ True, False, True],
     [ True, True, False]],
fill_value=0.0)
>>> ma.isMaskedArray(a)
False
>>> ma.isMaskedArray(m)
True
>>> ma.isMaskedArray([0, 1, 2])
False
```

`ma.isarray(x)`

Test whether input is an instance of `MaskedArray`.

This function returns `True` if `x` is an instance of `MaskedArray` and returns `False` otherwise. Any object is accepted as input.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  
  [object] Object to test.

**Returns**

- **result**
  
  [bool] True if `x` is a `MaskedArray`.

**See also:**

`isMA`

Alias to `isMaskedArray`.

`isarray`

Alias to `isMaskedArray`. 
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.eye(3, 3)
>>> a
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
>>> m = ma.masked_values(a, 0)
>>> m
masked_array(
    data=[[1.0, --, --],
          [--, 1.0, --],
          [--, --, 1.0]],
    mask=[[False, True, True],
          [True, False, True],
          [True, True, False]],
    fill_value=0.0)
>>> ma.isMaskedArray(a)
False
>>> ma.isMaskedArray(m)
True
>>> ma.isMaskedArray([0, 1, 2])
False
```

```
ma.MaskedArray.data
Returns the underlying data, as a view of the masked array.

ma.MaskedArray.mask
Current mask.

ma.MaskedArray.recordmask
Get or set the mask of the array if it has no named fields.
```

Manipulating a MaskedArray

Changing the shape

```
ma.ravel(self[, order])
Returns a 1D version of self, as a view.

ma.reshape(a, new_shape[, order])
Returns an array containing the same data with a new shape.

ma.resize(x, new_shape)
Return a new masked array with the specified size and shape.

ma.MaskedArray.flatten([order])
Return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension.

ma.MaskedArray.ravel([order])
Returns a 1D version of self, as a view.

ma.MaskedArray.reshape(*s, **kwargs)
Give a new shape to the array without changing its data.

ma.MaskedArray.resize(newshape[, refcheck,...])
```

```
ma.ravel (self, order='C') = <numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>
Returns a 1D version of self, as a view.

Parameters

order
```

1.7. Masked arrays
The elements of \( a \) are read using this index order. ‘C’ means to index the elements in C-like order, with the last axis index changing fastest, back to the first axis index changing slowest. ‘F’ means to index the elements in Fortran-like index order, with the first index changing fastest, and the last index changing slowest. Note that the ‘C’ and ‘F’ options take no account of the memory layout of the underlying array, and only refer to the order of axis indexing. ‘A’ means to read the elements in Fortran-like index order if \( m \) is Fortran contiguous in memory, C-like order otherwise. ‘K’ means to read the elements in the order they occur in memory, except for reversing the data when strides are negative. By default, ‘C’ index order is used.

Returns

MaskedArray

Output view is of shape (\( self.size, \)) (or \( np.ma.product(self.shape), \)).

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]], mask=[0, 1, 0]*4)
>>> x
masked_array(data=[[1, --, 3],
                   [--, 5, --],
                   [7, --, 9]],
               mask=[[False, True, False],
                     [True, False, True],
                     [False, True, False]],
               fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> x.ravel()
masked_array(data=[1, --, 3, --, 5, --, 7, --, 9],
             mask=[False, True, False, True, False, True, False, True, False],
             fill_value=999999)
```

\texttt{ma.reshape (a, new\_shape, order=’C’)}

Returns an array containing the same data with a new shape.

Refer to \texttt{MaskedArray.reshape} for full documentation.

See also:

\texttt{MaskedArray.reshape}

equivalent function

\texttt{ma.resize (x, new\_shape)}

Return a new masked array with the specified size and shape.

This is the masked equivalent of the \texttt{numpy.resize} function. The new array is filled with repeated copies of \( x \) (in the order that the data are stored in memory). If \( x \) is masked, the new array will be masked, and the new mask will be a repetition of the old one.

See also:

\texttt{numpy.resize}

Equivalent function in the top level NumPy module.
Examples

>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = ma.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> a[0, 1] = ma.masked
>>> a
masked_array(
    data=[[1, --],
          [3, 4]],
    mask=[[False, True],
          [False, False]],
    fill_value=999999)

>>> np.resize(a, (3, 3))
masked_array(
    data=[[1, 2, 3],
          [4, 1, 2],
          [3, 4, 1]],
    mask=False,
    fill_value=999999)

A MaskedArray is always returned, regardless of the input type.

>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> ma.resize(a, (3, 3))
masked_array(
    data=[[1, 2, 3],
          [4, 1, 2],
          [3, 4, 1]],
    mask=False,
    fill_value=999999)

Modifying axes

```
ma.swapaxes(self, *args, ...) Return a view of the array with axis1 and axis2 inter-changed.

ma.transpose(a[, axes]) Permute the dimensions of an array.

ma.MaskedArray.swapaxes(axis1, axis2) Return a view of the array with axis1 and axis2 inter-changed.

ma.MaskedArray.transpose(*axes) Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.
```

```
ma.swapaxes (self, *args, **params) a.swapaxes(axis1, axis2) = <numpy.ma.core._frommethod
object>

Return a view of the array with axis1 and axis2 interchanged.

Refer to numpy.swapaxes for full documentation.
```
See also:

```
numpy.swapaxes
equivalentfunction
```

```
ma.transpose(a, axes=None)
```
Permute the dimensions of an array.

This function is exactly equivalent to `numpy.transpose`.

See also:

```
numpy.transpose
```
Equivalent function in top-level NumPy module.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> x = ma.arange(4).reshape((2, 2))
>>> x[1, 1] = ma.masked
```
```
masked_array(
 data=[[0, 1],
       [2, --]],
 mask=[[False, False],
       [False,  True]],
 fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> ma.transpose(x)
```
```
masked_array(
 data=[[0, 2],
       [1, --]],
 mask=[[False, False],
       [False,  True]],
 fill_value=999999)
```

Changing the number of dimensions

```
ma.atleast_1d(*args, **kwargs) Convert inputs to arrays with at least one dimension.
ma.atleast_2d(*args, **kwargs) View inputs as arrays with at least two dimensions.
ma.atleast_3d(*args, **kwargs) View inputs as arrays with at least three dimensions.
ma.expand_dims(a, axis) Expand the shape of an array.
ma.squeeze(a[, axis]) Remove axes of length one from a.
ma.MaskedArray.squeeze([axis]) Remove axes of length one from a.
ma.stack(*args, **kwargs) Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.
ma.column_stack(*args, **kwargs) Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.
ma.concatenate(arrays[, axis]) Concatenate a sequence of arrays along the given axis.
ma.dstack(*args, **kwargs) Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).
ma.hstack(*args, **kwargs) Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).
ma.hsplit(*args, **kwargs) Split an array into multiple sub-arrays horizontally (column-wise).
```
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```
m. atleast_1d(*args, **kwargs) = <numpy.ma.extras._fromnxfunction_allargs object>
Convert inputs to arrays with at least one dimension.
Scalar inputs are converted to 1-dimensional arrays, whilst higher-dimensional inputs are preserved.

Parameters

arys1, arys2, ...
[array_like] One or more input arrays.

Returns

ret
[ndarray] An array, or list of arrays, each with a.ndim >= 1. Copies are made only if necessary.

See also:

`atleast_2d, atleast_3d`

Notes

The function is applied to both the _data and the _mask, if any.

Examples

```python
>>> np.atleast_1d(1.0)
anarray([1.])

>>> x = np.arange(9.0).reshape(3,3)
>>> np.atleast_1d(x)
anarray([[ 0.,  1.,  2.],
       [ 3.,  4.,  5.],
       [ 6.,  7.,  8.]])
>>> np.atleast_1d(x) is x
True

>>> np.atleast_1d(1, [3, 4])
[array([1]), array([3, 4])]
```

```
m. atleast_2d(*args, **kwargs) = <numpy.ma.extras._fromnxfunction_allargs object>
View inputs as arrays with at least two dimensions.

Parameters

```
arys1, arys2, ...

[array_like] One or more array-like sequences. Non-array inputs are converted to arrays. Arrays that already have two or more dimensions are preserved.

Returns

res, res2, ...

[ndarray] An array, or list of arrays, each with a.ndim >= 2. Copies are avoided where possible, and views with two or more dimensions are returned.

See also:

atleast_1d, atleast_3d

Notes

The function is applied to both the _data and the _mask, if any.

Examples

```python
>>> np.atleast_2d(3.0)
array([[3.]])
```

```python
>>> x = np.arange(3.0)
>>> np.atleast_2d(x)
array([[0., 1., 2.]])
>>> np.atleast_2d(x).base is x
True
```

```python
>>> np.atleast_2d(1, [1, 2], [[1, 2]])
[array([[1]]), array([[1, 2]]), array([[1, 2]])]
```

ma.atleast_3d(*args, **kwargs) = <numpy.ma.extras._fromnxfunction_allargs object>

View inputs as arrays with at least three dimensions.

Parameters

arys1, arys2, ...

[array_like] One or more array-like sequences. Non-array inputs are converted to arrays. Arrays that already have three or more dimensions are preserved.

Returns

res1, res2, ...

[ndarray] An array, or list of arrays, each with a.ndim >= 3. Copies are avoided where possible, and views with three or more dimensions are returned. For example, a 1-D array of shape (N,) becomes a view of shape (1, N, 1), and a 2-D array of shape (M, N) becomes a view of shape (M, N, 1).

See also:
**atleast_1d, atleast_2d**

**Notes**

The function is applied to both the _data and the _mask, if any.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.atleast_3d(3.0)
array([[[3.]]])

>>> x = np.arange(3.0)
>>> np.atleast_3d(x).shape
(1, 3, 1)

>>> x = np.arange(12.0).reshape(4, 3)
>>> np.atleast_3d(x).shape
(4, 3, 1)
>>> np.atleast_3d(x).base is x.base  # x is a reshape, so not base itself
True

>>> for arr in np.atleast_3d(([1, 2], [[1, 2]], [[[1, 2]]])):
...    print(arr, arr.shape)
...
[[[1]
 [2]]] (1, 2, 1)
[[[1]
 [2]]] (1, 2, 1)
[[[1]]] (1, 1, 2)
```

**ma.expand_dims(a, axis)**

Expand the shape of an array. Insert a new axis that will appear at the _axis_ position in the expanded array shape.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  [array_like] Input array.

- **axis**
  [int or tuple of ints] Position in the expanded axes where the new axis (or axes) is placed.

  Deprecated since version 1.13.0: Passing an axis where axis > a.ndim will be treated as axis == a.ndim, and passing axis < -a.ndim - 1 will be treated as axis == 0. This behavior is deprecated.

  Changed in version 1.18.0: A tuple of axes is now supported. Out of range axes as described above are now forbidden and raise an AxisError.

**Returns**

- **result**
  [ndarray] View of _a_ with the number of dimensions increased.
See also:

**squeeze**

The inverse operation, removing singleton dimensions

**reshape**

Insert, remove, and combine dimensions, and resize existing ones

doc.indexing, `atleast_1d`, `atleast_2d`, `atleast_3d`

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2])
>>> x.shape
(2,)
```

The following is equivalent to `x[np.newaxis, :]` or `x[np.newaxis]`:

```python
>>> y = np.expand_dims(x, axis=0)
>>> y
array([[1, 2]])
>>> y.shape
(1, 2)
```

The following is equivalent to `x[:, np.newaxis]`:

```python
>>> y = np.expand_dims(x, axis=1)
>>> y
array([[1],
       [2]])
>>> y.shape
(2, 1)
```

axis may also be a tuple:

```python
>>> y = np.expand_dims(x, axis=(0, 1))
>>> y
array([[1, 2]])
```

```python
>>> y = np.expand_dims(x, axis=(2, 0))
>>> y
array([[1],
       [2]])
```

Note that some examples may use `None` instead of `np.newaxis`. These are the same objects:

```python
>>> np.newaxis is None
True
```

```python
np.squeeze(a, axis=None)
```

Remove axes of length one from `a`.

**Parameters**

`a`

[array_like] Input data.
axis

[None or int or tuple of ints, optional] New in version 1.7.0.

Selects a subset of the entries of length one in the shape. If an axis is selected with shape entry greater than one, an error is raised.

Returns

squeezed

[ndarray] The input array, but with all or a subset of the dimensions of length 1 removed. This is always a itself or a view into a. Note that if all axes are squeezed, the result is a 0d array and not a scalar.

Raises

ValueError

If axis is not None, and an axis being squeezed is not of length 1

See also:

expand_dims

The inverse operation, adding entries of length one

reshape

Insert, remove, and combine dimensions, and resize existing ones

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[[0], [1], [2]]])
>>> x.shape
(1, 3, 1)
>>> np.squeeze(x).shape
(3,)
>>> np.squeeze(x, axis=0).shape
(3, 1)
>>> np.squeeze(x, axis=1).shape
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError: cannot select an axis to squeeze out which has size not equal to one
```

```python
>>> np.squeeze(x, axis=2).shape
(1, 3)
>>> x = np.array([[1234]])
>>> x.shape
(1, 1)
>>> np.squeeze(x)
array(1234)  # 0d array
>>> np.squeeze(x).shape
()
>>> np.squeeze(x)[()]
1234
```

`ma.stack(*args, **kwargs) = <numpy.ma.extras._fromnxfunction_seq object>`

Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

1.7. Masked arrays 347
The `axis` parameter specifies the index of the new axis in the dimensions of the result. For example, if `axis=0` it will be the first dimension and if `axis=-1` it will be the last dimension.

New in version 1.10.0.

Parameters

- **arrays**
  - [sequence of array_like] Each array must have the same shape.
- **axis**
  - [int, optional] The axis in the result array along which the input arrays are stacked.
- **out**
  - [ndarray, optional] If provided, the destination to place the result. The shape must be correct, matching that of what stack would have returned if no out argument were specified.

Returns

- **stacked**
  - [ndarray] The stacked array has one more dimension than the input arrays.

See also:

- **concatenate**
  - Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.
- **block**
  - Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.
- **split**
  - Split array into a list of multiple sub-arrays of equal size.

Notes

The function is applied to both the _data and the _mask, if any.

Examples

```python
>>> arrays = [np.random.randn(3, 4) for _ in range(10)]
>>> np.stack(arrays, axis=0).shape
(10, 3, 4)

>>> np.stack(arrays, axis=1).shape
(3, 10, 4)

>>> np.stack(arrays, axis=2).shape
(3, 4, 10)
```
```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> b = np.array([4, 5, 6])
>>> np.stack((a, b))
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])

>>> np.stack((a, b), axis=-1)
array([[1, 4],
       [2, 5],
       [3, 6]])
```

```python
ma.column_stack(*args, **kwargs) = <numpy.ma.extras._fromnxfunction_seq object>
Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

Take a sequence of 1-D arrays and stack them as columns to make a single 2-D array. 2-D arrays are stacked as-is, just like with hstack. 1-D arrays are turned into 2-D columns first.

Parameters

- tup
  [sequence of 1-D or 2-D arrays.] Arrays to stack. All of them must have the same first dimension.

Returns

- stacked
  [2-D array] The array formed by stacking the given arrays.

See also:

stack, hstack, vstack, concatenate

Notes

The function is applied to both the _data and the _mask, if any.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array((1, 2, 3))
>>> b = np.array((2, 3, 4))
>>> np.column_stack((a, b))
array([[1, 2],
       [2, 3],
       [3, 4]])
```

```python
ma.concatenate(arrays, axis=0)
Concatenate a sequence of arrays along the given axis.

Parameters

- arrays
  [sequence of array_like] The arrays must have the same shape, except in the dimension corresponding to axis (the first, by default).

1.7. Masked arrays
axis

[int, optional] The axis along which the arrays will be joined. Default is 0.

Returns

result

[MaskedArray] The concatenated array with any masked entries preserved.

See also:

numpy.concatenate

Equivalent function in the top-level NumPy module.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = ma.arange(3)
>>> a[1] = ma.masked
>>> b = ma.arange(2, 5)
>>> a
masked_array(data=[0, --, 2],
             mask=[False, True, False],
            fill_value=999999)
>>> b
masked_array(data=[2, 3, 4],
             mask=False,
            fill_value=999999)
>>> ma.concatenate([a, b])
masked_array(data=[0, --, 2, 2, 3, 4],
             mask=[False, True, False, False, False, False],
            fill_value=999999)
```

ma.dstack(*args, **kwargs) = <numpy.ma.extras._fromnxfunction_seq object>

Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).

This is equivalent to concatenation along the third axis after 2-D arrays of shape \(M,N\) have been reshaped to \((M,N,1)\) and 1-D arrays of shape \(N\) have been reshaped to \((1,N,1)\). Rebuilds arrays divided by dsplit.

This function makes most sense for arrays with up to 3 dimensions. For instance, for pixel-data with a height (first axis), width (second axis), and r/g/b channels (third axis). The functions concatenate, stack and block provide more general stacking and concatenation operations.

Parameters

tup

[sequence of arrays] The arrays must have the same shape along all but the third axis. 1-D or 2-D arrays must have the same shape.

Returns

stacked

[ndarray] The array formed by stacking the given arrays, will be at least 3-D.
See also:

**concatenate**

Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

**stack**

Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

**block**

Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.

**vstack**

Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).

**hstack**

Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).

**column_stack**

Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

**dsplit**

Split array along third axis.

**Notes**

The function is applied to both the _data and the _mask, if any.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array((1, 2, 3))
>>> b = np.array((2, 3, 4))
>>> np.dstack((a, b))
array([[1, 2],
       [2, 3],
       [3, 4]])
```

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1], [2], [3]])
>>> b = np.array([[2], [3], [4]])
>>> np.dstack((a, b))
array([[1, 2],
       [2, 3],
       [3, 4]])
```

```
ma.hstack(*args, **kwargs) = <numpy.ma.extras._fromnxfunction_seq object>
Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).

This is equivalent to concatenation along the second axis, except for 1-D arrays where it concatenates along the first axis. Rebuilds arrays divided by hsplit.

This function makes most sense for arrays with up to 3 dimensions. For instance, for pixel-data with a height (first axis), width (second axis), and r/g/b channels (third axis). The functions concatenate, stack and block provide more general stacking and concatenation operations.

**Parameters**
tup

[sequence of ndarrays] The arrays must have the same shape along all but the second axis, except 1-D arrays which can be any length.

Returns

stacked

[ndarray] The array formed by stacking the given arrays.

See also:

concatenate

Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

stack

Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

block

Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.

vstack

Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).

dstack

Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).

column_stack

Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

hsplit

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays horizontally (column-wise).

Notes

The function is applied to both the _data and the _mask, if any.

Examples

```python
gotanarray=$(np.array((1,2,3)))
gotanotherarray=$(np.array((4,5,6)))
gotresult=$(np.hstack((gotanarray,gotanotherarray)))
print $gotresult

# nested lists of arrays

gotanarray=$(np.array([[1],[2],[3]]))
gotanotherarray=$(np.array([[4],[5],[6]]))
gotresult=$(np.hstack((gotanarray,gotanotherarray)))
print $gotresult
```

352 Chapter 1. Array objects
ma.hsplit(*args,**kwargs) = <numpy.ma.extras._fromnxfunction_single object>

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays horizontally (column-wise).

Please refer to the $split$ documentation. $hsplit$ is equivalent to $split$ with $axis=1$, the array is always
split along the second axis regardless of the array dimension.

See also:

$split$

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays of equal size.

Notes

The function is applied to both the _data and the _mask, if any.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(16.0).reshape(4, 4)
>>> x
array([[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.],
       [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
       [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.],
       [12., 13., 14., 15.]])
>>> np.hsplit(x, 2)
[array([[0., 1.],
        [4., 5.],
        [8., 9.],
        [12., 13.]]),
        array([[2., 3.],
        [6., 7.],
        [10., 11.],
        [14., 15.]])]
>>> np.hsplit(x, np.array([3, 6]))
[array([[0., 1., 2.],
        [4., 5., 6.],
        [8., 9., 10.],
        [12., 13., 14.]]),
        array([[3.],
        [7.],
        [11.],
        [15.]]),
        array([], shape=(4, 0), dtype=float64)]
```

With a higher dimensional array the split is still along the second axis.

```python
>>> x = np.arange(8.0).reshape(2, 2, 2)
>>> x
array([[[0., 1.],
        [2., 3.]],
        [[4., 5.],
        [6., 7.]]])
>>> np.hsplit(x, 2)
[array([[[0.],
        [4.]],
        [[1.],
        [5.]]]),
        array([[], shape=(2, 0), dtype=float64])
```

(continues on next page)
ma.mr_ = <numpy.maextras.mr_class object>
Translate slice objects to concatenation along the first axis.
This is the masked array version of lib.index_tricks.RClass.
See also:
lib.index_tricks.RClass

Examples

```python
>>> np.ma.mr_[np.ma.array([1,2,3]), 0, 0, np.ma.array([4,5,6])]
masked_array(data=[1, 2, 3, ..., 4, 5, 6],
            mask=False,
            fill_value=999999)
```

ma.row_stack(*args, **kwargs) = <numpy.maextras._fromnxfunction_seq object>
Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).
This is equivalent to concatenation along the first axis after 1-D arrays of shape (N,) have been reshaped to (I,N).
Rebuilds arrays divided by vsplit.
This function makes most sense for arrays with up to 3 dimensions. For instance, for pixel-data with a height (first axis), width (second axis), and r/g/b channels (third axis). The functions concatenate, stack and block provide more general stacking and concatenation operations.

Parameters
tup
[sequence of ndarrays] The arrays must have the same shape along all but the first axis. 1-D arrays must have the same length.

Returns
stacked
[ndarray] The array formed by stacking the given arrays, will be at least 2-D.

See also:

concatenate
Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

stack
Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

block
Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.

hstack
Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).
**dstack**

Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).

**column_stack**

Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

**vsplit**

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays vertically (row-wise).

**Notes**

The function is applied to both the _data and the _mask, if any.

**Examples**

```python
tup = np.array([[1, 2, 3]])
two_darray = np.vstack((tup, tup))
```

**Notes**

This function makes most sense for arrays with up to 3 dimensions. For instance, for pixel-data with a height (first axis), width (second axis), and r/g/b channels (third axis). The functions `concatenate`, `stack` and `block` provide more general stacking and concatenation operations.

**Parameters**

- `tup`
  - [sequence of ndarrays] The arrays must have the same shape along all but the first axis. 1-D arrays must have the same length.

**Returns**

- `stacked`
  - [ndarray] The array formed by stacking the given arrays, will be at least 2-D.
**concatenate**

Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

**stack**

Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

**block**

Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.

**hstack**

Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).

**dstack**

Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).

**column_stack**

Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

**vsplit**

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays vertically (row-wise).

**Notes**

The function is applied to both the _data and the _mask, if any.

**Examples**

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

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1], [2], [3]])
>>> b = np.array([[4], [5], [6]])
>>> np.vstack((a, b))
array([[1],
       [2],
       [3],
       [4],
       [5],
       [6]])
```
Joining arrays

<table>
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<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<td><code>ma.concatenate(arrays[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Concatenate a sequence of arrays along the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.stack(*args, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.vstack(*args, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.hstack(*args, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.dstack(*args, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.column_stack(*args, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.append(a, b[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Append values to the end of an array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`ma.append(a, b[, axis=None])`

Append values to the end of an array.

New in version 1.9.0.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] Values are appended to a copy of this array.

- **b**
  - [array_like] These values are appended to a copy of `a`. It must be of the correct shape (the same shape as `a`, excluding `axis`). If `axis` is not specified, `b` can be any shape and will be flattened before use.

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] The axis along which `v` are appended. If `axis` is not given, both `a` and `b` are flattened before use.

**Returns**

- **append**
  - [MaskedArray] A copy of `a` with `b` appended to `axis`. Note that `append` does not occur in-place: a new array is allocated and filled. If `axis` is None, the result is a flattened array.

**See also:**

- `numpy.append`
  - Equivalent function in the top-level NumPy module.

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = ma.masked_values([[1, 2, 3], 2])
>>> b = ma.masked_values([[4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]], 7)
>>> ma.append(a, b)
masked_array(data=[1, --, 3, 4, 5, 6, --, 8, 9],
             mask=[False, True, False, False, False, False, True, False, False],
            fill_value=999999)
```
Operations on masks

Creating a mask

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<td><code>ma.make_mask(m[,copy,shrink,dtype])</code></td>
<td>Create a boolean mask from an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.make_mask_none(newshape[,dtype])</code></td>
<td>Return a boolean mask of the given shape, filled with False.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.mask_or(m1,m2[,copy,shrink])</code></td>
<td>Combine two masks with the logical_or operator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.make_mask_descr(ndtype)</code></td>
<td>Construct a dtype description list from a given dtype.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`ma.make_mask(m, copy=False, shrink=True, dtype=<class 'numpy.bool_'>)`
Create a boolean mask from an array.

Return `m` as a boolean mask, creating a copy if necessary or requested. The function can accept any sequence that is convertible to integers, or `nomask`. Does not require that contents must be 0s and 1s, values of 0 are interpreted as False, everything else as True.

Parameters

- **m**
  [array_like] Potential mask.

- **copy**
  [bool, optional] Whether to return a copy of `m` (True) or `m` itself (False).

- **shrink**
  [bool, optional] Whether to shrink `m` to `nomask` if all its values are False.

- **dtype**
  [dtype, optional] Data-type of the output mask. By default, the output mask has a dtype of `MaskType(bool)`. If the dtype is flexible, each field has a boolean dtype. This is ignored when `m` is `nomask`, in which case `nomask` is always returned.

Returns

- **result**
  [ndarray] A boolean mask derived from `m`.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> m = [True, False, True, True]
>>> ma.make_mask(m)
array([ True, False, True, True])
>>> m = [1, 0, 1, 1]
>>> ma.make_mask(m)
array([[ True, False, True, True]])
>>> m = [1, 0, 2, -3]
>>> ma.make_mask(m)
array([[ True, False, True, True]])
```

Effect of the `shrink` parameter.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

```python
>>> m = np.zeros(4)
>>> m
array([0., 0., 0., 0.])
>>> ma.make_mask(m)
False
>>> ma.make_mask(m, shrink=False)
array([False, False, False, False])
```

Using a flexible `dtype`.

```python
>>> m = [1, 0, 1, 1]
>>> n = [0, 1, 0, 0]
>>> arr = []
>>> for man, mouse in zip(m, n):
...     arr.append((man, mouse))
>>> arr
[(1, 0), (0, 1), (1, 0), (1, 0)]
>>> dtype = np.dtype({'names': ['man', 'mouse'],
...                     'formats': [np.int64, np.int64]})
>>> arr = np.array(arr, dtype=dtype)
>>> arr
array([(1, 0), (0, 1), (1, 0), (1, 0)],
      dtype=[('man', '<i8'), ('mouse', '<i8')])
```

`ma.make_mask_none(newshape, dtype=None)`

Return a boolean mask of the given shape, filled with False.

This function returns a boolean ndarray with all entries False, that can be used in common mask manipulations. If a complex dtype is specified, the type of each field is converted to a boolean type.

**Parameters**

- **newshape**
  - [tuple] A tuple indicating the shape of the mask.

- **dtype**
  - [[None, dtype], optional] If None, use a MaskType instance. Otherwise, use a new datatype with the same fields as `dtype`, converted to boolean types.

**Returns**

- **result**
  - [ndarray] An ndarray of appropriate shape and dtype, filled with False.

**See also:**

- `make_mask`
  - Create a boolean mask from an array.

- `make_mask_descr`
  - Construct a dtype description list from a given dtype.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> ma.make_mask_none((3,))
array([False, False, False])
```

Defining a more complex dtype.

```python
>>> dtype = np.dtype({'names': ['foo', 'bar'],
                   'formats': [np.float32, np.int64]})
>>> dtype
.dtype([('foo', '<f4'), ('bar', '<i8')])
>>> ma.make_mask_none((3,), dtype=dtype)
array([(False, False), (False, False), (False, False)],
      dtype=[('foo', '|b1'), ('bar', '|b1')])
```

```python
dtype_or (m1, m2, copy=False, shrink=True)

Combine two masks with the logical_or operator.

The result may be a view on m1 or m2 if the other is nomask (i.e. False).

Parameters

- m1, m2
  [array_like] Input masks.

- copy
  [bool, optional] If copy is False and one of the inputs is nomask, return a view of the other input mask. Defaults to False.

- shrink
  [bool, optional] Whether to shrink the output to nomask if all its values are False. Defaults to True.

Returns

- mask
  [output mask] The result masks values that are masked in either m1 or m2.

Raises

ValueError

If m1 and m2 have different flexible dtypes.
Examples

```python
>>> m1 = np.ma.make_mask([0, 1, 1, 0])
>>> m2 = np.ma.make_mask([1, 0, 0, 0])
>>> np.ma.mask_or(m1, m2)
array([ True,  True,  True, False])
```

`ma.make_mask_descr(ndtype)`

Construct a dtype description list from a given dtype.

Returns a new dtype object, with the type of all fields in `ndtype` to a boolean type. Field names are not altered.

**Parameters**

- `ndtype` ([dtype]) The dtype to convert.

**Returns**

- `result` ([dtype]) A dtype that looks like `ndtype`, the type of all fields is boolean.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> dtype = np.dtype({'names': ['foo', 'bar'],
...                   'formats': [np.float32, np.int64]})
>>> dtype
dtype([('foo', '<f4'), ('bar', '<i8'))
>>> ma.make_mask_descr(dtype)
dtype([('foo', '|b1'), ('bar', '|b1'))
>>> ma.make_mask_descr(np.float32)
dtype('bool')
```

Accessing a mask

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<td><code>ma.getmask(a)</code></td>
<td>Return the mask of a masked array, or nomask.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.getmaskarray(arr)</code></td>
<td>Return the mask of a masked array, or full boolean array of False.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_array.mask</code></td>
<td>Current mask.</td>
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</table>

**property**

- `property ma.masked_array.mask`  
  Current mask.

1.7. Masked arrays
Finding masked data

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<td><code>ma.flatnotmasked_contiguous(a)</code></td>
<td>Find contiguous unmasked data in a masked array along the given axis.</td>
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<td><code>ma.flatnotmasked_edges(a)</code></td>
<td>Find the indices of the first and last unmasked values.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>ma.notmasked_contiguous(a[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Find contiguous unmasked data in a masked array along the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.notmasked_edges(a[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Find the indices of the first and last unmasked values along an axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.clump_masked(a)</code></td>
<td>Returns a list of slices corresponding to the masked clumps of a 1-D array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.clump_unmasked(a)</code></td>
<td>Return list of slices corresponding to the unmasked clumps of a 1-D array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### `ma.flatnotmasked_contiguous(a)`

Find contiguous unmasked data in a masked array along the given axis.

**Parameters**

- `a` : [narray] The input array.

**Returns**

- `slice_list` : [list] A sorted sequence of `slice` objects (start index, end index).

  Changed in version 1.15.0: Now returns an empty list instead of None for a fully masked array

**See also:**

- `flatnotmasked_edges, notmasked_contiguous, notmasked_edges`
- `clump_masked, clump_unmasked`

**Notes**

Only accepts 2-D arrays at most.

**Examples**

```python
g = np.ma.arange(10)
g[~g.mask] = np.ma.masked
print(g)
a = np.array(g[~a.mask])
a
```

```
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8])
```
>>> np.ma.flatnotmasked_contiguous(a)
[slice(3, 5, None), slice(6, 9, None)]
>>> a[:] = np.ma.masked
>>> np.ma.flatnotmasked_contiguous(a)
[]

`ma.flatnotmasked_edges(a)`

Find the indices of the first and last unmasked values.

Expects a 1-D `MaskedArray`, returns None if all values are masked.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] Input 1-D `MaskedArray`

**Returns**

- **edges**
  - [ndarray or None] The indices of first and last non-masked value in the array. Returns None if all values are masked.

**See also:**

- `flatnotmasked_contiguous`, `notmasked_contiguous`, `notmasked_edges`
- `clump_masked`, `clump_unmasked`

**Notes**

Only accepts 1-D arrays.

**Examples**

```python
gg>> a = np.ma.arange(10)
gg>> np.ma.flatnotmasked_edges(a)
array([0, 9])

>>> mask = (a < 3) | (a > 8) | (a == 5)
>>> a[mask] = np.ma.masked
>>> np.array(a[~a.mask])
array([3, 4, 6, 7, 8])

>>> np.ma.flatnotmasked_edges(a)
array([3, 8])

>>> a[:] = np.ma.masked
>>> print(np.ma.flatnotmasked_edges(a))
None
```

`ma.notmasked_contiguous(a, axis=None)`

Find contiguous unmasked data in a masked array along the given axis.
Parameters

a

[array_like] The input array.

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which to perform the operation. If None (default), applies to a flattened version of the array, and this is the same as flatnotmasked_contiguous.

Returns

drop

[list] A list of slices (start and end indexes) of unmasked indexes in the array.

If the input is 2d and axis is specified, the result is a list of lists.

See also:

flatnotmasked_edges, flatnotmasked_contiguous, notmasked_edges

clamp_masked, clamp_unmasked

Notes

Only accepts 2-D arrays at most.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(12).reshape((3, 4))
>>> mask = np.zeros_like(a)
>>> mask[1:, :-1] = 1; mask[0, 1] = 1; mask[-1, 0] = 0
>>> ma = np.ma.array(a, mask=mask)
>>> ma
masked_array
(data=[[0, --, 2, 3],
[--, --, --, 7],
[8, --, --, 11]],
mask=[[False, True, False, False],
[True, True, True, False],
[False, True, True, False]],
fill_value=999999)
>>> np.array(ma[-ma.mask])
array([ 0, 2, 3, 7, 8, 11])

>>> np.ma.notmasked_contiguous(ma)
[slice(0, 1, None), slice(2, 4, None), slice(7, 9, None), slice(11, 12, None)]

>>> np.ma.notmasked_contiguous(ma, axis=0)
[[slice(0, 1, None), slice(2, 3, None)], [], [slice(0, 1, None)], [slice(0, 3, None), slice(5, 6, None)]]
```
>>> np.ma.notmasked_contiguous(ma, axis=1)
[[slice(0, 1, None), slice(2, 4, None)], [slice(3, 4, None)], [slice(0, 1, None),
 →slice(3, 4, None)]]

\texttt{ma.notmasked_edges (a, axis=None)}

Find the indices of the first and last unmasked values along an axis.

If all values are masked, return None. Otherwise, return a list of two tuples, corresponding to the indices of the first and last unmasked values respectively.

\textbf{Parameters}

\texttt{a}

[array_like] The input array.

\texttt{axis}

[int, optional] Axis along which to perform the operation. If None (default), applies to a flattened version of the array.

\textbf{Returns}

\texttt{edges}

[ndarray or list] An array of start and end indexes if there are any masked data in the array. If there are no masked data in the array, \texttt{edges} is a list of the first and last index.

\textbf{See also:}

\texttt{flatnotmasked_contiguous}, \texttt{flatnotmasked_edges}, \texttt{notmasked_contiguous}

\texttt{clump_masked, clump_unmasked}

\textbf{Examples}

```python
>>> a = np.arange(9).reshape((3, 3))
>>> m = np.zeros_like(a)
>>> m[1:, 1:] = 1

>>> am = np.ma.array(a, mask=m)
>>> np.array(am[~am.mask])
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 6])

>>> np.ma.notmasked_edges(am)
array([0, 6])
```

\texttt{ma.clump_masked (a)}

Returns a list of slices corresponding to the masked clumps of a 1-D array. (A “clump” is defined as a contiguous region of the array).

\textbf{Parameters}

\texttt{a}

[ndarray] A one-dimensional masked array.
Returns

slices

[list of slice] The list of slices, one for each continuous region of masked elements in $a$.

See also:

`flatnotmasked_edges, flatnotmasked_contiguous, notmasked_edges`
`notmasked_contiguous, clump_unmasked`

Notes

New in version 1.4.0.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.ma.masked_array(np.arange(10))
>>> a[[0, 1, 2, 6, 8, 9]] = np.ma.masked
>>> np.ma.clump_masked(a)
[slice(0, 3, None), slice(6, 7, None), slice(8, 10, None)]
```

Parameters

- a

[ndarray] A one-dimensional masked array.

Returns

slices

[list of slice] The list of slices, one for each continuous region of unmasked elements in $a$.

See also:

`flatnotmasked_edges, flatnotmasked_contiguous, notmasked_edges`
`notmasked_contiguous, clump_unmasked`
Notes

New in version 1.4.0.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.ma.masked_array(np.arange(10))
>>> a[[0, 1, 2, 6, 8, 9]] = np.ma.masked
>>> np.ma.clump_unmasked(a)
[<掩码的开始>, slice(3, 6, None), slice(7, 8, None)]
```

Modifying a mask

```python
ma.mask_cols(a[, axis])

Mask columns of a 2D array that contain masked values.

This function is a shortcut to mask_rowcols with axis equal to 1.

See also:

mask_rowcols

Mask rows and/or columns of a 2D array.

mask_where

Mask where a condition is met.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.zeros((3, 3), dtype=int)
>>> a[1, 1] = 1
>>> a
array([[0, 0, 0],
        [0, 1, 0],
        [0, 0, 0]])
>>> a = ma.masked_equal(a, 1)
>>> a
masked_array(
    data=[[0, 0, 0],
          [0, 1, 0],
          [0, 0, 0]],
    mask=[[False, False, False],
          [False, True, False],
          [False, False, False]],
    fill_value=1)
```
(continues on next page)
```python
[0, --, 0],
[0, 0, 0]],
mask=[[False, False, False],
      [False, True, False],
      [False, False, False]],
fill_value=1)
```
**mask_cols**

Mask cols of a 2D array that contain masked values.

**masked_where**

Mask where a condition is met.

**Notes**

The input array's mask is modified by this function.

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.zeros((3, 3), dtype=int)
>>> a[1, 1] = 1
>>> a
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 1, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])
>>> a = ma.masked_equal(a, 1)
>>> a
masked_array(data=[[0, --, 0],
                   [--, --, --],
                   [0, --, 0]],
             mask=[[False, True, False],
                   [True, True, True],
                   [False, True, False]],
             fill_value=1)
```

**ma.mask_rowcols(a)**

Mask rows of a 2D array that contain masked values.

This function is a shortcut to `mask_rowcols` with `axis` equal to 0.

**See also:**

**mask_rowcols**

Mask rows and/or columns of a 2D array.

**masked_where**

Mask where a condition is met.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.zeros((3, 3), dtype=int)
>>> a[1, 1] = 1
>>> a
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 1, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])
>>> a = ma.masked_equal(a, 1)
>>> a
masked_array(data=[[0, 0, 0],
                   [0, --, 0],
                   [0, 0, 0]],
            mask=[[False, False, False],
                   [False, True, False],
                   [False, False, False]],
            fill_value=1)
>>> ma.mask_rows(a)
masked_array(data=[[0, 0, 0],
                   [--, --, --],
                   [0, 0, 0]],
            mask=[[False, False, False],
                   [ True, True, True],
                   [False, False, False]],
            fill_value=1)
```

`ma.harden_mask(self)` = `<numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>`

Force the mask to hard.

Whether the mask of a masked array is hard or soft is determined by its `hardmask` property. `harden_mask` sets `hardmask` to True.

See also:

`ma.MaskedArray.hardmask`

`ma.soften_mask(self)` = `<numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>`

Force the mask to soft.

Whether the mask of a masked array is hard or soft is determined by its `hardmask` property. `soften_mask` sets `hardmask` to False.

See also:

`ma.MaskedArray.hardmask`
Conversion operations

> to a masked array

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<td><code>ma.asarray(a[, dtype, order])</code></td>
<td>Convert the input to a masked array of the given data-type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.asanyarray(a[, dtype])</code></td>
<td>Convert the input to a masked array, conserving subclasses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.fix_invalid(a[, mask, copy, fill_value])</code></td>
<td>Return input with invalid data masked and replaced by a fill value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_equal(x, value[, copy])</code></td>
<td>Mask an array where equal to a given value.</td>
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<td><code>ma.masked_greater(x, value[, copy])</code></td>
<td>Mask an array where greater than a given value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_greater_equal(x, value[, copy])</code></td>
<td>Mask an array where greater than or equal to a given value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_inside(x, v1, v2[, copy])</code></td>
<td>Mask an array inside a given interval.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_invalid(a[, copy])</code></td>
<td>Mask an array where invalid values occur (NaNs or infs).</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_less(x, value[, copy])</code></td>
<td>Mask an array where less than a given value.</td>
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<td><code>ma.masked_less_equal(x, value[, copy])</code></td>
<td>Mask an array where less than or equal to a given value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_not_equal(x, value[, copy])</code></td>
<td>Mask an array where not equal to a given value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_object(x, value[, copy, shrink])</code></td>
<td>Mask the array <code>x</code> where the data are exactly equal to value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_outside(x, v1, v2[, copy])</code></td>
<td>Mask an array outside a given interval.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_values(x, value[, rtol, atol, ...])</code></td>
<td>Mask using floating point equality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.masked_where(condition, a[, copy])</code></td>
<td>Mask an array where a condition is met.</td>
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> to a ndarray

<table>
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<td><code>ma.compress_cols(a)</code></td>
<td>Suppress whole columns of a 2-D array that contain masked values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.compress_rowcols(x[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Suppress the rows and/or columns of a 2-D array that contain masked values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.compress_rows(a)</code></td>
<td>Suppress whole rows of a 2-D array that contain masked values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.compressed(x)</code></td>
<td>Return all the non-masked data as a 1-D array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.filled(a[, fill_value])</code></td>
<td>Return input as an array with masked data replaced by a fill value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.compressed()</code></td>
<td>Return all the non-masked data as a 1-D array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.filled([fill_value])</code></td>
<td>Return a copy of self, with masked values filled with a given value.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`ma.compress_cols(a)`
Suppress whole columns of a 2-D array that contain masked values.

This is equivalent to `np.ma.compress_rowcols(a, 1)`, see `compress_rowcols` for details.

See also:

`compress_rowcols`

`ma.compress_rowcols(x, axis=None)`
Suppress the rows and/or columns of a 2-D array that contain masked values.

The suppression behavior is selected with the `axis` parameter.

- If axis is None, both rows and columns are suppressed.
• If axis is 0, only rows are suppressed.
• If axis is 1 or -1, only columns are suppressed.

Parameters

x

[array_like, MaskedArray] The array to operate on. If not a MaskedArray instance (or if no array elements are masked), x is interpreted as a MaskedArray with mask set to nomask. Must be a 2D array.

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which to perform the operation. Default is None.

Returns

compressed_array

[ndarray] The compressed array.

Examples

```python
g = np.ma.array(np.arange(9).reshape(3, 3), mask=[[1, 0, 0],
          [1, 0, 0],
          [0, 0, 0]])
g
masked_array(data=[[-, 1, 2],
  [-, 4, 5],
  [6, 7, 8]],
mask=[[ True, False, False],
  [ True, False, False],
  [False, False, False]],
fill_value=999999)

np.ma.compress_rowcols(g)
array([[7, 8]])

np.ma.compress_rowcols(g, 0)
array([[6, 7, 8]])

np.ma.compress_rowcols(g, 1)
array([[1, 2],
  [4, 5],
  [7, 8]])
```

**ma.compress_rows(a)**

Suppress whole rows of a 2-D array that contain masked values.

This is equivalent to np.ma.compress_rowcols(a, 0), see compress_rowcols for details.

See also:

compress_rowcols

**ma.compressed(x)**

Return all the non-masked data as a 1-D array.
This function is equivalent to calling the “compressed” method of a `ma.MaskedArray`, see `ma.MaskedArray.compressed` for details.

See also:

`ma.MaskedArray.compressed`

Equivalent method.

`ma.filled(a, fill_value=None)`

Return input as an array with masked data replaced by a fill value.

If `a` is not a `MaskedArray`, `a` itself is returned. If `a` is a `MaskedArray` and `fill_value` is None, `fill_value` is set to `a.fill_value`.

Parameters

- `a`
  [MaskedArray or array_like] An input object.

- `fill_value`
  [array_like, optional.] Can be scalar or non-scalar. If non-scalar, the resulting filled array should be broadcastable over input array. Default is None.

Returns

- `a`
  [ndarray] The filled array.

See also:

`compressed`

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array(np.arange(9).reshape(3, 3), mask=[[1, 0, 0],
...                                                   [1, 0, 0],
...                                                   [0, 0, 0]])
>>> x.filled()
array([[999999, 1, 2],
       [999999, 4, 5],
       [ 6, 7, 8]])
>>> x.filled(fill_value=333)
array([[333, 1, 2],
       [333, 4, 5],
       [ 6, 7, 8]])
>>> x.filled(fill_value=np.arange(3))
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [0, 4, 5],
       [6, 7, 8]])
```
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

> to another object

<table>
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<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.tofile(fid[, sep, format])</code></td>
<td>Save a masked array to a file in binary format.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.tolist([fill_value])</code></td>
<td>Return the data portion of the masked array as a hierarchical Python list.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.torecords()</code></td>
<td>Transforms a masked array into a flexible-type array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.tobytes([fill_value, order])</code></td>
<td>Return the array data as a string containing the raw bytes in the array.</td>
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Filling a masked array

<table>
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<td><code>ma.common_fill_value(a, b)</code></td>
<td>Return the common filling value of two masked arrays, if any.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.default_fill_value(obj)</code></td>
<td>Return the default fill value for the argument object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.maximum_fill_value(obj)</code></td>
<td>Return the minimum value that can be represented by the dtype of an object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.minimum_fill_value(obj)</code></td>
<td>Return the maximum value that can be represented by the dtype of an object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.set_fill_value(a, fill_value)</code></td>
<td>Set the filling value of <code>a</code>, if <code>a</code> is a masked array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.get_fill_value()</code></td>
<td>The filling value of the masked array is a scalar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.set_fill_value([value])</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
ma.common_fill_value(a, b)

Return the common filling value of two masked arrays, if any.

If `a.fill_value == b.fill_value`, return the fill value, otherwise return None.

Parameters

a, b

[MaskedArray] The masked arrays for which to compare fill values.

Returns

fill_value

[scalar or None] The common fill value, or None.
```

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([0, 1.], fill_value=3)
>>> y = np.ma.array([0, 1.], fill_value=3)
>>> np.ma.common_fill_value(x, y)
3.0
```

```python
ma.default_fill_value(obj)

Return the default fill value for the argument object.

The default filling value depends on the datatype of the input array or the type of the input scalar:
```
For structured types, a structured scalar is returned, with each field the default fill value for its type.
For subarray types, the fill value is an array of the same size containing the default scalar fill value.

**Parameters**

  **obj**

  [ndarray, dtype or scalar] The array data-type or scalar for which the default fill value is returned.

**Returns**

  **fill_value**

  [scalar] The default fill value.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.ma.default_fill_value(1)
999999
>>> np.ma.default_fill_value(np.array([1.1, 2., np.pi]))
1e+20
>>> np.ma.default_fill_value(np.dtype(complex))
(1e+20+0j)
```

**ma.maximum_fill_value** *(obj)*

Return the minimum value that can be represented by the dtype of an object.
This function is useful for calculating a fill value suitable for taking the maximum of an array with a given dtype.

**Parameters**

  **obj**

  [ndarray, dtype or scalar] An object that can be queried for it's numeric type.

**Returns**

  **val**

  [scalar] The minimum representable value.

**Raises**

  TypeError

  If *obj* isn’t a suitable numeric type.

1.7. Masked arrays
See also:

*minimum_fill_value*

The inverse function.

*set_fill_value*

Set the filling value of a masked array.

*MaskedArray.fill_value*

Return current fill value.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.int8()
>>> ma.maximum_fill_value(a)
-128
>>> a = np.int32()
>>> ma.maximum_fill_value(a)
-2147483648
```

An array of numeric data can also be passed.

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.int8)
>>> ma.maximum_fill_value(a)
-128
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.float32)
>>> ma.maximum_fill_value(a)
-inf
```

*ma.minimum_fill_value(obj)*

Return the maximum value that can be represented by the dtype of an object.

This function is useful for calculating a fill value suitable for taking the minimum of an array with a given dtype.

Parameters

*obj*  
[ndarray, dtype or scalar] An object that can be queried for its numeric type.

Returns

*val*  
[scalar] The maximum representable value.

Raises

*TypeError*

If *obj* isn’t a suitable numeric type.

See also:
maximum_fill_value

The inverse function.

set_fill_value

Set the filling value of a masked array.

MaskedArray.fill_value

Return current fill value.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.int8()
>>> ma.minimum_fill_value(a)
127
>>> a = np.int32()
>>> ma.minimum_fill_value(a)
2147483647
```

An array of numeric data can also be passed.

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], dtype=np.int8])
>>> ma.minimum_fill_value(a)
127
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], dtype=np.float32])
>>> ma.minimum_fill_value(a)
inf
```

ma.set_fill_value(a, fill_value)

Set the filling value of a, if a is a masked array.

This function changes the fill value of the masked array a in place. If a is not a masked array, the function returns silently, without doing anything.

Parameters

a

[array_like] Input array.

fill_value

[datatype] Filling value. A consistency test is performed to make sure the value is compatible with the dtype of a.

Returns

None

Nothing returned by this function.

See also:

maximum_fill_value

Return the default fill value for a dtype.
**MaskedArray.fill_value**

Return current fill value.

**MaskedArray.set_fill_value**

Equivalent method.

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.ma as ma
>>> a = np.arange(5)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> a = ma.masked_where(a < 3, a)
>>> a
masked_array(data=[--, --, --, 3, 4],
             mask=[ True, True, True, False, False],
          fill_value=999999)
>>> ma.set_fill_value(a, -999)
>>> a
masked_array(data=[--, --, --, 3, 4],
             mask=[ True, True, True, False, False],
          fill_value=-999)
Nothing happens if a is not a masked array.

>>> a = list(range(5))
>>> a
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
>>> ma.set_fill_value(a, 100)
>>> a
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
```

**ma.MaskedArray.fill_value**  
The filling value of the masked array is a scalar.

**Masked arrays arithmetics**

**Arithmetics**

- `ma.anom(self[, axis, dtype])`  
  Compute the anomalies (deviations from the arithmetic mean) along the given axis.

- `ma.anomalies(self[, axis, dtype])`  
  Compute the anomalies (deviations from the arithmetic mean) along the given axis.

- `ma.average(a[, axis, weights, returned])`  
  Return the weighted average of array over the given axis.

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<td><code>ma.conjugate(x, /[, out, where, casting, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.corrcoef(x[, y, rowvar, bias, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.cov(x[, y, rowvar, bias, allow_masked, ddof])</code></td>
<td>Estimate the covariance matrix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.cumsum(self[, axis, dtype, out])</code></td>
<td>Return the cumulative sum of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.cumprod(self[, axis, dtype, out])</code></td>
<td>Return the cumulative product of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.mean(self[, axis, dtype, out, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Returns the average of the array elements along given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.median(a[, axis, out, overwrite_input, ...])</code></td>
<td>Compute the median along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.power(a, b[, third])</code></td>
<td>Returns element-wise base array raised to power from second array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.prod(self[, axis, dtype, out, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Return the product of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.std(self[, axis, dtype, out, ddof, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Returns the standard deviation of the array elements along given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.sum(self[, axis, dtype, out, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Return the sum of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.var(self[, axis, dtype, out, ddof, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Compute the variance along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.anom([axis, dtype])</code></td>
<td>Compute the anomalies (deviations from the arithmetic mean) along the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.cumprod([axis, dtype, out])</code></td>
<td>Return the cumulative product of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.cumsum([axis, dtype, out])</code></td>
<td>Return the cumulative sum of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.mean([axis, dtype, out, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Returns the average of the array elements along given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.prod([axis, dtype, out, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Return the product of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.std([axis, dtype, out, ddof, ...])</code></td>
<td>Returns the standard deviation of the array elements along given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.sum([axis, dtype, out, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Return the sum of the array elements over the given axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.var([axis, dtype, out, ddof, ...])</code></td>
<td>Compute the variance along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`ma.anom (self, axis=None, dtype=None) = <numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>`

Compute the anomalies (deviations from the arithmetic mean) along the given axis.

Returns an array of anomalies, with the same shape as the input and where the arithmetic mean is computed along the given axis.

**Parameters**

- **axis**  
  [int, optional] Axis over which the anomalies are taken. The default is to use the mean of the flattened array as reference.

- **dtype**  
  [dtype, optional]

**Type to use in computing the variance. For arrays of integer type**

the default is float32; for arrays of float types it is the same as the array type.

**See also:**

1.7. Masked arrays 379
**mean**

Compute the mean of the array.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> a.anom()
masked_array(data=[-1., 0., 1.],
             mask=False,
             fill_value=1e+20)
```

`ma.anomalies` *(self, axis=None, dtype=None) = <numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>*

Compute the anomalies (deviations from the arithmetic mean) along the given axis.

Returns an array of anomalies, with the same shape as the input and where the arithmetic mean is computed along the given axis.

**Parameters**

- **axis**
  
  [int, optional] Axis over which the anomalies are taken. The default is to use the mean of the flattened array as reference.

- **dtype**
  
  [dtype, optional]
  
  Type to use in computing the variance. For arrays of integer type the default is float32; for arrays of float types it is the same as the array type.

**See also:**

**mean**

Compute the mean of the array.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> a.anom()
masked_array(data=[-1., 0., 1.],
             mask=False,
             fill_value=1e+20)
```

`ma.average` *(a, axis=None, weights=None, returned=False)*

Return the weighted average of array over the given axis.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [array_like] Data to be averaged. Masked entries are not taken into account in the computation.
axis

[int, optional] Axis along which to average a. If None, averaging is done over the flattened array.

weights

[array_like, optional] The importance that each element has in the computation of the average. The weights array can either be 1-D (in which case its length must be the size of a along the given axis) or of the same shape as a. If weights=None, then all data in a are assumed to have a weight equal to one. The 1-D calculation is:

\[ \text{avg} = \frac{\sum(a \times \text{weights})}{\sum(\text{weights})} \]

The only constraint on weights is that \( \sum(\text{weights}) \) must not be 0.

returned

[bool, optional] Flag indicating whether a tuple \((\text{result, sum of weights})\) should be returned as output (True), or just the result (False). Default is False.

Returns

average, [sum_of_weights]

[(tuple of) scalar or MaskedArray] The average along the specified axis. When returned is True, return a tuple with the average as the first element and the sum of the weights as the second element. The return type is np.float64 if a is of integer type and floats smaller than float64, or the input data-type, otherwise. If returned, sum_of_weights is always float64.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([1., 2., 3., 4.], mask=[False, False, True, True])
>>> np.ma.average(a, weights=[3, 1, 0, 0])
1.25

>>> x = np.ma.arange(6.).reshape(3, 2)
>>> x
masked_array(
    data=[[0., 1.],
          [2., 3.],
          [4., 5.]],
    mask=False,
    fill_value=1e+20)
>>> avg, sumweights = np.ma.average(x, axis=0, weights=[1, 2, 3],
... returned=True)
>>> avg
masked_array(data=[2.6666666666666665, 3.6666666666666665],
             mask=[False, False],
             fill_value=1e+20)
```

\text{ma.conjugate} (x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <numpy.ma.core._MaskedUnaryOperation object>

Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.

The complex conjugate of a complex number is obtained by changing the sign of its imaginary part.

Parameters

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x

[array_like] Input value.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] The complex conjugate of x, with same dtype as y. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

Notes

conj is an alias for conjugate:

```python
>>> np.conj is np.conjugate
True
```

Examples

```python
>>> np.conjugate(1+2j)
(1-2j)

>>> x = np.eye(2) + 1j * np.eye(2)
>>> np.conjugate(x)
array([[ 1.-1.j,  0.-0.j],
       [ 0.-0.j,  1.-1.j]])
```

ma.corrcoef (x, y=None, rowvar=True, bias=<no value>, allow_masked=True, ddof=<no value>)

Return Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients.

Except for the handling of missing data this function does the same as numpy.corrcoef. For more details and examples, see numpy.corrcoef.

Parameters

x

[array_like] A 1-D or 2-D array containing multiple variables and observations. Each row of x represents a variable, and each column a single observation of all those variables. Also see rowvar below.
y

[array_like, optional] An additional set of variables and observations. y has the same shape as x.

rowvar

[bool, optional] If rowvar is True (default), then each row represents a variable, with observations in the columns. Otherwise, the relationship is transposed: each column represents a variable, while the rows contain observations.

bias

[_NoValue, optional] Has no effect, do not use. Depreciated since version 1.10.0.

allow_masked

[bool, optional] If True, masked values are propagated pair-wise: if a value is masked in x, the corresponding value is masked in y. If False, raises an exception. Because bias is deprecated, this argument needs to be treated as keyword only to avoid a warning.

ddf

[_NoValue, optional] Has no effect, do not use. Depreciated since version 1.10.0.

See also:

numpy.corrcoef

Equivalent function in top-level NumPy module.

cov

Estimate the covariance matrix.

Notes

This function accepts but discards arguments bias and ddf. This is for backwards compatibility with previous versions of this function. These arguments had no effect on the return values of the function and can be safely ignored in this and previous versions of numpy.

ma.cov (x, y=None, rowvar=True, bias=False, allow_masked=True, ddf=None)

Estimate the covariance matrix.

Except for the handling of missing data this function does the same as numpy.cov. For more details and examples, see numpy.cov.

By default, masked values are recognized as such. If x and y have the same shape, a common mask is allocated: if x[i, j] is masked, then y[i, j] will also be masked. Setting allow_masked to False will raise an exception if values are missing in either of the input arrays.

Parameters

x

[array_like] A 1-D or 2-D array containing multiple variables and observations. Each row of x represents a variable, and each column a single observation of all those variables. Also see rowvar below.
y

[array_like, optional] An additional set of variables and observations. y has the same shape as x.

rowvar

[bool, optional] If rowvar is True (default), then each row represents a variable, with observations in the columns. Otherwise, the relationship is transposed: each column represents a variable, while the rows contain observations.

bias

[bool, optional] Default normalization (False) is by \((N-1)\), where \(N\) is the number of observations given (unbiased estimate). If bias is True, then normalization is by \(N\). This keyword can be overridden by the keyword ddof in numpy versions >= 1.5.

allow_masked

[bool, optional] If True, masked values are propagated pair-wise: if a value is masked in x, the corresponding value is masked in y. If False, raises a ValueError exception when some values are missing.

ddof

[[None, int], optional] If not None normalization is by \((N - \text{ddof})\), where \(N\) is the number of observations; this overrides the value implied by bias. The default value is None.

New in version 1.5.

Raises

ValueError

Raised if some values are missing and allow_masked is False.

See also:

numpy.cov

ma.cumsum (self, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None) = <numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>

Return the cumulative sum of the array elements over the given axis.

Masked values are set to 0 internally during the computation. However, their position is saved, and the result will be masked at the same locations.

Refer to numpy.cumsum for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.ndarray.cumsum

corresponding function for ndarrays

numpy.cumsum

equivalent function
Notes

The mask is lost if `out` is not a valid `ma.MaskedArray`!

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow.

Examples

```python
>>> marr = np.ma.array(np.arange(10), mask=[0,0,0,1,1,0,0,0,0,0])
>>> marr.cumsum()
masked_array(data=[0, 1, 3, --, --, --, 9, 16, 24, 33],
             mask=[False, False, False, True, True, True, False, False,
                    False, False],
            fill_value=999999)
```

`ma.cumprod` (self, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the cumulative product of the array elements over the given axis.

Masked values are set to 1 internally during the computation. However, their position is saved, and the result will be masked at the same locations.

Refer to `numpy.cumprod` for full documentation.

See also:

- `numpy.ndarray.cumprod`
  corresponding function for ndarrays
- `numpy.cumprod`
  equivalent function

Notes

The mask is lost if `out` is not a valid MaskedArray!

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow.

`ma.mean` (self, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)

Returns the average of the array elements along given axis.

Masked entries are ignored, and result elements which are not finite will be masked.

Refer to `numpy.mean` for full documentation.

See also:

- `numpy.ndarray.mean`
  corresponding function for ndarrays
- `numpy.mean`
  Equivalent function
- `numpy.ma.average`
  Weighted average.
Examples

>>> a = np.ma.array([1, 2, 3], mask=[False, False, True])
>>> a
masked_array(data=[1, 2, --],
             mask=[False, False, True],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> a.mean()
1.5

ma.median(a, axis=None, out=None, overwrite_input=False, keepdims=False)
Compute the median along the specified axis.

Returns the median of the array elements.

Parameters

a
[array_like] Input array or object that can be converted to an array.

axis
[int, optional] Axis along which the medians are computed. The default (None) is to compute the median along a flattened version of the array.

out
[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output but the type will be cast if necessary.

overwrite_input
[bool, optional] If True, then allow use of memory of input array (a) for calculations. The input array will be modified by the call to median. This will save memory when you do not need to preserve the contents of the input array. Treat the input as undefined, but it will probably be fully or partially sorted. Default is False. Note that, if overwrite_input is True, and the input is not already an ndarray, an error will be raised.

keepdims
[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

New in version 1.10.0.

Returns

median
[ndarray] A new array holding the result is returned unless out is specified, in which case a reference to out is returned. Return data-type is float64 for integers and floats smaller than float64, or the input data-type, otherwise.

See also:

mean
Notes

Given a vector $V$ with $N$ non masked values, the median of $V$ is the middle value of a sorted copy of $V$ ($Vs$) - i.e. $Vs[(N-1)/2]$, when $N$ is odd, or $\{Vs[N/2 \ - \ 1] + Vs[N/2]\}/2$ when $N$ is even.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array(np.arange(8), mask=[0]*4 + [1]*4)
>>> np.ma.median(x)
1.5

>>> x = np.ma.array(np.arange(10).reshape(2, 5), mask=[0]*6 + [1]*4)
>>> np.ma.median(x)
2.5
>>> np.ma.median(x, axis=-1, overwrite_input=True)
masked_array(data=[2.0, 5.0],
            mask=[False, False],
           fill_value=1e+20)
```

```
ma.power(a, b, third=None)
Returns element-wise base array raised to power from second array.
This is the masked array version of numpy.power. For details see numpy.power.

See also:

numpy.power
```

Notes

The `out` argument to numpy.power is not supported, `third` has to be None.

```
ma.prod(self, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>) =
    <numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>
Return the product of the array elements over the given axis.
Masked elements are set to 1 internally for computation.
Refer to numpy.prod for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.ndarray.prod
    corresponding function for ndarrays

numpy.prod
    equivalent function
```

1.7. Masked arrays
Notes

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow.

\[ \text{ma.std}(\text{self}, \text{axis} = \text{None}, \text{dtype} = \text{None}, \text{out} = \text{None}, \text{ddof} = 0, \text{keepdims} = \text{<no value>}) = \]
\[ <\text{numpy.ma.core._frommethod object}> \]

Returns the standard deviation of the array elements along given axis.

Masked entries are ignored.

Refer to \textit{numpy.std} for full documentation.

See also:

\textit{numpy.ndarray.std}

- corresponding function for ndarrays

\textit{numpy.std}

- Equivalent function

\[ \text{ma.sum}(\text{self}, \text{axis} = \text{None}, \text{dtype} = \text{None}, \text{out} = \text{None}, \text{keepdims} = \text{<no value>}) = \]
\[ <\text{numpy.ma.core._frommethod object}> \]

Return the sum of the array elements over the given axis.

Masked elements are set to 0 internally.

Refer to \textit{numpy.sum} for full documentation.

See also:

\textit{numpy.ndarray.sum}

- corresponding function for ndarrays

\textit{numpy.sum}

- equivalent function

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]], mask=[0] + [1, 0]*4)
>>> x
masked_array(data=[[1, --, 3],
                  [--, 5, --],
                  [7, --, 9]],
               mask=[[False, True, False],
                     [True, False, True],
                     [False, True, False]],
               fill_value=999999)
>>> x.sum()
25
>>> x.sum(axis=1)
masked_array(data=[4, 5, 16],
             mask=[[False, False, False],
                   [True, False, True],
                   [False, False, False]],
             fill_value=999999)
>>> x.sum(axis=0)
masked_array(data=[8, 5, 12],
             mask=[[False, False, False],
                   [False, False, False],
                   [False, False, False]],
             fill_value=999999)
```

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```python
>>> print(type(x.sum(axis=0, dtype=np.int64)[0]))
<class 'numpy.int64'>
```

```
ma.var (self, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=<no value>) =
<numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>
```

Compute the variance along the specified axis.

Returns the variance of the array elements, a measure of the spread of a distribution. The variance is computed for the flattened array by default, otherwise over the specified axis.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] Array containing numbers whose variance is desired. If a is not an array, a conversion is attempted.

- **axis**
  - [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which the variance is computed. The default is to compute the variance of the flattened array.
  - New in version 1.7.0.
  - If this is a tuple of ints, a variance is performed over multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

- **dtype**
  - [data-type, optional] Type to use in computing the variance. For arrays of integer type the default is float64; for arrays of float types it is the same as the array type.

- **out**
  - [ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type is cast if necessary.

- **ddof**
  - [int, optional] “Delta Degrees of Freedom”: the divisor used in the calculation is \( N - ddof \), where \( N \) represents the number of elements. By default \( ddof \) is zero.

- **keepdims**
  - [bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

  - If the default value is passed, then keepdims will not be passed through to the var method of sub-classes of ndarray, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class’ method does not implement keepdims any exceptions will be raised.

- **where**
  - [array_like of bool, optional] Elements to include in the variance. See reduce for details.

  - New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

1.7. Masked arrays
variance

[ndarray, see dtype parameter above] If out=None, returns a new array containing the variance; otherwise, a reference to the output array is returned.

See also:

std, mean, nanmean, nanstd, nanvar

Output type determination

Notes

The variance is the average of the squared deviations from the mean, i.e., \( \text{var} = \text{mean}(x) \), where \( x = \text{abs}(a - a.\text{mean()})^2 \).

The mean is typically calculated as \( x.\text{sum()} / N \), where \( N = \text{len}(x) \). If, however, \( \text{ddof} \) is specified, the divisor \( N - \text{ddof} \) is used instead. In standard statistical practice, \( \text{ddof}=1 \) provides an unbiased estimator of the variance of a hypothetical infinite population. \( \text{ddof}=0 \) provides a maximum likelihood estimate of the variance for normally distributed variables.

Note that for complex numbers, the absolute value is taken before squaring, so that the result is always real and nonnegative.

For floating-point input, the variance is computed using the same precision the input has. Depending on the input data, this can cause the results to be inaccurate, especially for float32 (see example below). Specifying a higher-accuracy accumulator using the dtype keyword can alleviate this issue.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> np.var(a)
1.25
>>> np.var(a, axis=0)
array([1., 1.])
>>> np.var(a, axis=1)
array([0.25, 0.25])
```

In single precision, var() can be inaccurate:

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((2, 512*512), dtype=np.float32)
>>> a[0, :] = 1.0
>>> a[1, :] = 0.1
>>> np.var(a)
0.20250003
```

Computing the variance in float64 is more accurate:

```python
>>> np.var(a, dtype=np.float64)
0.20249999932944759 # may vary
```

Specifying a where argument:
>>> a = np.array([[14, 8, 11, 10], [7, 9, 10, 11], [10, 15, 5, 10]])
>>> np.var(a)
6.833333333333333 # may vary
>>> np.var(a, where=[[True], [True], [False]])
4.0

**Minimum/maximum**

```
ma.argmax(self[, axis, fill_value, out])
```

Returns array of indices of the maximum values along the given axis.

```
ma.argmin(self[, axis, fill_value, out])
```

Return array of indices to the minimum values along the given axis.

```
ma.max(obj[, axis, out, fill_value, keepdims])
```

Return the maximum along a given axis.

```
ma.min(obj[, axis, out, fill_value, keepdims])
```

Return the minimum along a given axis.

```
ma.ptp(obj[, axis, out, fill_value, keepdims])
```

Return (maximum - minimum) along the given dimension (i.e.

```
ma.MaskedArray.argmax([axis, fill_value, out])
```

Returns array of indices of the maximum values along the given axis. Masked values are treated as if they had the value fill_value.

```
ma.MaskedArray.argmin([axis, fill_value, out])
```

Return array of indices to the minimum values along the given axis.

```
ma.MaskedArray.max([axis, out, fill_value, ...])
```

Return the maximum along a given axis.

```
ma.MaskedArray.min([axis, out, fill_value, ...])
```

Return the minimum along a given axis.

```
ma.MaskedArray.ptp([axis, out, fill_value, ...])
```

Return (maximum - minimum) along the given dimension (i.e.

```
ma.argmax (self, axis=None, fill_value=None, out=None) = <numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>
```

Returns array of indices of the maximum values along the given axis. Masked values are treated as if they had the value fill_value.

**Parameters**

- **axis**

  [[None, integer]] If None, the index is into the flattened array, otherwise along the specified axis

- **fill_value**

  [scalar or None, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values. If None, the output of maximum_fill_value(self._data) is used instead.

- **out**

  [[None, array], optional] Array into which the result can be placed. Its type is preserved and it must be of the right shape to hold the output.

**Returns**

- **index_array**

  [[integer_array]]
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> a.argmax()
5
>>> a.argmax(0)
array([1, 1, 1])
>>> a.argmax(1)
array([2, 2])
```

`ma.argmin(self, axis=None, fill_value=None, out=None)` = `<numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>

Return array of indices to the minimum values along the given axis.

Parameters

- **axis**
  - ([None, integer]) If None, the index is into the flattened array, otherwise along the specified axis

- **fill_value**
  - [scalar or None, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values. If None, the output of `minimum_fill_value(self._data)` is used instead.

- **out**
  - ([None, array], optional] Array into which the result can be placed. Its type is preserved and it must be of the right shape to hold the output.

Returns

- ndarray or scalar
  - If multi-dimension input, returns a new ndarray of indices to the minimum values along the given axis. Otherwise, returns a scalar of index to the minimum values along the given axis.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array(np.arange(4), mask=[1,1,0,0])
>>> x.shape = (2,2)
>>> x
masked_array(
    data=[[-- --],
          [2, 3]],
    mask=[[ True, True],
          [False, False]],
    fill_value=999999)
>>> x.argmin(axis=0, fill_value=-1)
array([0, 0])
>>> x.argmin(axis=0, fill_value=9)
array([1, 1])
```

`ma.max(obj, axis=None, out=None, fill_value=None, keepdims=<no value>)`

Return the maximum along a given axis.

Parameters
axis

[(None, int), optional] Axis along which to operate. By default, axis is None and the flattened input is used.

out

[array_like, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. Must be of the same shape and buffer length as the expected output.

fill_value

[scalar or None, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values. If None, use the output of maximum_fill_value().

keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the array.

Returns

amax

[array_like] New array holding the result. If out was specified, out is returned.

See also:

ma.maximum_fill_value

Returns the maximum filling value for a given datatype.

ma.min (obj, axis=None, out=None, fill_value=None, keepdims=<no value>)

Return the minimum along a given axis.

Parameters

axis

[(None, int), optional] Axis along which to operate. By default, axis is None and the flattened input is used.

out

[array_like, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. Must be of the same shape and buffer length as the expected output.

fill_value

[scalar or None, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values. If None, use the output of minimum_fill_value.

keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the array.

Returns

amin

[array_like] New array holding the result. If out was specified, out is returned.
See also:

`ma.minimum_fill_value`

Returns the minimum filling value for a given datatype.

```
ma.ptp(obj, axis=None, out=None, fill_value=None, keepdims=<no value>)
```

Return (maximum - minimum) along the given dimension (i.e. peak-to-peak value).

**Warning:** `ptp` preserves the data type of the array. This means the return value for an input of signed integers with n bits (e.g. `np.int8`, `np.int16`, etc) is also a signed integer with n bits. In that case, peak-to-peak values greater than \(2^{n-1}-1\) will be returned as negative values. An example with a work-around is shown below.

### Parameters

- **axis**
  - [{None, int}, optional] Axis along which to find the peaks. If None (default) the flattened array is used.

- **out**
  - [{None, array_like}, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output but the type will be cast if necessary.

- **fill_value**
  - [scalar or None, optional] Value used to fill in the masked values.

- **keepdims**
  - [bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the array.

### Returns

- **ptp**
  - [ndarray.] A new array holding the result, unless `out` was specified, in which case a reference to `out` is returned.

### Examples

```
>>> x = np.ma.MaskedArray([[4, 9, 2, 10],
... [6, 9, 7, 12]])

>>> x.ptp(axis=1)
masked_array(data=[8, 6],
            mask=False,
            fill_value=999999)
```
This example shows that a negative value can be returned when the input is an array of signed integers.

A work-around is to use the `view()` method to view the result as unsigned integers with the same bit width:

```python
>>> y.ptp(axis=1).view(np.uint8)
masked_array(data=[126, 127, 128, 129],
             mask=False,
             fill_value=999999,
             dtype=uint8)
```

---

### Sorting

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<td><code>ma.argsort()</code></td>
<td>Return an ndarray of indices that sort the array along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.sort()</code></td>
<td>Return a sorted copy of the masked array.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.argsort()</code></td>
<td>Return an ndarray of indices that sort the array along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.sort()</code></td>
<td>Sort the array, in-place</td>
</tr>
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</table>

```python
ma.argsort(a[, axis, kind, order, endwith, …])
```

Return an ndarray of indices that sort the array along the specified axis. Masked values are filled beforehand to `fill_value`.

**Parameters**

- **axis**
  
  [int, optional] Axis along which to sort. If None, the default, the flattened array is used.

  Changed in version 1.13.0: Previously, the default was documented to be -1, but that was in error. At some future date, the default will change to -1, as originally intended. Until then, the axis should be given explicitly when `arr.ndim > 1`, to avoid a `FutureWarning`.

- **kind**
  

- **order**
  
  [optional]
[list, optional] When \( a \) is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. Not all fields need be specified.

endwith

[[True, False], optional] Whether missing values (if any) should be treated as the largest values (True) or the smallest values (False) When the array contains unmasked values at the same extremes of the datatype, the ordering of these values and the masked values is undefined.

fill_value

[scalar or None, optional] Value used internally for the masked values. If \( \text{fill\_value} \) is not None, it supersedes endwith.

Returns

index_array

[ndarray, int] Array of indices that sort \( a \) along the specified axis. In other words, \( a[\text{index\_array}] \) yields a sorted \( a \).

See also:

\( \text{ma.MaskeArray.sort} \)

Describes sorting algorithms used.

\( \text{lexsort} \)

Indirect stable sort with multiple keys.

\( \text{numpy.ndarray.sort} \)

Inplace sort.

Notes

See \( \text{sort} \) for notes on the different sorting algorithms.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([3,2,1], mask=[False, False, True])
>>> a
masked_array(data=[3, 2, --],
              mask=[False, False, True],
         fill_value=999999)
>>> a.argsort()
array([1, 0, 2])
```

\( \text{ma.sort} \ (a, \text{axis}=-1, \text{kind}=\text{None}, \text{order}=\text{None}, \text{endwith}=\text{True}, \text{fill\_value}=\text{None}) \)

Return a sorted copy of the masked array.

Equivalent to creating a copy of the array and applying the MaskedArray sort() method.

Refer to MaskedArray.sort for the full documentation

See also:
**MaskedArray.sort**

equivalent method

### Algebra

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<td><code>ma.diag(v[, k])</code></td>
<td>Extract a diagonal or construct a diagonal array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.dot(a, b[, strict, out])</code></td>
<td>Return the dot product of two arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.identity(n[, dtype])</code></td>
<td>Return the identity array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.outer(a, b)</code></td>
<td>Inner product of two arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.innerproduct(a, b)</code></td>
<td>Inner product of two arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.outerproduct(a, b)</code></td>
<td>Compute the outer product of two vectors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.trace(self[, offset, axis1, axis2, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the sum along diagonals of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.transpose(a[, axes])</code></td>
<td>Permute the dimensions of an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.trace([offset, axis1, axis2, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the sum along diagonals of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ma.MaskedArray.transpose(*axes)</code></td>
<td>Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`ma.diag(v, k=0)`

Extract a diagonal or construct a diagonal array.

This function is the equivalent of `numpy.diag` that takes masked values into account, see `numpy.diag` for details.

**See also:**

`numpy.diag`

Equivalent function for ndarrays.

`ma.dot(a, b, strict=False, out=None)`

Return the dot product of two arrays.

This function is the equivalent of `numpy.dot` that takes masked values into account. Note that `strict` and `out` are in different position than in the method version. In order to maintain compatibility with the corresponding method, it is recommended that the optional arguments be treated as keyword only. At some point that may be mandatory.

**Note:** Works only with 2-D arrays at the moment.

**Parameters**

- **a, b**
  
  [masked_array_like] Inputs arrays.

- **strict**
  
  [bool, optional] Whether masked data are propagated (True) or set to 0 (False) for the computation. Default is False. Propagating the mask means that if a masked value appears in a row or column, the whole row or column is considered masked.

- **out**
  
  [masked_array, optional] Output argument. This must have the exact kind that would be returned if it was not used. In particular, it must have the right type, must be C-contiguous, and its dtype must be the dtype that would be returned for `dot(a, b)`. This is a performance feature.
Therefore, if these conditions are not met, an exception is raised, instead of attempting to be flexible.

New in version 1.10.2.

See also:

numpy.dot

Equivalent function for ndarrays.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], mask=[[1, 0, 0], [0, 0, 0]])
>>> b = np.ma.array([[1, 2], [3, 4], [5, 6]], mask=[[1, 0], [0, 0], [0, 0]])
>>> np.ma.dot(a, b)
masked_array(
    data=[[21, 26],
          [45, 64]],
    mask=[[False, False],
          [False, False]],
    fill_value=999999)
>>> np.ma.dot(a, b, strict=True)
masked_array(
    data=[[--, --],
          [--, 64]],
    mask=[[ True, True],
          [ True, False]],
    fill_value=999999)
```

ma.identity(n, dtype=None) = <numpy.ma.core._convert2ma object>

Return the identity array.

The identity array is a square array with ones on the main diagonal.

Parameters

n

[int] Number of rows (and columns) in n x n output.

dtype

[data-type, optional] Data-type of the output. Defaults to float.

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray] n x n array with its main diagonal set to one, and all other elements 0.
Examples

```python
>>> np.identity(3)
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
```

```python
ma.inner(a, b)
```

Inner product of two arrays.

Ordinary inner product of vectors for 1-D arrays (without complex conjugation), in higher dimensions a sum product over the last axes.

Parameters

a, b
[array_like] If a and b are nonscalar, their last dimensions must match.

Returns

out
[ndarray] If a and b are both scalars or both 1-D arrays then a scalar is returned; otherwise an array is returned. out.shape = (*a.shape[:-1], *b.shape[:-1])

Raises

ValueError
If both a and b are nonscalar and their last dimensions have different sizes.

See also:

tensordot
Sum products over arbitrary axes.
dot
Generalised matrix product, using second last dimension of b.
einsum
Einstein summation convention.

Notes

Masked values are replaced by 0.

For vectors (1-D arrays) it computes the ordinary inner-product:

```python
np.inner(a, b) = sum(a[:] * b[:])
```

More generally, if `ndim(a) = r > 0` and `ndim(b) = s > 0`:

```python
np.inner(a, b) = np.tensordot(a, b, axes=([-1], [-1]))
```

or explicitly:
np.inner(a, b)[i0,...,ir-2,j0,...,js-2]  
= sum(a[i0,...,ir-2,:]*b[j0,...,js-2,:])

In addition $a$ or $b$ may be scalars, in which case:

```python
np.inner(a, b) = a*b
```

**Examples**

Ordinary inner product for vectors:

```python
>>> a = np.array([1,2,3])
>>> b = np.array([0,1,0])
>>> np.inner(a, b)
2
```

Some multidimensional examples:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(24).reshape((2,3,4))
>>> b = np.arange(4)
>>> c = np.inner(a, b)
>>> c.shape
(2, 3)
>>> c
array([[ 14, 38, 62],
       [ 86, 110, 134]])
```

```python
>>> a = np.arange(2).reshape((1,1,2))
>>> b = np.arange(6).reshape((3,2))
>>> c = np.inner(a, b)
>>> c.shape
(1, 1, 3)
>>> c
array([[[1, 3, 5]]])
```

An example where $b$ is a scalar:

```python
>>> np.inner(np.eye(2), 7)
array([[ 7., 0.],
       [ 0., 7.]])
```

```python
ma.innerproduct(a, b)
```

Inner product of two arrays.

Ordinary inner product of vectors for 1-D arrays (without complex conjugation), in higher dimensions a sum product over the last axes.

**Parameters**

- **a**, **b**  
  [array_like] If $a$ and $b$ are non-scalar, their last dimensions must match.

**Returns**

- **out**
[ndarray] If \( a \) and \( b \) are both scalars or both 1-D arrays then a scalar is returned; otherwise an array is returned. \( \text{out.shape} = (*\text{a.shape}[:-1], *\text{b.shape}[:-1]) \)

**Raises**

**ValueError**

If both \( a \) and \( b \) are nonscalar and their last dimensions have different sizes.

**See also:**

- **tensordot**

  Sum products over arbitrary axes.

- **dot**

  Generalised matrix product, using second last dimension of \( b \).

- **einsum**

  Einstein summation convention.

**Notes**

Masked values are replaced by 0.

For vectors (1-D arrays) it computes the ordinary inner-product:

\[
\text{np.inner}(a, b) = \text{sum}(a[:] * b[:])
\]

More generally, if \( \text{ndim}(a) = r > 0 \) and \( \text{ndim}(b) = s > 0 \):

\[
\text{np.inner}(a, b) = \text{np.tensordot}(a, b, \text{axes}=(1,-1))
\]

or explicitly:

\[
\text{np.inner}(a, b)[i0,\ldots,ir-2,j0,\ldots,js-2] = \text{sum}(a[i0,\ldots,ir-2,:]*b[j0,\ldots,js-2,:])
\]

In addition \( a \) or \( b \) may be scalars, in which case:

\[
\text{np.inner}(a, b) = a * b
\]

**Examples**

Ordinary inner product for vectors:

\[
\begin{align*}
>>> a & = \text{np.array}([[1,2,3]]) \\
>>> b & = \text{np.array}([[0,1,0]]) \\
>>> \text{np.inner}(a, b) & \quad 2
\end{align*}
\]

Some multidimensional examples:
```python
>>> a = np.arange(24).reshape((2,3,4))
>>> b = np.arange(4)
>>> c = np.inner(a, b)
>>> c.shape
(2, 3)
>>> c
array([[ 14,  38,  62],
       [ 86, 110, 134]])
```

```python
>>> a = np.arange(2).reshape((1,1,2))
>>> b = np.arange(6).reshape((3,2))
>>> c = np.inner(a, b)
>>> c.shape
(1, 1, 3)
>>> c
array([[[1, 3, 5]]])
```

An example where $b$ is a scalar:

```python
>>> np.inner(np.eye(2), 7)
array([[ 7.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  7.]])
```

```
ma.outer(a, b)

Compute the outer product of two vectors.

Given two vectors, $a = [a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_M]$ and $b = [b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_N]$, the outer product $[1]$ is:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  a_0 \cdot b_0 & a_0 \cdot b_1 & \ldots & a_0 \cdot b_M \\
  a_1 \cdot b_0 & a_1 \cdot b_1 & \ldots & a_1 \cdot b_M \\
  \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
  a_M \cdot b_0 & a_M \cdot b_1 & \ldots & a_M \cdot b_M
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Parameters

- a
  - [(M,)] array_like First input vector. Input is flattened if not already 1-dimensional.

- b
  - [(N,)] array_like Second input vector. Input is flattened if not already 1-dimensional.

out
- [(M, N) ndarray, optional] A location where the result is stored

New in version 1.9.0.

Returns

- out
  - [(M, N) ndarray] \( \text{out}[i, j] = a[i] \cdot b[j] \)

See also:

inner
```

402 Chapter 1. Array objects
**einsum**

\[
einsum('i,j->ij', \text{a.ravel()}, \text{b.ravel()}) \text{ is the equivalent.}
\]

**ufunc.outer**

A generalization to dimensions other than 1D and other operations. \(\text{np.multiply.outer(a.ravel(), b.ravel())}\) is the equivalent.

**tensordot**

\[
\text{np.tensordot(a.ravel(), b.ravel(), axes=(), ())} \text{ is the equivalent.}
\]

**Notes**

Masked values are replaced by 0.

**References**

[1]

**Examples**

Make a (very coarse) grid for computing a Mandelbrot set:

```python
>>> rl = np.outer(np.ones((5,)), np.linspace(-2, 2, 5))
>>> rl
array([[-2., -1.,  0.,  1.,  2.],
       [-2., -1.,  0.,  1.,  2.],
       [-2., -1.,  0.,  1.,  2.],
       [-2., -1.,  0.,  1.,  2.],
       [-2., -1.,  0.,  1.,  2.]])
>>> im = np.outer(1j*np.linspace(2, -2, 5), np.ones((5,)))
>>> im
array([[ 0.+2.j,  0.+2.j,  0.+2.j,  0.+2.j,  0.+2.j],
       [ 0.+1.j,  0.+1.j,  0.+1.j,  0.+1.j,  0.+1.j],
       [ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j],
       [ 0.-1.j,  0.-1.j,  0.-1.j,  0.-1.j,  0.-1.j],
       [ 0.-2.j,  0.-2.j,  0.-2.j,  0.-2.j,  0.-2.j]])
>>> grid = rl + im
>>> grid
array([[-2.+2.j, -1.+2.j,  0.+2.j,  1.+2.j,  2.+2.j],
       [-2.+1.j, -1.+1.j,  0.+1.j,  1.+1.j,  2.+1.j],
       [-2.+0.j, -1.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  1.+0.j,  2.+0.j],
       [-2.-1.j, -1.-1.j,  0.-1.j,  1.-1.j,  2.-1.j],
       [-2.-2.j, -1.-2.j,  0.-2.j,  1.-2.j,  2.-2.j]])
```

An example using a “vector” of letters:

```python
>>> x = np.array(['a', 'b', 'c'], dtype=object)
>>> np.outer(x, [1, 2, 3])
array([['a', 'aa', 'aaa'],
       ['b', 'bb', 'bbb'],
       ['c', 'cc', 'ccc']], dtype=object)
```
ma.outerproduct(a, b)

Compute the outer product of two vectors.

Given two vectors, \(a = [a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_M]\) and \(b = [b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_N]\), the outer product \([i]\) is:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
a_0 b_0 & a_1 b_0 & \cdots & a_M b_0 \\
a_0 b_1 & a_1 b_1 & \cdots & a_M b_1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
a_0 b_N & a_1 b_N & \cdots & a_M b_N \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Parameters

- \(a\)
  
  \[(M,)\text{array_like}\] First input vector. Input is flattened if not already 1-dimensional.

- \(b\)
  
  \[(N,)\text{array_like}\] Second input vector. Input is flattened if not already 1-dimensional.

- \(\text{out}\)
  
  \[(M,N)\text{ndarray}\] A location where the result is stored

New in version 1.9.0.

Returns

- \(\text{out}\)
  
  \[(M,N)\text{ndarray}\]

\(\text{out}[i, j] = a[i] * b[j]\)

See also:

- inner
- einsum

\[
einsum('i,j->ij', a.ravel(), b.ravel())\] is the equivalent.

- ufunc.outer

A generalization to dimensions other than 1D and other operations. \(np.multiply.outer(a.ravel(), b.ravel())\) is the equivalent.

- tensordot

\(np.tensordot(a.ravel(), b.ravel(), axes=(), ())\) is the equivalent.

Notes

Masked values are replaced by 0.
References

[1]

Examples

Make a (very coarse) grid for computing a Mandelbrot set:

```python
>>> rl = np.outer(np.ones((5,)), np.linspace(-2, 2, 5))
>>> rl
array([[-2., -1., 0., 1., 2.],
       [-2., -1., 0., 1., 2.],
       [-2., -1., 0., 1., 2.],
       [-2., -1., 0., 1., 2.]])
>>> im = np.outer(1j*np.linspace(2, -2, 5), np.ones((5,)))
>>> im
array([[0.+2.j, 0.+2.j, 0.+2.j, 0.+2.j, 0.+2.j],
       [0.+1.j, 0.+1.j, 0.+1.j, 0.+1.j, 0.+1.j],
       [0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.-1.j, 0.-1.j, 0.-1.j, 0.-1.j, 0.-1.j],
       [0.-2.j, 0.-2.j, 0.-2.j, 0.-2.j, 0.-2.j]])
>>> grid = rl + im
>>> grid
array([[-2.+2.j, -1.+2.j, 0.+2.j, 1.+2.j, 2.+2.j],
       [-2.+1.j, -1.+1.j, 0.+1.j, 1.+1.j, 2.+1.j],
       [-2.+0.j, -1.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 1.+0.j, 2.+0.j],
       [-2.-1.j, -1.-1.j, 0.-1.j, 1.-1.j, 2.-1.j],
       [-2.-2.j, -1.-2.j, 0.-2.j, 1.-2.j, 2.-2.j]])
```

An example using a “vector” of letters:

```python
>>> x = np.array([['a', 'b', 'c']], dtype=object)
>>> np.outer(x, [1, 2, 3])
array([['aa', 'aaa'],
       ['bb', 'bbb'],
       ['cc', 'ccc']], dtype=object)
```

```
ma.trace (self, offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1, dtype=None, out=None) a.trace(offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1, dtype=None, out=None) = <numpy.ma.core._frommethod object>
```

Return the sum along diagonals of the array.

Refer to `numpy.trace` for full documentation.

See also:

`numpy.trace`

equivalent function
Polynomial fit

\( \textit{ma.vander}(x[, n]) \) Generate a Vandermonde matrix.

\( \textit{ma.polyfit}(x, y, \text{deg[, } rcond, \text{full, w, cov]}) \) Least squares polynomial fit.

**ma.vander\( (x, n=None) \)**

Generate a Vandermonde matrix.

The columns of the output matrix are powers of the input vector. The order of the powers is determined by the `increasing` boolean argument. Specifically, when `increasing` is False, the \( i \)-th output column is the input vector raised element-wise to the power of \( N - i - 1 \). Such a matrix with a geometric progression in each row is named for Alexandre-Theophile Vandermonde.

**Parameters**

\( x \)

[array_like] 1-D input array.

\( N \)

[int, optional] Number of columns in the output. If \( N \) is not specified, a square array is returned \((N = \text{len}(x))\).

**increasing**

[bool, optional] Order of the powers of the columns. If True, the powers increase from left to right, if False (the default) they are reversed.

New in version 1.9.0.

**Returns**

\( \text{out} \)

[ndarray] Vandermonde matrix. If `increasing` is False, the first column is \( x^{(N-1)} \), the second \( x^{(N-2)} \) and so forth. If `increasing` is True, the columns are \( x^0, x^1, \ldots, x^{(N-1)} \).

**See also:**

`polynomial.polynomial.polyvander`

**Notes**

Masked values in the input array result in rows of zeros.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3, 5])
>>> N = 3
>>> np.vander(x, N)
array([[ 1,  1,  1],
       [ 4,  2,  1],
       [ 9,  3,  1],
       [25,  5,  1]])
>>> np.column_stack(([x**(N-1-i) for i in range(N)]))
array([[ 1,  1,  1],
       [ 4,  2,  1],
       [ 9,  3,  1],
       [25,  5,  1]])
```

The determinant of a square Vandermonde matrix is the product of the differences between the values of the input vector:

```python
>>> np.linalg.det(np.vander(x))
48.000000000000043 # may vary
>>> (5-3) * (5-2) * (5-1) * (3-2) * (3-1) * (2-1)
48
```

```
ma.polyfit(x, y, deg, rcond=None, full=False, w=None, cov=False)
Least squares polynomial fit.
```

Note: This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in numpy.polynomial is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the transition guide.

Fit a polynomial \( p(x) = p[0] \times x^\text{deg} + \ldots + p[\text{deg}] \) of degree \( \text{deg} \) to points \( (x, y) \). Returns a vector of coefficients \( p \) that minimises the squared error in the order \( \text{deg}, \text{deg}-1, \ldots 0 \).

The Polynomial.fit class method is recommended for new code as it is more stable numerically. See the documentation of the method for more information.

Parameters

x

[array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points \( (x[i], y[i]) \).

y
[array_like, shape (M,) or (M, K)] y-coordinates of the sample points. Several data sets of sample points sharing the same x-coordinates can be fitted at once by passing in a 2D-array that contains one dataset per column.

deg
[int] Degree of the fitting polynomial

rcond
[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is \( \text{len}(x) \times \text{eps} \), where \( \text{eps} \) is the relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.

full
[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

w
[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights to apply to the y-coordinates of the sample points. For gaussian uncertainties, use \( 1/\sigma \) (not \( 1/\sigma^2 \)).

cov
[bool or str, optional] If given and not False, return not just the estimate but also its covariance matrix. By default, the covariance are scaled by \( \text{chi2}/\text{dof} \), where \( \text{dof} = M - (\text{deg} + 1) \), i.e., the weights are presumed to be unreliable except in a relative sense and everything is scaled such that the reduced chi2 is unity. This scaling is omitted if \( \text{cov}='\text{unscaled}' \), as is relevant for the case that the weights are \( 1/\sigma^2 \), with \( \sigma \) known to be a reliable estimate of the uncertainty.

Returns

p
[ndarray, shape (deg + 1,) or (deg + 1, K)] Polynomial coefficients, highest power first. If \( y \) was 2-D, the coefficients for \( k \)-th dataset are in \( p[:,k] \).

residuals, rank, singular_values, rcond

Present only if \( \text{full} = \text{True} \). Residuals is sum of squared residuals of the least-squares fit, the effective rank of the scaled Vandermonde coefficient matrix, its singular values, and the specified value of \( \text{rcond} \). For more details, see \texttt{numpy.linalg.lstsq}.

V
[ndarray, shape (M,M) or (M,M,K)] Present only if \( \text{full} = \text{False} \) and \( \text{cov}='\text{True}' \). The covariance matrix of the polynomial coefficient estimates. The diagonal of this matrix are the variance estimates for each coefficient. If \( y \) is a 2-D array, then the covariance matrix for the \( k \)-th data set are in \( V[:, :, k] \).

Warns

RankWarning

The rank of the coefficient matrix in the least-squares fit is deficient. The warning is only raised if \( \text{full} = \text{False} \).

The warnings can be turned off by
```python
>>> import warnings
>>> warnings.simplefilter('ignore', np.RankWarning)
```

See also:

**polyval**

Compute polynomial values.

**linalg.lstsq**

Computes a least-squares fit.

**scipy.interpolate.UnivariateSpline**

Computes spline fits.

**Notes**

Any masked values in x is propagated in y, and vice-versa.

The solution minimizes the squared error

\[ E = \sum_{j=0}^{k} |p(x_j) - y_j|^2 \]

in the equations:

\[ \begin{align*}
    x[0]^{n} \times p[0] + \ldots + x[0] \times p[n-1] + p[n] & = y[0] \\
    \ldots \\
    x[k]^{n} \times p[0] + \ldots + x[k] \times p[n-1] + p[n] & = y[k]
\end{align*} \]

The coefficient matrix of the coefficients \( p \) is a Vandermonde matrix.

**polyfit** issues a `RankWarning` when the least-squares fit is badly conditioned. This implies that the best fit is not well-defined due to numerical error. The results may be improved by lowering the polynomial degree or by replacing \( x \) by \( x - x.mean() \). The `rcond` parameter can also be set to a value smaller than its default, but the resulting fit may be spurious: including contributions from the small singular values can add numerical noise to the result.

Note that fitting polynomial coefficients is inherently badly conditioned when the degree of the polynomial is large or the interval of sample points is badly centered. The quality of the fit should always be checked in these cases. When polynomial fits are not satisfactory, splines may be a good alternative.

**References**

[1], [2]
Examples

```python
>>> import warnings
>>> x = np.array([0.0, 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0])
>>> y = np.array([0.0, 0.8, 0.9, 0.1, -0.8, -1.0])
>>> z = np.polyfit(x, y, 3)
>>> z
array([ 0.08703704, -0.81349206, 1.69312169, -0.03968254]) # may vary
```

It is convenient to use `poly1d` objects for dealing with polynomials:

```python
>>> p = np.poly1d(z)
>>> p(0.5)
0.6143849206349179 # may vary
>>> p(3.5)
-0.34732142857143039 # may vary
>>> p(10)
22.579365079365115 # may vary
```

High-order polynomials may oscillate wildly:

```python
>>> with warnings.catch_warnings():
...    warnings.simplefilter('ignore', np.RankWarning)
...    p30 = np.poly1d(np.polyfit(x, y, 30))
...    ...
>>> p30(4)
-0.80000000000000204 # may vary
>>> p30(5)
-0.99999999999999445 # may vary
>>> p30(4.5)
-0.10547061179440398 # may vary
```

Illustration:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> xp = np.linspace(-2, 6, 100)
>>> _ = plt.plot(x, y, '.', xp, p(xp), '-', xp, p30(xp), '--')
>>> plt.ylim(-2, 2)
(-2, 2)
>>> plt.show()
```

Clipping and rounding

```
ma.around
Round an array to the given number of decimals.

ma.clip(a, a_min, a_max[, out])
Clip (limit) the values in an array.

ma.round(a[, decimals, out])
Return a copy of a, rounded to 'decimals' places.

ma.MaskedArray.clip([min, max, out])
Return an array whose values are limited to [min, max].

ma.MaskedArray.round([decimals, out])
Return each element rounded to the given number of decimals.
```

```python
ma.around = <numpy.ma.core._MaskedUnaryOperation object>
Round an array to the given number of decimals.

See also:
```
around

equivalent function; see for details.

\texttt{ma.clip}(a, a\_min, a\_max, out=None, **kwargs)

Clip (limit) the values in an array.

Given an interval, values outside the interval are clipped to the interval edges. For example, if an interval of [0, 1] is specified, values smaller than 0 become 0, and values larger than 1 become 1.

Equivalent to but faster than \texttt{np.minimum(a\_max, np.maximum(a, a\_min))}.

No check is performed to ensure \(a\_min < a\_max\).

\textbf{Parameters}

\textbf{a}

[array_like] Array containing elements to clip.

\textbf{a\_min, a\_max}

[array_like or None] Minimum and maximum value. If None, clipping is not performed on the corresponding edge. Only one of \(a\_min\) and \(a\_max\) may be None. Both are broadcast against \(a\).

\textbf{out}

[ndarray, optional] The results will be placed in this array. It may be the input array for in-place clipping. \(out\) must be of the right shape to hold the output. Its type is preserved.

\textbf{**kwargs}

For other keyword-only arguments, see the \texttt{ufunc docs}.

New in version 1.17.0.

\textbf{Returns}

\texttt{clipped\_array}
A NumPy array with the elements of \(a\), but where values \(<a_{\text{min}}\) are replaced with \(a_{\text{min}}\),
and those \(>a_{\text{max}}\) with \(a_{\text{max}}\).

See also:

Output type determination

Notes

When \(a_{\text{min}}\) is greater than \(a_{\text{max}}\), \text{clip} returns an array in which all values are equal to \(a_{\text{max}}\), as shown in the second example.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(10)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
>>> np.clip(a, 1, 8)
array([1, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 8])
>>> np.clip(a, 8, 1)
array([1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1])
>>> np.clip(a, 3, 6, out=a)
array([3, 3, 3, 3, 4, 5, 6, 6, 6, 6])
>>> a
array([3, 3, 3, 3, 4, 5, 6, 6, 6, 6])
```
Notes

If out is given and does not have a mask attribute, the mask of a is lost!

Miscellanea

### `ma.allequal(a, b[, fill_value])`

Return True if all entries of a and b are equal, using fill_value as a truth value where either or both are masked.

**Parameters**

- `a, b`
  - [array_like] Input arrays to compare.

- `fill_value`
  - [bool, optional] Whether masked values in a or b are considered equal (True) or not (False).

**Returns**

- `y`
  - [bool] Returns True if the two arrays are equal within the given tolerance, False otherwise. If either array contains NaN, then False is returned.

**See also:**

- `all, any`
- `numpy.ma.allclose`
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.ma.array([1e10, 1e-7, 42.0], mask=[0, 0, 1])
>>> a
masked_array(data=[10000000000.0, 1e-07, --],
            mask=[False, False, True],
            fill_value=1e+20)
```  
```python
>>> b = np.array([1e10, 1e-7, -42.0])
>>> b
array([1.00000000e+10, 1.00000000e-07, -4.20000000e+01])
>>> np.ma.allclose(a, b, fill_value=False)
False
>>> np.ma.allclose(a, b)
True
```  

`np.ma.allclose(a, b, masked_equal=True, rtol=1e-05, atol=1e-08)`  
Returns True if two arrays are element-wise equal within a tolerance.  
This function is equivalent to `allclose` except that masked values are treated as equal (default) or unequal, depending on the `masked_equal` argument.

Parameters

- **a, b**  
  [array_like] Input arrays to compare.

- **masked_equal**  
  [bool, optional] Whether masked values in a and b are considered equal (True) or not (False). They are considered equal by default.

- **rtol**  
  [float, optional] Relative tolerance. The relative difference is equal to `rtol * b`. Default is 1e-5.

- **atol**  
  [float, optional] Absolute tolerance. The absolute difference is equal to `atol`. Default is 1e-8.

Returns

- **y**  
  [bool] Returns True if the two arrays are equal within the given tolerance, False otherwise. If either array contains NaN, then False is returned.

See also:

- `all`, `any`
- `numpy.allclose`
  
  the non-masked `allclose`.  


Notes

If the following equation is element-wise True, then `allclose` returns True:

```python
absolute(`a` - `b`) <= (`atol` + `rtol` * absolute(`b`))
```

Return True if all elements of `a` and `b` are equal subject to given tolerances.

Examples

```python
generate examples
```

```
np.allclose(a, b)
False
np.allclose(a, b)
True
np.allclose(a, b)
False
```

```
np.allclose(a, b)
False
np.allclose(a, b)
False
```

```python
ma.apply_along_axis(func1d, axis, arr, *args, **kwargs)
```

Apply a function to 1-D slices along the given axis.

Execute `func1d(a, *args, **kwargs)` where `func1d` operates on 1-D arrays and `a` is a 1-D slice of `arr` along `axis`.

This is equivalent to (but faster than) the following use of `ndindex` and `s_`, which sets each of `ii`, `jj`, and `kk` to a tuple of indices:

```python
Ni, Nk = a.shape[:axis], a.shape[axis+1:]
for ii in ndindex(Ni):
    for kk in ndindex(Nk):
        f = func1d(arr[ii + s_[...,] + kk])
        Nj = f.shape
        for jj in ndindex(Nj):
            out[ii + jj + kk] = f[jj]
```

Equivalently, eliminating the inner loop, this can be expressed as:

```python
Ni, Nk = a.shape[:axis], a.shape[axis+1:]
for ii in ndindex(Ni):
    for kk in ndindex(Nk):
        out[ii + s_[...,] + kk] = func1d(arr[ii + s_[...,] + kk])
```

1.7. Masked arrays
Parameters

func1d

[function (M,) -> (Nj…)] This function should accept 1-D arrays. It is applied to 1-D slices of
arr along the specified axis.

axis

[integer] Axis along which arr is sliced.

arr

[ndarray (Ni…, M, Nk…)] Input array.

args

[any] Additional arguments to func1d.

kwargs

[any] Additional named arguments to func1d.

New in version 1.9.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray (Ni…, Nj…, Nk…)] The output array. The shape of out is identical to the shape of
arr, except along the axis dimension. This axis is removed, and replaced with new dimensions
equal to the shape of the return value of func1d. So if func1d returns a scalar out will have
one fewer dimensions than arr.

See also:

apply_over_axes

Apply a function repeatedly over multiple axes.

Examples

```python
def my_func(a):
    return (a[0] + a[-1]) / 2

b = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]])
np.apply_along_axis(my_func, 0, b)  # array([4., 5., 6.])
np.apply_along_axis(my_func, 1, b)  # array([2., 5., 8.])
```

For a function that returns a 1D array, the number of dimensions in outarr is the same as arr.

```python
b = np.array([[8, 1, 7], [4, 3, 9], [5, 2, 6]])
np.apply_along_axis(sorted, 1, b)  # array([[1, 3, 7],
    [2, 3, 5],
    [4, 5, 6]])
```

For a function that returns a higher dimensional array, those dimensions are inserted in place of the axis dimension.
```
>>> b = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]])
>>> np.apply_along_axis(np.diag, -1, b)
array([[1, 0, 0],
       [0, 2, 0],
       [0, 0, 3]],
       [[4, 0, 0],
        [0, 5, 0],
        [0, 0, 6]],
       [[7, 0, 0],
        [0, 8, 0],
        [0, 0, 9]]])
```

```
ma.apply_over_axes(func, a, axes)

Apply a function repeatedly over multiple axes.

func is called as res = func(a, axis), where axis is the first element of axes. The result res of the function call must have either the same dimensions as a or one less dimension. If res has one less dimension than a, a dimension is inserted before axis. The call to func is then repeated for each axis in axes, with res as the first argument.

Parameters

func

[function] This function must take two arguments, func(a, axis).

a

[array_like] Input array.

axes

[array_like] Axes over which func is applied; the elements must be integers.

Returns

apply_over_axis

[ndarray] The output array. The number of dimensions is the same as a, but the shape can be different. This depends on whether func changes the shape of its output with respect to its input.

See also:

apply_along_axis

Apply a function to 1-D slices of an array along the given axis.

Examples

```
>>> a = np.ma.arange(24).reshape(2, 3, 4)
>>> a[1,0,1] = np.ma.masked
>>> a[1,1,:] = np.ma.masked
>>> a
masked_array(
    data=[[0, --, 2, 3],
          [--, --, --, --],
          [8, 9, 10, 11]],[[12, --, 14, 15],
          [0, 0, 9]]])
```
```
Tuple axis arguments to ufuncs are equivalent:

```python
>>> np.ma.apply_over_axes(np.ma.sum, a, [0, 2])
masked_array
data=[[46],
[--],
[124]],
mask=[[False],
[ True],
[False]],
fill_value=999999)
```

```python
>>> np.ma.sum(a, axis=(0, 2)).reshape((1,-1,1))
mixed_array
data=[[46],
[--],
[124]],
mask=[[False],
[ True],
[False]],
fill_value=999999)
```

```python
ma.arange([start], stop[, step], dtype=None, *, like=None) = <numpy.ma.core._convert2ma object>
```

Return evenly spaced values within a given interval.

Values are generated within the half-open interval `[start, stop)` (in other words, the interval including `start` but excluding `stop`). For integer arguments the function is equivalent to the Python built-in `range` function, but returns an ndarray rather than a list.

When using a non-integer step, such as 0.1, the results will often not be consistent. It is better to use `numpy.linspace` for these cases.

Parameters

- `start`
  - [integer or real, optional] Start of interval. The interval includes this value. The default start value is 0.

- `stop`
  - [integer or real] End of interval. The interval does not include this value, except in some cases where `step` is not an integer and floating point round-off affects the length of `out`.

- `step`
  - [integer or real, optional] Spacing between values. For any output `out`, this is the distance between two adjacent values, `out[i+1] - out[i]`. The default step size is 1. If `step` is specified as a position argument, `start` must also be given.
dtype

[dtypes] The type of the output array. If dtype is not given, infer the data type from the other input arguments.

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

arange

[ndarray] Array of evenly spaced values.

For floating point arguments, the length of the result is ceil((stop - start)/step). Because of floating point overflow, this rule may result in the last element of out being greater than stop.

See also:

numpy.linspace

Evenly spaced numbers with careful handling of endpoints.

numpy.ogrid

Arrays of evenly spaced numbers in N-dimensions.

numpy.mgrid

Grid-shaped arrays of evenly spaced numbers in N-dimensions.

Examples

```python
>>> np.arange(3)
array([0, 1, 2])
>>> np.arange(3.0)
array([ 0.,  1.,  2.])
>>> np.arange(3,7)
array([3, 4, 5, 6])
>>> np.arange(3,7,2)
array([3, 5])
```

ma.choose (indices, choices, out=None, mode='raise')

Use an index array to construct a new array from a list of choices.

Given an array of integers and a list of n choice arrays, this method will create a new array that merges each of the choice arrays. Where a value in index is i, the new array will have the value that choices[i] contains in the same place.

Parameters
indices

[ndarray of ints] This array must contain integers in [0, n-1], where n is the number of choices.

choices

[sequence of arrays] Choice arrays. The index array and all of the choices should be broadcastable to the same shape.

out

[array, optional] If provided, the result will be inserted into this array. It should be of the appropriate shape and dtype.

mode

[['raise', 'wrap', 'clip'], optional] Specifies how out-of-bounds indices will behave.
- 'raise': raise an error
- 'wrap': wrap around
- 'clip': clip to the range

Returns

merged_array

[array]

See also:

choose

equivalent function

Examples

```python
>>> choice = np.array([[1,1,1], [2,2,2], [3,3,3]])
>>> a = np.array([2, 1, 0])
>>> np.ma.choose(a, choice)
masked_array(data=[3, 2, 1],
        mask=False,
       fill_value=999999)
```

ma.ediff1d(arr, to_end=None, to_begin=None)

Compute the differences between consecutive elements of an array.

This function is the equivalent of numpy.ediff1d that takes masked values into account, see numpy.ediff1d for details.

See also:

numpy.ediff1d

Equivalent function for ndarrays.
`ma.indices(dimensions, dtype=<class 'int'>, sparse=False)`

Return an array representing the indices of a grid.

Compute an array where the subarrays contain index values 0, 1, ... varying only along the corresponding axis.

**Parameters**

- **dimensions**
  - [sequence of ints] The shape of the grid.

- **dtype**
  - [dtype, optional] Data type of the result.

- **sparse**

**Returns**

**grid**
- [one ndarray or tuple of ndarrays]

  **If sparse is False:**
  - Returns one array of grid indices, `grid.shape = (len(dimensions),) + tuple(dimensions)`.

  **If sparse is True:**
  - Returns a tuple of arrays, with `grid[i].shape = (1, ..., 1, dimensions[i], 1, ..., 1)` with `dimensions[i]` in the i-th place

**See also:**

`mgrid, ogrid, meshgrid`

**Notes**

The output shape in the dense case is obtained by prepending the number of dimensions in front of the tuple of dimensions, i.e. if `dimensions` is a tuple `(r0, ..., rN-1)` of length N, the output shape is `(N, r0, ..., rN-1)`.

The subarrays `grid[k]` contains the N-D array of indices along the k-th axis. Explicitly:

```
grid[k, i0, i1, ..., iN-1] = ik
```
Examples

```python
>>> grid = np.indices((2, 3))
>>> grid.shape
(2, 2, 3)
>>> grid[0]  # row indices
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [1, 1, 1]])
>>> grid[1]  # column indices
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [0, 1, 2]])
```

The indices can be used as an index into an array.

```python
>>> x = np.arange(20).reshape(5, 4)
>>> row, col = np.indices((2, 3))
>>> x[row, col]
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [4, 5, 6]])
```

Note that it would be more straightforward in the above example to extract the required elements directly with `x[:2, :3]`.

If sparse is set to true, the grid will be returned in a sparse representation.

```python
>>> i, j = np.indices((2, 3), sparse=True)
>>> i.shape
(2, 1)
>>> j.shape
(1, 3)
>>> i  # row indices
array([[0],
       [1]])
>>> j  # column indices
array([[0, 1, 2]])
```

```
ma.where(condition, x=<no value>, y=<no value>)
```

Return a masked array with elements from `x` or `y`, depending on `condition`.

**Note:** When only `condition` is provided, this function is identical to ` nonzero`. The rest of this documentation covers only the case where all three arguments are provided.

**Parameters**

- **condition**
  - [array_like, bool] Where True, yield `x`, otherwise yield `y`.

- **x, y**
  - [array_like, optional] Values from which to choose. `x`, `y` and `condition` need to be broadcastable to some shape.

**Returns**

- **out**
[MaskedArray] An masked array with masked elements where the condition is masked, elements from x where condition is True, and elements from y elsewhere.

See also:

numpy.where

Equivalent function in the top-level NumPy module.

nonzero

The function that is called when x and y are omitted

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.ma.array(np.arange(9).reshape(3, 3), mask=[[0, 1, 0],
... [1, 0, 1],
... [0, 1, 0]])
```

```python
def where(x, y, z):
    return x
```
support at least one of these attributes. Objects wishing to support an N-dimensional array in application code should look for at least one of these attributes and use the information provided appropriately.

This interface describes homogeneous arrays in the sense that each item of the array has the same “type”. This type can be very simple or it can be a quite arbitrary and complicated C-like structure.

There are two ways to use the interface: A Python side and a C-side. Both are separate attributes.

### 1.8.1 Python side

This approach to the interface consists of the object having an `__array_interface__` attribute.

```python
object.__array_interface__
```

A dictionary of items (3 required and 5 optional). The optional keys in the dictionary have implied defaults if they are not provided.

The keys are:

- **shape (required)**
  
  Tuple whose elements are the array size in each dimension. Each entry is an integer (a Python `int`). Note that these integers could be larger than the platform `int` or `long` could hold (a Python `int` is a C `long`). It is up to the code using this attribute to handle this appropriately; either by raising an error when overflow is possible, or by using `long long` as the C type for the shapes.

- **typestr (required)**
  
  A string providing the basic type of the homogeneous array. The basic string format consists of 3 parts: a character describing the byteorder of the data (`<`: little-endian, `>`: big-endian, `|`: not-relevant), a character code giving the basic type of the array, and an integer providing the number of bytes the type uses.

  The basic type character codes are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>Bitfield (following integer gives the number of bits in the bit field).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>Boolean (integer type where all values are only True or False)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>Unsigned integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>Floating point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>Complex floating point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>Timedelta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Datetime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Object (i.e. the memory contains a pointer to <code>PyObject</code>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>String (fixed-length sequence of char)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>Unicode (fixed-length sequence of <code>Py_UNICODE</code>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Other (void* – each item is a fixed-size chunk of memory)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **descr (optional)**
  
  A list of tuples providing a more detailed description of the memory layout for each item in the homogeneous array. Each tuple in the list has two or three elements. Normally, this attribute would be used when `typestr` is `V[0-9]+`, but this is not a requirement. The only requirement is that the number of bytes represented in the `typestr` key is the same as the total number of bytes represented here. The idea is to support descriptions of C-like structs that make up array elements. The elements of each tuple in the list are:

  1. A string providing a name associated with this portion of the datatype. This could also be a tuple of (`'full name', 'basic_name'`) where basic name would be a valid Python variable name representing the full name of the field.
2. Either a basic-type description string as in `typestr` or another list (for nested structured types)

3. An optional shape tuple providing how many times this part of the structure should be repeated. No repeats are assumed if this is not given. Very complicated structures can be described using this generic interface. Notice, however, that each element of the array is still of the same data-type. Some examples of using this interface are given below.

**Default:** `[(', typestr)]`

**data (optional)**

A 2-tuple whose first argument is an integer (a long integer if necessary) that points to the data-area storing the array contents. This pointer must point to the first element of data (in other words any offset is always ignored in this case). The second entry in the tuple is a read-only flag (true means the data area is read-only).

This attribute can also be an object exposing the `buffer interface` which will be used to share the data. If this key is not present (or returns None), then memory sharing will be done through the buffer interface of the object itself. In this case, the offset key can be used to indicate the start of the buffer. A reference to the object exposing the array interface must be stored by the new object if the memory area is to be secured.

**Default:** None

**strides (optional)**

Either `None` to indicate a C-style contiguous array or a Tuple of strides which provides the number of bytes needed to jump to the next array element in the corresponding dimension. Each entry must be an integer (a Python `int`). As with shape, the values may be larger than can be represented by a C `int` or `long`; the calling code should handle this appropriately, either by raising an error, or by using `long long` in C. The default is `None` which implies a C-style contiguous memory buffer. In this model, the last dimension of the array varies the fastest. For example, the default strides tuple for an object whose array entries are 8 bytes long and whose shape is `(10, 20, 30)` would be `(4800, 240, 8)`

**Default:** None (C-style contiguous)

**mask (optional)**

None or an object exposing the array interface. All elements of the mask array should be interpreted only as true or not true indicating which elements of this array are valid. The shape of this object should be “broadcastable” to the shape of the original array.

**Default:** None (All array values are valid)

**offset (optional)**

An integer offset into the array data region. This can only be used when data is `None` or returns a buffer object.

**Default:** 0.

**version (required)**

An integer showing the version of the interface (i.e. 3 for this version). Be careful not to use this to invalidate objects exposing future versions of the interface.
1.8.2 C-struct access

This approach to the array interface allows for faster access to an array using only one attribute lookup and a well-defined C-structure.

object.__array_struct__

A PyCapsule whose pointer member contains a pointer to a filled PyArrayInterface structure. Memory for the structure is dynamically created and the PyCapsule is also created with an appropriate destructor so the retriever of this attribute simply has to apply Py_DECREF to the object returned by this attribute when it is finished. Also, either the data needs to be copied out, or a reference to the object exposing this attribute must be held to ensure the data is not freed. Objects exposing the __array_struct__ interface must also not reallocate their memory if other objects are referencing them.

The PyArrayInterface structure is defined in numpy/ndarrayobject.h as:

```c
typedef struct {
    int two; /* contains the integer 2 -- simple sanity check */
    int nd; /* number of dimensions */
    char typekind; /* kind in array --- character code of typestr */
    int itemsize; /* size of each element */
    int flags; /* flags indicating how the data should be interpreted */
        /* must set ARR_HAS_DESCR bit to validate descr */
    Py_intptr_t *shape; /* A length-nd array of shape information */
    Py_intptr_t *strides; /* A length-nd array of stride information */
    void *data; /* A pointer to the first element of the array */
    PyObject *descr; /* NULL or data-description (same as descr key of __array_interface__) -- must set ARR_HAS_DESCR flag or this will be ignored */
} PyArrayInterface;
```

The flags member may consist of 5 bits showing how the data should be interpreted and one bit showing how the Interface should be interpreted. The data-bits are NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS (0x1), NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS (0x2), NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED (0x100), NPY_ARRAY_NOTSWAPPED (0x200), and NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE (0x400). A final flag NPY_ARR_HAS_DESCR (0x800) indicates whether or not this structure has the arrdescr field. The field should not be accessed unless this flag is present.

NPY_ARR_HAS_DESCR

New since June 16, 2006:

In the past most implementations used the desc member of the PyObject (now PyCapsule) itself (do not confuse this with the “descr” member of the PyArrayInterface structure above — they are two separate things) to hold the pointer to the object exposing the interface. This is now an explicit part of the interface. Be sure to take a reference to the object and call PyCapsule_SetContext before returning the PyCapsule, and configure a destructor to decref this reference.
1.8.3 Type description examples

For clarity it is useful to provide some examples of the type description and corresponding __array_interface__ ‘descr’ entries. Thanks to Scott Gilbert for these examples:

In every case, the ‘descr’ key is optional, but of course provides more information which may be important for various applications:

* Float data
  
  typestr == 'f4'
  
  descr == [(['', '>f4'])]

* Complex double
  
  typestr == 'c8'
  
  descr == [(['real', '>f4']), ('imag', '>f4')]

* RGB Pixel data
  
  typestr = 'V3'
  
  descr == [(['r', '|u1']), ('g', '|u1'), ('b', '|u1')]

* Mixed endian (weird but could happen).
  
  typestr = '|V8' or '>u8'
  
  descr == [(['big', '>i4']), ('little', '<i4')]

* Nested structure
  
  struct {
    int ival;
    struct {
      unsigned short sval;
      unsigned char bval;
      unsigned char cval;
    } sub;
  }
  
  typestr = '|V8' or '<u8' if you want
  
  descr == [(['ival', '<i4']), ('sub', ['sval', '<u2']), ('bval', '|u1'), ('cval', '|u1')]

* Nested array
  
  struct {
    int ival;
    double data[16*4];
  }
  
  descr == '|V516'

* Padded structure
  
  struct {
    int ival;
    double dval;
  }
  
  descr == '|V16'

It should be clear that any structured type could be described using this interface.
1.8.4 Differences with Array interface (Version 2)

The version 2 interface was very similar. The differences were largely aesthetic. In particular:

1. The PyArrayInterface structure had no descr member at the end (and therefore no flag ARR_HAS_DESCR)

2. The context member of the PyCapsule (formally the desc member of the PyCObject) returned from __array_struct__ was not specified. Usually, it was the object exposing the array (so that a reference to it could be kept and destroyed when the C-object was destroyed). It is now an explicit requirement that this field be used in some way to hold a reference to the owning object.

Note: Until August 2020, this said:

Now it must be a tuple whose first element is a string with “PyArrayInterface Version #” and whose second element is the object exposing the array.

This design was retracted almost immediately after it was proposed, in <https://mail.python.org/pipermail/numpy-discussion/2006-June/020995.html>. Despite 14 years of documentation to the contrary, at no point was it valid to assume that __array_interface__ capsules held this tuple content.

3. The tuple returned from __array_interface__['data'] used to be a hex-string (now it is an integer or a long integer).

4. There was no __array_interface__ attribute instead all of the keys (except for version) in the __array_interface__ dictionary were their own attribute: Thus to obtain the Python-side information you had to access separately the attributes:

   • __array_data__
   • __array_shape__
   • __array_strides__
   • __array_typestr__
   • __array_descr__
   • __array_offset__
   • __array_mask__

1.9 Datetimes and Timedeltas

New in version 1.7.0.

Starting in NumPy 1.7, there are core array data types which natively support datetime functionality. The data type is called “datetime64”, so named because “datetime” is already taken by the datetime library included in Python.
1.9.1 Basic Datetimes

The most basic way to create datetimes is from strings in ISO 8601 date or datetime format. It is also possible to create datetimes from an integer by offset relative to the Unix epoch (00:00:00 UTC on 1 January 1970). The unit for internal storage is automatically selected from the form of the string, and can be either a date unit or a time unit. The date units are years (‘Y’), months (‘M’), weeks (‘W’), and days (‘D’), while the time units are hours (‘h’), minutes (‘m’), seconds (‘s’), milliseconds (‘ms’), and some additional SI-prefix seconds-based units. The datetime64 data type also accepts the string “NAT”, in any combination of lowercase/uppercase letters, for a “Not A Time” value.

Example
A simple ISO date:

```python
>>> np.datetime64('2005-02-25')
numpy.datetime64('2005-02-25')
```

From an integer and a date unit, 1 year since the UNIX epoch:

```python
>>> np.datetime64(1, 'Y')
numpy.datetime64('1971')
```

Using months for the unit:

```python
>>> np.datetime64('2005-02')
numpy.datetime64('2005-02')
```

Specifying just the month, but forcing a ‘days’ unit:

```python
>>> np.datetime64('2005-02', 'D')
numpy.datetime64('2005-02-01')
```

From a date and time:

```python
>>> np.datetime64('2005-02-25T03:30')
numpy.datetime64('2005-02-25T03:30')
```

NAT (not a time):

```python
>>> np.datetime64('nat')
numpy.datetime64('NaT')
```

When creating an array of datetimes from a string, it is still possible to automatically select the unit from the inputs, by using the datetime type with generic units.

Example

```python
>>> np.array(['2007-07-13', '2006-01-13', '2010-08-13'], dtype='datetime64')
array(['2007-07-13', '2006-01-13', '2010-08-13'], dtype='datetime64[D]')
```

```python
>>> np.array(['2001-01-01T12:00', '2002-02-03T13:56:03.172'], dtype='datetime64')
array(['2001-01-01T12:00:00:00.000', '2002-02-03T13:56:03.172'],
      dtype='datetime64[ms]')
```
The datetime type works with many common NumPy functions, for example \texttt{arange} can be used to generate ranges of dates.

**Example**

All the dates for one month:

```python
>>> np.arange('2005-02', '2005-03', dtype='datetime64[D]')
       dtype='datetime64[D]')
```

The datetime object represents a single moment in time. If two datetimes have different units, they may still be representing the same moment of time, and converting from a bigger unit like months to a smaller unit like days is considered a ‘safe’ cast because the moment of time is still being represented exactly.

**Example**

```python
>>> np.datetime64('2005') == np.datetime64('2005-01-01')
True

>>> np.datetime64('2010-03-14T15') == np.datetime64('2010-03-14T15:00:00.00')
True
```

Deprecated since version 1.11.0: NumPy does not store timezone information. For backwards compatibility, datetime64 still parses timezone offsets, which it handles by converting to UTC. This behaviour is deprecated and will raise an error in the future.

### 1.9.2 Datetime and Timedelta Arithmetic

NumPy allows the subtraction of two Datetime values, an operation which produces a number with a time unit. Because NumPy doesn’t have a physical quantities system in its core, the timedelta64 data type was created to complement date-time64. The arguments for timedelta64 are a number, to represent the number of units, and a date/time unit, such as (D)ay, (M)onth, (Y)ear, (h)ours, (m)inutes, or (s)econds. The timedelta64 data type also accepts the string “NAT” in place of the number for a “Not A Time” value.

**Example**

```python
>>> np.timedelta64(1, 'D')
numpy.timedelta64(1,'D')

>>> np.timedelta64(4, 'h')
numpy.timedelta64(4,'h')

>>> np.timedelta64('nAt')
numpy.timedelta64('NaT')
```
Datetimes and Timedeltas work together to provide ways for simple datetime calculations.

Example

```python
>>> np.datetime64('2009-01-01') - np.datetime64('2008-01-01')
numpy.timedelta64(366, 'D')

>>> np.datetime64('2009') + np.timedelta64(20, 'D')
numpy.datetime64('2009-01-21')

>>> np.datetime64('2011-06-15T00:00') + np.timedelta64(12, 'h')
numpy.datetime64('2011-06-15T12:00')

>>> np.timedelta64(1,'W') / np.timedelta64(1,'D')
7.0

>>> np.timedelta64(1,'W') % np.timedelta64(10,'D')
numpy.timedelta64(7,'D')

>>> np.datetime64('nat') - np.datetime64('2009-01-01')
numpy.timedelta64('NaT','D')

>>> np.datetime64('2009-01-01') + np.timedelta64('nat')
numpy.datetime64('NaT')
```

There are two Timedelta units ('Y', years and 'M', months) which are treated specially, because how much time they represent changes depending on when they are used. While a timedelta day unit is equivalent to 24 hours, there is no way to convert a month unit into days, because different months have different numbers of days.

Example

```python
>>> a = np.timedelta64(1, 'Y')

>>> np.timedelta64(a, 'M')
numpy.timedelta64(12, 'M')

>>> np.timedelta64(a, 'D')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: Cannot cast NumPy timedelta64 scalar from metadata [Y] to [D] according to...
1.9.3 Datetime Units

The Datetime and Timedelta data types support a large number of time units, as well as generic units which can be coerced into any of the other units based on input data.

Datetimes are always stored based on POSIX time (though having a TAI mode which allows for accounting of leap-seconds is proposed), with an epoch of 1970-01-01T00:00:00Z. This means the supported dates are always a symmetric interval around the epoch, called “time span” in the table below.

The length of the span is the range of a 64-bit integer times the length of the date or unit. For example, the time span for ‘W’ (week) is exactly 7 times longer than the time span for ‘D’ (day), and the time span for ‘D’ (day) is exactly 24 times longer than the time span for ‘h’ (hour).

Here are the date units:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Time span (relative)</th>
<th>Time span (absolute)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td>year</td>
<td>+/- 9.2e18 years</td>
<td>[9.2e18 BC, 9.2e18 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>month</td>
<td>+/- 7.6e17 years</td>
<td>[7.6e17 BC, 7.6e17 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>week</td>
<td>+/- 1.7e17 years</td>
<td>[1.7e17 BC, 1.7e17 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>day</td>
<td>+/- 2.5e16 years</td>
<td>[2.5e16 BC, 2.5e16 AD]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And here are the time units:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Time span (relative)</th>
<th>Time span (absolute)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>hour</td>
<td>+/- 1.0e15 years</td>
<td>[1.0e15 BC, 1.0e15 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>minute</td>
<td>+/- 1.17e13 years</td>
<td>[1.7e13 BC, 1.7e13 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>second</td>
<td>+/- 2.9e11 years</td>
<td>[2.9e11 BC, 2.9e11 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ms</td>
<td>millisecond</td>
<td>+/- 2.9e8 years</td>
<td>[2.9e8 BC, 2.9e8 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>us / µs</td>
<td>microsecond</td>
<td>+/- 2.9e5 years</td>
<td>[290301 BC, 294241 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ns</td>
<td>nanosecond</td>
<td>+/- 292 years</td>
<td>[1678 AD, 2262 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ps</td>
<td>picosecond</td>
<td>+/- 106 days</td>
<td>[1969 AD, 1970 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fs</td>
<td>femtosecond</td>
<td>+/- 2.6 hours</td>
<td>[1969 AD, 1970 AD]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as</td>
<td>attosecond</td>
<td>+/- 9.2 seconds</td>
<td>[1969 AD, 1970 AD]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.9.4 Business Day Functionality

To allow the datetime to be used in contexts where only certain days of the week are valid, NumPy includes a set of “busday” (business day) functions.

The default for busday functions is that the only valid days are Monday through Friday (the usual business days). The implementation is based on a “weekmask” containing 7 Boolean flags to indicate valid days; custom weekmasks are possible that specify other sets of valid days.

The “busday” functions can additionally check a list of “holiday” dates, specific dates that are not valid days.

The function busday_offset allows you to apply offsets specified in business days to datetimes with a unit of ‘D’ (day).

Example

```python
>>> np.busday_offset('2011-06-23', 1)
numpy.datetime64('2011-06-24')
```
When an input date falls on the weekend or a holiday, `busday_offset` first applies a rule to roll the date to a valid business day, then applies the offset. The default rule is 'raise', which simply raises an exception. The rules most typically used are 'forward' and 'backward'.

Example

```python
>>> np.busday_offset('2011-06-23', 2)
numpy.datetime64('2011-06-27')
```

In some cases, an appropriate use of the roll and the offset is necessary to get a desired answer.

Example

The first business day on or after a date:

```python
>>> np.busday_offset('2011-03-20', 0, roll='forward')
numpy.datetime64('2011-03-21')
```

The first business day strictly after a date:

```python
>>> np.busday_offset('2011-03-20', 1, roll='backward')
numpy.datetime64('2011-03-21')
```

The function is also useful for computing some kinds of days like holidays. In Canada and the U.S., Mother's day is on the second Sunday in May, which can be computed with a custom weekmask.

Example

```python
>>> np.busday_offset('2012-05', 1, roll='forward', weekmask='Sun')
numpy.datetime64('2012-05-13')
```
When performance is important for manipulating many business dates with one particular choice of weekmask and holidays, there is an object `busdaycalendar` which stores the data necessary in an optimized form.

np.is_busday():

To test a datetime64 value to see if it is a valid day, use `is_busday`.

Example

```python
>>> np.is_busday(np.datetime64('2011-07-15'))  # a Friday
True
>>> np.is_busday(np.datetime64('2011-07-16'))  # a Saturday
False
>>> np.is_busday(np.datetime64('2011-07-16'), weekmask="Sat Sun")
True
>>> a = np.arange(np.datetime64('2011-07-11'), np.datetime64('2011-07-18'))
>>> np.is_busday(a)
array([ True,  True,  True,  True,  True, False, False])
```

np.busday_count():

To find how many valid days there are in a specified range of datetime64 dates, use `busday_count`:

Example

```python
>>> np.busday_count(np.datetime64('2011-07-11'), np.datetime64('2011-07-18'))
5
>>> np.busday_count(np.datetime64('2011-07-18'), np.datetime64('2011-07-11'))
-5
```

If you have an array of datetime64 day values, and you want a count of how many of them are valid dates, you can do this:

Example

```python
>>> a = np.arange(np.datetime64('2011-07-11'), np.datetime64('2011-07-18'))
>>> np.count_nonzero(np.is_busday(a))
5
```
Custom Weekmasks

Here are several examples of custom weekmask values. These examples specify the “busday” default of Monday through Friday being valid days.

Some examples:

```python
# Positional sequences; positions are Monday through Sunday.
# Length of the sequence must be exactly 7.
weekmask = [1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0]
# list or other sequence; 0 == invalid day, 1 == valid day
weekmask = "1111100"
# string '0' == invalid day, '1' == valid day

# string abbreviations from this list: Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri Sat Sun
weekmask = "Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri"
# any amount of whitespace is allowed; abbreviations are case-sensitive.
weekmask = "Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri"
```
NumPy includes several constants:

```python
numpy.Inf
```
IEEE 754 floating point representation of (positive) infinity.

Use `inf` because `Inf`, `Infinity`, `PINF` and `infty` are aliases for `inf`. For more details, see `inf`.

**See Also**

`inf`

```python
numpy.Infinity
```
IEEE 754 floating point representation of (positive) infinity.

Use `inf` because `Inf`, `Infinity`, `PINF` and `infty` are aliases for `inf`. For more details, see `inf`.

**See Also**

`inf`

```python
numpy.NAN
```
IEEE 754 floating point representation of Not a Number (NaN).

`NaN` and `NAN` are equivalent definitions of `nan`. Please use `nan` instead of `NAN`.

**See Also**

`nan`

```python
numpy.NINF
```
IEEE 754 floating point representation of negative infinity.
Returns

\( y \)

[float] A floating point representation of negative infinity.

See Also

isinf : Shows which elements are positive or negative infinity
isposinf : Shows which elements are positive infinity
isneginf : Shows which elements are negative infinity
isnan : Shows which elements are Not a Number
isfinite : Shows which elements are finite (not one of Not a Number, positive infinity and negative infinity)

Notes

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754). This means that Not a Number is not equivalent to infinity. Also that positive infinity is not equivalent to negative infinity. But infinity is equivalent to positive infinity.

Examples

```python
>>> np.NINF
-inf
```

```
>>> np.log(0)
-inf
```

numpy.NZERO

IEEE 754 floating point representation of negative zero.

Returns

\( y \)

[float] A floating point representation of negative zero.

See Also

PZERO : Defines positive zero.
isinf : Shows which elements are positive or negative infinity.
isposinf : Shows which elements are positive infinity.
isneginf : Shows which elements are negative infinity.
isnan : Shows which elements are Not a Number.
isfinite

[Shows which elements are finite - not one of] Not a Number, positive infinity and negative infinity.
Notes

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754). Negative zero is considered to be a finite number.

Examples

```python
>>> np.NZERO
-0.0
>>> np.PZERO
0.0

>>> np.isfinite([np.NZERO])
array([ True])
>>> np.isnan([np.NZERO])
array([False])
>>> np.isinf([np.NZERO])
array([False])
```

**numpy.**NaN

IEEE 754 floating point representation of Not a Number (NaN).

*NaN* and *NAN* are equivalent definitions of *nan*. Please use *nan* instead of *NaN*.

See Also

*nan*

**numpy.**PINF

IEEE 754 floating point representation of (positive) infinity.

Use *inf* because *Inf, Infinity, PINF* and *infty* are aliases for *inf*. For more details, see *inf*.

See Also

*inf*

**numpy.**PZERO

IEEE 754 floating point representation of positive zero.

Returns

*y*

[float] A floating point representation of positive zero.
See Also

NZERO : Defines negative zero.

isinf : Shows which elements are positive or negative infinity.

isposinf : Shows which elements are positive infinity.

isneginf : Shows which elements are negative infinity.

isnan : Shows which elements are Not a Number.

isfinite

[Shows which elements are finite - not one of] Not a Number, positive infinity and negative infinity.

Notes

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754). Positive zero is considered to be a finite number.

Examples

```python
>>> np.PZERO
0.0
>>> np.NZERO
-0.0
```

```python
>>> np.isfinite([np.PZERO])
array([ True])
>>> np.isnan([np.PZERO])
array([False])
>>> np.isinf([np.PZERO])
array([False])
```

numpy.e

Euler's constant, base of natural logarithms, Napier's constant.

\[ e = 2.71828182845904523536028747135266249775724709369995... \]

See Also

exp : Exponential function
log : Natural logarithm

References

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/E_%28mathematical_constant%29

numpy.euler_gamma

\[ \gamma = 0.5772156649015328606065120900824024310421... \]
**References**

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Euler-Mascheroni_constant

**numpy.inf**

IEEE 754 floating point representation of (positive) infinity.

**Returns**

y

[float] A floating point representation of positive infinity.

**See Also**

isinf : Shows which elements are positive or negative infinity
isposinf : Shows which elements are positive infinity
isneginf : Shows which elements are negative infinity
isnan : Shows which elements are Not a Number
isfinite : Shows which elements are finite (not one of Not a Number, positive infinity and negative infinity)

**Notes**

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754). This means that Not a Number is not equivalent to infinity. Also that positive infinity is not equivalent to negative infinity. But infinity is equivalent to positive infinity.

*Inf, Infinity, PINF* and *infty* are aliases for *inf*.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.inf
inf
>>> np.array([1]) / 0.
array([ Inf])
```

**numpy.infty**

IEEE 754 floating point representation of (positive) infinity.

Use *inf* because *Inf, Infinity, PINF* and *infty* are aliases for *inf*. For more details, see *inf*. 
See Also

inf

numpy.nan

IEEE 754 floating point representation of Not a Number (NaN).

Returns

y : A floating point representation of Not a Number.

See Also

isnan : Shows which elements are Not a Number.

isfinite : Shows which elements are finite (not one of Not a Number, positive infinity and negative infinity)

Notes

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754). This means that Not a Number is not equivalent to infinity. 

NaN and NAN are aliases of nan.

Examples

```python
>>> np.nan
nan
>>> np.log(-1)
 nan
>>> np.log([-1, 1, 2])
array([ NaN,  0.,  0.69314718])
```

numpy.newaxis

A convenient alias for None, useful for indexing arrays.

Examples

```python
>>> newaxis is None
True
>>> x = np.arange(3)
>>> x
array([0, 1, 2])
>>> x[:, newaxis]
array([[0], [1], [2]])
>>> x[:, newaxis, newaxis]
array([[[0]],
       [[1]],
       [[2]]])
>>> x[:, newaxis] * x
```
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 1, 2],
       [0, 2, 4]]))

Outer product, same as `outer(x, y)`:

```python
>>> y = np.arange(3, 6)
>>> x[:, newaxis] * y
array([[ 0, 0, 0],
       [ 3, 4, 5],
       [ 6, 8, 10]])
```

`x[newaxis, :]` is equivalent to `x[newaxis]` and `x[None]`:

```python
>>> x[newaxis, :].shape
(1, 3)
>>> x[newaxis].shape
(1, 3)
>>> x[None].shape
(1, 3)
>>> x[:, newaxis].shape
(3, 1)
```

`numpy.pi`

pi = 3.1415926535897932384626433...

**References**

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pi
A universal function (or ufunc for short) is a function that operates on ndarrays in an element-by-element fashion, supporting array broadcasting, type casting, and several other standard features. That is, a ufunc is a “vectorized” wrapper for a function that takes a fixed number of specific inputs and produces a fixed number of specific outputs.

In NumPy, universal functions are instances of the `numpy.ufunc` class. Many of the built-in functions are implemented in compiled C code. The basic ufuncs operate on scalars, but there is also a generalized kind for which the basic elements are sub-arrays (vectors, matrices, etc.), and broadcasting is done over other dimensions. One can also produce custom `ufunc` instances using the `frompyfunc` factory function.

### 3.1 Broadcasting

Each universal function takes array inputs and produces array outputs by performing the core function element-wise on the inputs (where an element is generally a scalar, but can be a vector or higher-order sub-array for generalized ufuncs). Standard broadcasting rules are applied so that inputs not sharing exactly the same shapes can still be usefully operated on. Broadcasting can be understood by four rules:

1. All input arrays with \( \text{ndim} \) smaller than the input array of largest \( \text{ndim} \), have 1’s prepended to their shapes.
2. The size in each dimension of the output shape is the maximum of all the input sizes in that dimension.
3. An input can be used in the calculation if its size in a particular dimension either matches the output size in that dimension, or has value exactly 1.
4. If an input has a dimension size of 1 in its shape, the first data entry in that dimension will be used for all calculations along that dimension. In other words, the stepping machinery of the ufunc will simply not step along that dimension (the \( \text{stride} \) will be 0 for that dimension).

Broadcasting is used throughout NumPy to decide how to handle disparately shaped arrays; for example, all arithmetic operations (+, −, *, ...) between ndarrays broadcast the arrays before operation.

A set of arrays is called “broadcastable” to the same shape if the above rules produce a valid result, \( \text{i.e.,} \) one of the following is true:

1. The arrays all have exactly the same shape.
2. The arrays all have the same number of dimensions and the length of each dimensions is either a common length or 1.
3. The arrays that have too few dimensions can have their shapes prepended with a dimension of length 1 to satisfy property 2.

### Example
If `a.shape` is (5,1), `b.shape` is (1,6), `c.shape` is (6,) and `d.shape` is () so that `d` is a scalar, then `a`, `b`, `c`, and `d` are all broadcastable to dimension (5,6); and

- `a` acts like a (5,6) array where `a[:,0]` is broadcast to the other columns,
- `b` acts like a (5,6) array where `b[0,:]` is broadcast to the other rows,
- `c` acts like a (1,6) array and therefore like a (5,6) array where `c[:]` is broadcast to every row, and finally,
- `d` acts like a (5,6) array where the single value is repeated.

### 3.2 Output type determination

The output of the ufunc (and its methods) is not necessarily an `ndarray`, if all input arguments are not `ndarrays`. Indeed, if any input defines an `__array_ufunc__` method, control will be passed completely to that function, i.e., the ufunc is overridden.

If none of the inputs overrides the ufunc, then all output arrays will be passed to the `__array_prepare__` and `__array_wrap__` methods of the input (besides `ndarrays`, and scalars) that defines it and has the highest `__array_priority__` of any other input to the universal function. The default `__array_priority__` of the `ndarray` is 0.0, and the default `__array_priority__` of a subtype is 0.0. Matrices have `__array_priority__` equal to 10.0.

All ufuncs can also take output arguments. If necessary, output will be cast to the data-type(s) of the provided output array(s). If a class with an `__array__` method is used for the output, results will be written to the object returned by `__array__`. Then, if the class also has an `__array_prepare__` method, it is called so metadata may be determined based on the context of the ufunc (the context consisting of the ufunc itself, the arguments passed to the ufunc, and the ufunc domain.) The array object returned by `__array_prepare__` is passed to the ufunc for computation. Finally, if the class also has an `__array_wrap__` method, the returned `ndarray` result will be passed to that method just before passing control back to the caller.

### 3.3 Use of internal buffers

Internally, buffers are used for misaligned data, swapped data, and data that has to be converted from one data type to another. The size of internal buffers is settable on a per-thread basis. There can be up to $2(n_{\text{inputs}} + n_{\text{outputs}})$ buffers of the specified size created to handle the data from all the inputs and outputs of a ufunc. The default size of a buffer is 10,000 elements. Whenever buffer-based calculation would be needed, but all input arrays are smaller than the buffer size, those misbehaved or incorrectly-typed arrays will be copied before the calculation proceeds. Adjusting the size of the buffer may therefore alter the speed at which ufunc calculations of various sorts are completed. A simple interface for setting this variable is accessible using the function

```python
setbufsize(size)
```

Sets the size of the buffer used in ufuncs.

```python
def setbufsize(size)
    Set the size of the buffer used in ufuncs.

    Parameters

    size
        [int] Size of buffer.
```

NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0
# 3.4 Error handling

Universal functions can trip special floating-point status registers in your hardware (such as divide-by-zero). If available on your platform, these registers will be regularly checked during calculation. Error handling is controlled on a per-thread basis, and can be configured using the functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>seterr()</code></td>
<td>Set how floating-point errors are handled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>seterrcall()</code></td>
<td>Set the floating-point error callback function or log object.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
numpy.seterr(all=None, divide=None, over=None, under=None, invalid=None)
```

Set how floating-point errors are handled.

Note that operations on integer scalar types (such as `int16`) are handled like floating point, and are affected by these settings.

**Parameters**

- all
  - `[{'ignore', 'warn', 'raise', 'call', 'print', 'log'}, optional]` Set treatment for all types of floating-point errors at once:
    - ignore: Take no action when the exception occurs.
    - warn: Print a `RuntimeWarning` (via the Python `warnings` module).
    - raise: Raise a `FloatingPointError`.
    - call: Call a function specified using the `seterrcall` function.
    - print: Print a warning directly to `stdout`.
    - log: Record error in a Log object specified by `seterrcall`.
  - The default is not to change the current behavior.

- divide

- over

- under

- invalid

**Returns**

- `old_settings`
  - `[dict]` Dictionary containing the old settings.

**See also:**

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NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

seterrcall
Set a callback function for the ‘call’ mode.
geterr, geterrcall, errstate
Notes
The floating-point exceptions are defined in the IEEE 754 standard [1]:
• Division by zero: infinite result obtained from finite numbers.
• Overflow: result too large to be expressed.
• Underflow: result so close to zero that some precision was lost.
• Invalid operation: result is not an expressible number, typically indicates that a NaN was produced.
Examples
>>> old_settings = np.seterr(all='ignore') #seterr to known value
>>> np.seterr(over='raise')
{'divide': 'ignore', 'over': 'ignore', 'under': 'ignore', 'invalid': 'ignore'}
>>> np.seterr(**old_settings) # reset to default
{'divide': 'ignore', 'over': 'raise', 'under': 'ignore', 'invalid': 'ignore'}
>>> np.int16(32000) * np.int16(3)
30464
>>> old_settings = np.seterr(all='warn', over='raise')
>>> np.int16(32000) * np.int16(3)
Traceback (most recent call last):
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
FloatingPointError: overflow encountered in short_scalars
>>> old_settings = np.seterr(all='print')
>>> np.geterr()
{'divide': 'print', 'over': 'print', 'under': 'print', 'invalid': 'print'}
>>> np.int16(32000) * np.int16(3)
30464

numpy.seterrcall(func)
Set the floating-point error callback function or log object.
There are two ways to capture floating-point error messages. The first is to set the error-handler to ‘call’, using
seterr. Then, set the function to call using this function.
The second is to set the error-handler to ‘log’, using seterr. Floating-point errors then trigger a call to the ‘write’
method of the provided object.
Parameters
func
[callable f(err, flag) or object with write method] Function to call upon floating-point errors
(‘call’-mode) or object whose ‘write’ method is used to log such message (‘log’-mode).
The call function takes two arguments. The first is a string describing the type of error (such as
“divide by zero”, “overflow”, “underflow”, or “invalid value”), and the second is the status flag.

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Chapter 3. Universal functions (ufunc)


The flag is a byte, whose four least-significant bits indicate the type of error, one of “divide”, “over”, “under”, “invalid”:

```
[0 0 0 0 divide over under invalid]
```

In other words, \( \text{flags} = \text{divide} + 2\times \text{over} + 4\times \text{under} + 8\times \text{invalid} \).

If an object is provided, its write method should take one argument, a string.

**Returns**

- \( h \) 
  - [callable, log instance or None] The old error handler.

**See also:**

*seterr, geterr, geterrcall*

**Examples**

Callback upon error:

```python
>>> def err_handler(type, flag):
...     print("Floating point error \(\%s\), with flag \(\%s\)\) % (type, flag))
...

>>> saved_handler = np.seterrcall(err_handler)
>>> save_err = np.seterr(all='call')

>>> np.array([1, 2, 3]) / 0.0
Floating point error (divide by zero), with flag 1
array([inf, inf, inf])

>>> np.seterrcall(saved_handler)
<function err_handler at 0x...>
>>> np.seterr(**save_err)
{'divide': 'call', 'over': 'call', 'under': 'call', 'invalid': 'call'}
```

Log error message:

```python
>>> class Log:
    ...
    def write(self, msg):
        ...
        print("LOG: \%s \%s") % (msg)
    ...

>>> log = Log()
>>> saved_handler = np.seterrcall(log)
>>> save_err = np.seterr(all='log')

>>> np.array([1, 2, 3]) / 0.0
LOG: Warning: divide by zero encountered in true_divide
array([inf, inf, inf])
```
3.5 Casting Rules

**Note:** In NumPy 1.6.0, a type promotion API was created to encapsulate the mechanism for determining output types. See the functions `result_type`, `promote_types`, and `min_scalar_type` for more details.

At the core of every ufunc is a one-dimensional strided loop that implements the actual function for a specific type combination. When a ufunc is created, it is given a static list of inner loops and a corresponding list of type signatures over which the ufunc operates. The ufunc machinery uses this list to determine which inner loop to use for a particular case. You can inspect the `.types` attribute for a particular ufunc to see which type combinations have a defined inner loop and which output type they produce (character codes are used in said output for brevity).

Casting must be done on one or more of the inputs whenever the ufunc does not have a core loop implementation for the input types provided. If an implementation for the input types cannot be found, then the algorithm searches for an implementation with a type signature to which all of the inputs can be cast “safely.” The first one it finds in its internal list of loops is selected and performed, after all necessary type casting. Recall that internal copies during ufuncs (even for casting) are limited to the size of an internal buffer (which is user settable).

**Note:** Universal functions in NumPy are flexible enough to have mixed type signatures. Thus, for example, a universal function could be defined that works with floating-point and integer values. See `ldexp` for an example.

By the above description, the casting rules are essentially implemented by the question of when a data type can be cast “safely” to another data type. The answer to this question can be determined in Python with a function call: `can_cast(fromtype, totype)`. The Figure below shows the results of this call for the 24 internally supported types on the author’s 64-bit system. You can generate this table for your system with the code given in the Figure.

**Figure**

Code segment showing the “can cast safely” table for a 64-bit system. Generally the output depends on the system; your system might result in a different table.

```python
>>> mark = {False: ' -', True: ' Y'}
>>> def print_table(ntypes):
...     print('X ' + ' '.join(ntypes))
...     for row in ntypes:
...         print(row, end=' ')
...         for col in ntypes:
...             print(mark[np.can_cast(row, col)], end=' ')
...         print()

>>> print_table(np.typecodes['All'])
X ? b h i l q p B H I L Q P e f d g F D G S U V O M m
? Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y
b - Y Y Y Y Y - - - - - - - - Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y
h - - Y Y Y Y Y - - - - - - - - - - Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y
l - - - Y Y Y Y - - - - - - - - - - - - Y Y Y Y Y Y Y Y
```
You should note that, while included in the table for completeness, the ‘S’, ‘U’, and ‘V’ types cannot be operated on by ufuncs. Also, note that on a 32-bit system the integer types may have different sizes, resulting in a slightly altered table.

Mixed scalar-array operations use a different set of casting rules that ensure that a scalar cannot “upcast” an array unless the scalar is of a fundamentally different kind of data (i.e., under a different hierarchy in the data-type hierarchy) than the array. This rule enables you to use scalar constants in your code (which, as Python types, are interpreted accordingly in ufuncs) without worrying about whether the precision of the scalar constant will cause upcasting on your large (small precision) array.

### 3.6 Overriding Ufunc behavior

Classes (including ndarray subclasses) can override how ufuncs act on them by defining certain special methods. For details, see *Standard array subclasses*.

### 3.7 ufunc

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><code>numpy.ufunc()</code></th>
<th>Functions that operate element by element on whole arrays.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**class** `numpy.ufunc`

Functions that operate element by element on whole arrays.

To see the documentation for a specific ufunc, use `info`. For example, `np.info(np.sin)`. Because ufuncs are written in C (for speed) and linked into Python with NumPy's ufunc facility, Python's `help()` function finds this page whenever `help()` is called on a ufunc.

A detailed explanation of ufuncs can be found in the docs for *Universal functions (ufunc)*.
Calling ufuncs: \( \text{op}(*x[, \ \text{out}], \ \text{where}=\text{True}, \ **\text{kwargs}) \)

Apply \( \text{op} \) to the arguments \(*x\) elementwise, broadcasting the arguments.

The broadcasting rules are:

- Dimensions of length 1 may be prepended to either array.
- Arrays may be repeated along dimensions of length 1.

Parameters

* \( x \)
  
  [array_like] Input arrays.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] Alternate array object(s) in which to put the result; if provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. A tuple of arrays (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs; use None for uninitialized outputs to be allocated by the ufunc.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the \( \text{out} \) array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the \( \text{out} \) array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \( \text{out} \) array is created via the default \( \text{out} = \text{None} \), locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

r

[ndarray or tuple of ndarray] \( r \) will have the shape that the arrays in \( x \) broadcast to; if \( \text{out} \) is provided, it will be returned. If not, \( r \) will be allocated and may contain uninitialized values. If the function has more than one output, then the result will be a tuple of arrays.

Attributes

identity

The identity value.

nargs

The number of arguments.

nin

The number of inputs.

nout

The number of outputs.

ntypes

The number of types.
**signature**

Definition of the core elements a generalized ufunc operates on.

**types**

Returns a list with types grouped input->output.

**Methods**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>call</strong>(*args, **kwargs)</th>
<th>Call self as a function.</th>
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<td>accumulate(array[, axis, dtype, out])</td>
<td>Accumulate the result of applying the operator to all elements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at(a, indices[, b])</td>
<td>Performs unbuffered in place operation on operand ‘a’ for elements specified by ‘indices’.</td>
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<tr>
<td>outer(A, B, /, **kwargs)</td>
<td>Apply the ufunc op to all pairs (a, b) with a in A and b in B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reduce(array[, axis, dtype, out, keepdims, …])</td>
<td>Reduces array’s dimension by one, by applying ufunc along one axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reduceat(array, indices[, axis, dtype, out])</td>
<td>Performs a (local) reduce with specified slices over a single axis.</td>
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**method**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ufunc.<strong>call</strong>(*args, **kwargs)</th>
<th>Call self as a function.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ufunc.accumulate(array, axis=0, dtype=None, out=None)</td>
<td>Accumulate the result of applying the operator to all elements.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For a one-dimensional array, accumulate produces results equivalent to:

```python
r = np.empty(len(A))
t = op.identity  # op = the ufunc being applied to A’s elements
for i in range(len(A)):
    t = op(t, A[i])
    r[i] = t
return r
```

For example, add.accumulate() is equivalent to np.cumsum().

For a multi-dimensional array, accumulate is applied along only one axis (axis zero by default; see Examples below) so repeated use is necessary if one wants to accumulate over multiple axes.

**Parameters**

| array | [array_like] The array to act on. |
| axis | [int, optional] The axis along which to apply the accumulation; default is zero. |
| dtype |
[data-type code, optional] The data-type used to represent the intermediate results. Defaults to the data-type of the output array if such is provided, or the the data-type of the input array if no output array is provided.

**out**

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. For consistency with `ufunc.__call__`, if given as a keyword, this may be wrapped in a 1-element tuple.

Changed in version 1.13.0: Tuples are allowed for keyword argument.

**Returns**

**r**

[ndarray] The accumulated values. If `out` was supplied, `r` is a reference to `out`.

**Examples**

1-D array examples:

```python
>>> np.add.accumulate([2, 3, 5])
array([2, 5, 10])
```

```python
>>> np.multiply.accumulate([2, 3, 5])
array([2, 6, 30])
```

2-D array examples:

```python
>>> I = np.eye(2)
```

```python
>>> I
array([[1., 0.],
       [0., 1.]])
```

Accumulate along axis 0 (rows), down columns:

```python
>>> np.add.accumulate(I, 0)
array([[1., 0.],
       [1., 1.]])
```

```python
>>> np.add.accumulate(I) # no axis specified = axis zero
array([[1., 0.],
       [1., 1.]])
```

Accumulate along axis 1 (columns), through rows:

```python
>>> np.add.accumulate(I, 1)
array([[1., 1.],
       [0., 1.]])
```

**method**

`ufunc.at(a, indices, b=None, /)`

Performs unbuffered in place operation on operand ‘a’ for elements specified by ‘indices’. For addition ufunc, this method is equivalent to `a[indices] += b`, except that results are accumulated for elements that are indexed more than once. For example, `a[[0, 0]] += 1` will only increment the first element once because of buffering, whereas `add.at(a, [0, 0], 1)` will increment the first element twice.

New in version 1.8.0.
Parameters

a

[array_like] The array to perform in place operation on.

indices

[array_like or tuple] Array like index object or slice object for indexing into first operand. If first operand has multiple dimensions, indices can be a tuple of array like index objects or slice objects.

b

[array_like] Second operand for ufuncs requiring two operands. Operand must be broadcastable over first operand after indexing or slicing.

Examples

Set items 0 and 1 to their negative values:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> np.negative.at(a, [0, 1])
array([-1, -2, 3, 4])
```

Increment items 0 and 1, and increment item 2 twice:

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

Add items 0 and 1 in first array to second array, and store results in first array:

```
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> b = np.array([1, 2])
>>> np.add.at(a, [0, 1], b)
>>> a
array([2, 4, 3, 4])
```

method

`ufunc.outer(A, B, /, **kwargs)`

Apply the ufunc op to all pairs (a, b) with a in A and b in B.

Let M = A.ndim, N = B.ndim. Then the result, C, of `op.outer(A, B)` is an array of dimension M + N such that:

\[ C[i_0, ..., i_{M-1}, j_0, ..., j_{N-1}] = \text{op}(A[i_0, ..., i_{M-1}], B[j_0, ..., j_{N-1}]) \]

For A and B one-dimensional, this is equivalent to:

```
r = empty(len(A), len(B))
for i in range(len(A)):
    for j in range(len(B)):
        r[i, j] = \text{op}(A[i], B[j]) \quad \# \text{op} = \text{ufunc in question}
```

Parameters
A

[array_like] First array

B

[array_like] Second array

kwargs

[any] Arguments to pass on to the ufunc. Typically dtype or out. See ufunc for a comprehensive overview of all available arguments.

Returns

r

[ndarray] Output array

See also:

numpy.outer

A less powerful version of np.multiply.outer that ravel
s all inputs to 1D. This exists primarily for compatibility with old code.

tensordot

np.tensordot(a, b, axes=(), ()

A multi-dimensional example:

>>> A = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]])
>>> A.shape
(2, 3)
>>> B = np.array([[1, 2, 3, 4]])
>>> B.shape
(1, 4)
>>> C = np.multiply.outer(A, B)
>>> C.shape; C
(2, 3, 1, 4)
array([[[[ 1, 2, 3, 4]],
       [[ 2, 4, 6, 8]],
       [[ 3, 6, 9, 12]]],
       [[[ 4, 8, 12, 16]],
       [[[ 5, 10, 15, 20]],
       [[ 6, 12, 18, 24]]]])
ufunc.reduce(array, axis=0, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=False, initial=<no value>, where=True)

Reduces array’s dimension by one, by applying ufunc along one axis.

Let array.shape = (N₀, ..., Nᵢ, ..., N_M−1). Then ufunc.reduce(array, axis = i)[k₀, ..., kᵢ−1, kᵢ+1, ..., k_M−1] = the result of iterating j over range(Nᵢ), cumulatively applying ufunc to each array[k₀, ..., kᵢ−1, j, kᵢ+1, ..., k_M−1]. For a one-dimensional array, reduce produces results equivalent to:

```python
r = op.identity  # op = ufunc
for i in range(len(A)):
    r = op(r, A[i])
return r
```

For example, add.reduce() is equivalent to sum().

**Parameters**

array

[array_like] The array to act on.

axis

[None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which a reduction is performed. The default (axis = 0) is perform a reduction over the first dimension of the input array. axis may be negative, in which case it counts from the last to the first axis.

New in version 1.7.0.

If this is None, a reduction is performed over all the axes. If this is a tuple of ints, a reduction is performed on multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

For operations which are either not commutative or not associative, doing a reduction over multiple axes is not well-defined. The ufuncs do not currently raise an exception in this case, but will likely do so in the future.

dtype

[data-type code, optional] The type used to represent the intermediate results. Defaults to the data-type of the output array if this is provided, or the data-type of the input array if no output array is provided.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. For consistency with ufunc.__call__, if given as a keyword, this may be wrapped in a 1-element tuple.

Changed in version 1.13.0: Tuples are allowed for keyword argument.

keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original array.

New in version 1.7.0.

initial

[scalar, optional] The value with which to start the reduction. If the ufunc has no identity or the dtype is object, this defaults to None - otherwise it defaults to ufunc.identity. If None
is given, the first element of the reduction is used, and an error is thrown if the reduction is empty.

New in version 1.15.0.

where

[array_like of bool, optional] A boolean array which is broadcasted to match the dimensions of array, and selects elements to include in the reduction. Note that for ufuncs like minimum that do not have an identity defined, one has to pass in also initial.

New in version 1.17.0.

Returns

r

[ndarray] The reduced array. If out was supplied, r is a reference to it.

Examples

```python
>>> np.multiply.reduce([2, 3, 5])
30
```

A multi-dimensional array example:

```python
>>> X = np.arange(8).reshape((2, 2, 2))
>>> X
array([[[0, 1],
        [2, 3]],
       [[4, 5],
        [6, 7]]])
>>> np.add.reduce(X, 0)
array([[ 4,  6],
       [10, 12]])
>>> np.add.reduce(X) # confirm: default axis value is 0
array([[ 4,  6],
       [10, 12]])
>>> np.add.reduce(X, 1)
array([[ 2,  4],
       [10, 12]])
>>> np.add.reduce(X, 2)
array([[ 1,  5],
       [ 9, 13]])
```

You can use the initial keyword argument to initialize the reduction with a different value, and where to select specific elements to include:

```python
>>> np.add.reduce([10], initial=5)
15
>>> np.add.reduce(np.ones((2, 2)), axis=(0, 2), initial=10)
array([[14., 14.]]
```

```python
>>> a = np.array([10., np.nan, 10])
```

```python
>>> np.add.reduce(a, where=~np.isnan(a))
20.0
```

Allows reductions of empty arrays where they would normally fail, i.e. for ufuncs without an identity.
```
>>> np.minimum.reduce([], initial=np.inf)
inf
>>> np.minimum.reduce(([1., 2.], [3., 4.]), initial=10., where=[True, False])
array([ 1., 10.])
>>> np.minimum.reduce([])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
ValueError: zero-size array to reduction operation minimum which has no
 → identity
```

method

```
ufunc.reduceat (array, indices, axis=0, dtype=None, out=None)
```

Performs a (local) reduce with specified slices over a single axis.

For i in range(len(indices)), reduceat computes ufunc.reduce(array[indices[i]:indices[i+1]]), which becomes the i-th generalized “row” parallel to axis in the final result (i.e., in a 2-D array, for example, if axis = 0, it becomes the i-th row, but if axis = 1, it becomes the i-th column). There are three exceptions to this:

- when i = len(indices) - 1 (so for the last index), indices[i+1] = array.shape[axis].
- if indices[i] >= indices[i + 1], the i-th generalized “row” is simply array[indices[i]].
- if indices[i] >= len(array) or indices[i] < 0, an error is raised.

The shape of the output depends on the size of indices, and may be larger than array (this happens if len(indices) > array.shape[axis]).

Parameters

- **array**
  - [array_like] The array to act on.

- **indices**
  - [array_like] Paired indices, comma separated (not colon), specifying slices to reduce.

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] The axis along which to apply the reduceat.

- **dtype**
  - [data-type code, optional] The type used to represent the intermediate results. Defaults to the data type of the output array if this is provided, or the data type of the input array if no output array is provided.

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. For consistency with ufunc.__call__, if given as a keyword, this may be wrapped in a 1-element tuple.

Returns

- **r**
[ndarray] The reduced values. If `out` was supplied, `r` is a reference to `out`.

**Notes**

A descriptive example:

If `array` is 1-D, the function `ufunc.accumulate(array)` is the same as `ufunc.reduceat(array, indices)[::2]` where `indices` is `range(len(array) - 1)` with a zero placed in every other element: `indices = zeros(2 * len(array) - 1), indices[1::2] = range(1, len(array))`.

Don’t be fooled by this attribute’s name: `reduceat(array)` is not necessarily smaller than `array`.

**Examples**

To take the running sum of four successive values:

```python
>>> np.add.reduceat(np.arange(8), [0, 4, 1, 5, 2, 6, 3, 7])[::2]
array([ 6, 10, 14, 18])
```

A 2-D example:

```python
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 15, 16).reshape(4, 4)
>>> x
array([[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.],
       [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
       [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.],
       [12., 13., 14., 15.]]
```

# reduce such that the result has the following five rows:
# [row1 + row2 + row3]
# [row4]
# [row2]
# [row3]
# [row1 + row2 + row3 + row4]

```python
>>> np.add.reduceat(x, [0, 3, 1, 2, 0])
array([[12., 15., 18., 21.],
       [12., 13., 14., 15.],
       [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
       [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.],
       [24., 28., 32., 36.]])
```

# reduce such that result has the following two columns:
# [col1 * col2 * col3, col4]

```python
>>> np.multiply.reduceat(x, [0, 3], 1)
array([[ 0.,  3.],
       [120.,  7.],
       [720., 11.],
       [2184., 15.]])
```
3.7.1 Optional keyword arguments

All ufuncs take optional keyword arguments. Most of these represent advanced usage and will not typically be used.

**out**

New in version 1.6.

The first output can be provided as either a positional or a keyword parameter. Keyword ‘out’ arguments are incompatible with positional ones.

New in version 1.10.

The ‘out’ keyword argument is expected to be a tuple with one entry per output (which can be None for arrays to be allocated by the ufunc). For ufuncs with a single output, passing a single array (instead of a tuple holding a single array) is also valid.

Passing a single array in the ‘out’ keyword argument to a ufunc with multiple outputs is deprecated, and will raise a warning in numpy 1.10, and an error in a future release.

If ‘out’ is None (the default), a uninitialized return array is created. The output array is then filled with the results of the ufunc in the places that the broadcast ‘where’ is True. If ‘where’ is the scalar True (the default), then this corresponds to the entire output being filled. Note that outputs not explicitly filled are left with their uninitialized values.

New in version 1.13.

Operations where ufunc input and output operands have memory overlap are defined to be the same as for equivalent operations where there is no memory overlap. Operations affected make temporary copies as needed to eliminate data dependency. As detecting these cases is computationally expensive, a heuristic is used, which may in rare cases result in needless temporary copies. For operations where the data dependency is simple enough for the heuristic to analyze, temporary copies will not be made even if the arrays overlap, if it can be deduced copies are not necessary. As an example, `np.add(a, b, out=a)` will not involve copies.

**where**

New in version 1.7.

Accepts a boolean array which is broadcast together with the operands. Values of True indicate to calculate the ufunc at that position, values of False indicate to leave the value in the output alone. This argument cannot be used for generalized ufuncs as those take non-scalar input.

Note that if an uninitialized return array is created, values of False will leave those values uninitialized.

**axes**

New in version 1.15.

A list of tuples with indices of axes a generalized ufunc should operate on. For instance, for a signature of `(i, j), (j, k) -> (i, k)` appropriate for matrix multiplication, the base elements are two-dimensional matrices and these are taken to be stored in the two last axes of each argument. The corresponding axes keyword would be `[(−2, −1), (−2, −1), (−2, −1)]`. For simplicity, for generalized ufuncs that operate on 1-dimensional arrays (vectors), a single integer is accepted instead of a single-element tuple, and for generalized ufuncs for which all outputs are scalars, the output tuples can be omitted.

**axis**

New in version 1.15.

A single axis over which a generalized ufunc should operate. This is a short-cut for ufuncs that operate over a single, shared core dimension, equivalent to passing in `axes` with entries of `(axis,)` for each single-core-
dimension argument and () for all others. For instance, for a signature (i), (i)->(), it is equivalent to passing in axes=[[axis,], (axis,), ()].

keepdims
New in version 1.15.
If this is set to True, axes which are reduced over will be left in the result as a dimension with size one, so that the result will broadcast correctly against the inputs. This option can only be used for generalized ufuncs that operate on inputs that all have the same number of core dimensions and with outputs that have no core dimensions, i.e., with signatures like (i), (i)->() or (m,m)->(). If used, the location of the dimensions in the output can be controlled with axes and axis.

casting
New in version 1.6.
May be ‘no’, ‘equiv’, ‘safe’, ‘same_kind’, or ‘unsafe’. See can_cast for explanations of the parameter values.
Provides a policy for what kind of casting is permitted. For compatibility with previous versions of NumPy, this defaults to ‘unsafe’ for numpy < 1.7. In numpy 1.7 a transition to ‘same_kind’ was begun where ufuncs produce a DeprecationWarning for calls which are allowed under the ‘unsafe’ rules, but not under the ‘same_kind’ rules. From numpy 1.10 and onwards, the default is ‘same_kind’.

order
New in version 1.6.
Specifies the calculation iteration order/memory layout of the output array. Defaults to ‘K’. ‘C’ means the output should be C-contiguous, ‘F’ means F-contiguous. ‘A’ means F-contiguous if the inputs are F-contiguous and not also not C-contiguous, C-contiguous otherwise, and ‘K’ means to match the element ordering of the inputs as closely as possible.

dtype
New in version 1.6.
Overrides the DType of the output arrays the same way as the signature. This should ensure a matching precision of the calculation. The exact calculation DTypes chosen may depend on the ufunc and the inputs may be cast to this DType to perform the calculation.

subok
New in version 1.6.
Defaults to true. If set to false, the output will always be a strict array, not a subtype.

signature
Either a Dtype, a tuple of DTypes, or a special signature string indicating the input and output types of a ufunc.

This argument allows the user to specify exact DTypes to be used for the calculation. Casting will be used as necessary. The actual DType of the input arrays is not considered unless signature is None for that array.

When all DTypes are fixed, a specific loop is chosen or an error raised if no matching loop exists. If some DTypes are not specified and left None, the behaviour may depend on the ufunc. At this time, a list of available signatures is provided by the types attribute of the ufunc. (This list may be missing DTypes not defined by NumPy.)

The signature only specifies the DType class/type. For example, it can specify that the operation should be datetime64 or float64 operation. It does not specify the datetime64 time-unit or the float64 byte-order.
For backwards compatibility this argument can also be provided as `sig`, although the long form is preferred. Note that this should not be confused with the generalized ufunc `signature` that is stored in the `signature` attribute of the of the ufunc object.

`extobj`

a list of length 3 specifying the ufunc buffer-size, the error mode integer, and the error call-back function. Normally, these values are looked up in a thread-specific dictionary. Passing them here circumvents that look up and uses the low-level specification provided for the error mode. This may be useful, for example, as an optimization for calculations requiring many ufunc calls on small arrays in a loop.

### 3.7.2 Attributes

There are some informational attributes that universal functions possess. None of the attributes can be set.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>__doc__</code></td>
<td>A docstring for each ufunc. The first part of the docstring is dynamically generated from the number of outputs, the name, and the number of inputs. The second part of the docstring is provided at creation time and stored with the ufunc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>__name__</code></td>
<td>The name of the ufunc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ufunc.nin</code></td>
<td>The number of inputs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ufunc.nout</code></td>
<td>The number of outputs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ufunc.nargs</code></td>
<td>The number of arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ufunc.ntypes</code></td>
<td>The number of types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ufunc.types</code></td>
<td>Returns a list with types grouped input-&gt;output.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ufunc.identity</code></td>
<td>The identity value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ufunc.signature</code></td>
<td>Definition of the core elements a generalized ufunc operates on.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Examples

```
>>> np.add.nin
2
>>> np.multiply.nin
2
>>> np.power.nin
2
>>> np.exp.nin
1
```

### Attribute

`ufunc.nout`

The number of outputs.

Data attribute containing the number of arguments the ufunc treats as output.
Notes

Since all ufuncs can take output arguments, this will always be (at least) 1.

Examples

```python
>>> np.add.nout
1
>>> np.multiply.nout
1
>>> np.power.nout
1
>>> np.exp.nout
1
```

attribute

`ufunc.nargs`

The number of arguments.

Data attribute containing the number of arguments the ufunc takes, including optional ones.

Notes

Typically this value will be one more than what you might expect because all ufuncs take the optional “out” argument.

Examples

```python
>>> np.add.nargs
3
>>> np.multiply.nargs
3
>>> np.power.nargs
3
>>> np.exp.nargs
2
```

attribute

`ufunc.ntypes`

The number of types.

The number of numerical NumPy types - of which there are 18 total - on which the ufunc can operate.

See also:

`numpy.ufunc.types`
Examples

```python
>>> np.add.ntypes
18
>>> np.multiply.ntypes
18
>>> np.power.ntypes
17
>>> np.exp.ntypes
7
>>> np.remainder.ntypes
14
```

attribute

`ufunc.types`

Returns a list with types grouped input->output.

Data attribute listing the data-type “Domain-Range” groupings the ufunc can deliver. The data-types are given using the character codes.

See also:

`numpy.ufunc.ntypes`

Examples

```python
>>> np.add.types
```

```python
>>> np.multiply.types
```

```python
>>> np.power.types
```

```python
>>> np.exp.types
['f->f', 'd->d', 'g->g', 'F->F', 'D->D', 'G->G', 'O->O']
```

```python
>>> np.remainder.types
```

attribute

`ufunc.identity`

The identity value.

Data attribute containing the identity element for the ufunc, if it has one. If it does not, the attribute value is None.
Examples

```python
>>> np.add.identity
0
>>> np.multiply.identity
1
>>> np.power.identity
1
>>> np.exp.identity
None
```

Attribute

`ufunc.signature`

Definition of the core elements a generalized ufunc operates on.

The signature determines how the dimensions of each input/output array are split into core and loop dimensions:

1. Each dimension in the signature is matched to a dimension of the corresponding passed-in array, starting from the end of the shape tuple.

2. Core dimensions assigned to the same label in the signature must have exactly matching sizes, no broadcasting is performed.

3. The core dimensions are removed from all inputs and the remaining dimensions are broadcast together, defining the loop dimensions.

Notes

Generalized ufuncs are used internally in many linalg functions, and in the testing suite; the examples below are taken from these. For ufuncs that operate on scalars, the signature is None, which is equivalent to `()` for every argument.

Examples

```python
>>> np.core.umath_tests.matrix_multiply.signature
'(m,n),(n,p)->(m,p)'
>>> np.linalg._umath_linalg.det.signature
'(m,m)->()'
>>> np.add.signature is None
True  # equivalent to '(),()->()'
```

3.7.3 Methods

All ufuncs have four methods. However, these methods only make sense on scalar ufuncs that take two input arguments and return one output argument. Attempting to call these methods on other ufuncs will cause a `ValueError`. The reduce-like methods all take an `axis` keyword, a `dtype` keyword, and an `out` keyword, and the arrays must all have dimension >= 1. The `axis` keyword specifies the axis of the array over which the reduction will take place (with negative values counting backwards). Generally, it is an integer, though for `ufunc.reduce`, it can also be a tuple of `int` to reduce over several axes at once, or None, to reduce over all axes. The `dtype` keyword allows you to manage a very common problem that arises when naively using `ufunc.reduce`. Sometimes you may have an array of a certain data type and wish to add up all of its elements, but the result does not fit into the data type of the array. This commonly happens if you have an array of single-byte integers. The `dtype` keyword allows you to alter the data type over which the reduction takes place (and therefore the type of the output). Thus, you can ensure that the output is a data type with precision large enough to handle
your output. The responsibility of altering the reduce type is mostly up to you. There is one exception: if no dtype is given for a reduction on the “add” or “multiply” operations, then if the input type is an integer (or Boolean) data-type and smaller than the size of the int_ data type, it will be internally upcast to the int_ (or uint) data-type. Finally, the out keyword allows you to provide an output array (for single-output ufuncs, which are currently the only ones supported; for future extension, however, a tuple with a single argument can be passed in). If out is given, the dtype argument is ignored.

Ufuncs also have a fifth method that allows in place operations to be performed using fancy indexing. No buffering is used on the dimensions where fancy indexing is used, so the fancy index can list an item more than once and the operation will be performed on the result of the previous operation for that item.

### Available Ufuncs

There are currently more than 60 universal functions defined in numpy on one or more types, covering a wide variety of operations. Some of these ufuncs are called automatically on arrays when the relevant infix notation is used (e.g., add(a, b) is called internally when a + b is written and a or b is an ndarray). Nevertheless, you may still want to use the ufunc call in order to use the optional output argument(s) to place the output(s) in an object (or objects) of your choice.

Recall that each ufunc operates element-by-element. Therefore, each scalar ufunc will be described as if acting on a set of scalar inputs to return a set of scalar outputs.

**Note:** The ufunc still returns its output(s) even if you use the optional output argument(s).

### Math Operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>add(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Add arguments element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>subtract(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, ...])</code></td>
<td>Subtract arguments, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>multiply(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, ...])</code></td>
<td>Multiply arguments element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>matmul(x1, x2, /[, out, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Matrix product of two arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>divide(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, ...])</code></td>
<td>Returns a true division of the inputs, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>logaddexp(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, ...])</code></td>
<td>Logarithm of the sum of exponentiations of the inputs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>logaddexp2(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, ...])</code></td>
<td>Logarithm of the sum of exponentiations of the inputs in base-2.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

continues on next page
Table 7 – continued from previous page

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>true_divide(x1, x2, /[, out, where, …])</code></td>
<td>Returns a true division of the inputs, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>floor_divide(x1, x2, /[, out, where, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the largest integer smaller or equal to the division of the inputs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>negative(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Numerical negative, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>positive(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Numerical positive, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>power(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>First array elements raised to powers from second array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>float_power(x1, x2, /[, out, where, …])</code></td>
<td>First array elements raised to powers from second array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>remainder(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Return element-wise remainder of division.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>mod(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Return element-wise remainder of division.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>fmod(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the element-wise remainder of division.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>divmod(x1, x2[, out1, out2], /[, out, …])</code></td>
<td>Return element-wise quotient and remainder simultaneously.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>absolute(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Calculate the absolute value element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>fabs(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Compute the absolute values element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rint(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Round elements of the array to the nearest integer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>sign(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Returns an element-wise indication of the sign of a number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>heaviside(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Compute the Heaviside step function.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>conjugate(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>exp(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Calculate the exponential of all elements in the input array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>exp2(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Calculate 2**p for all p in the input array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>log(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Natural logarithm, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>log2(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Base-2 logarithm of x.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>log10(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the base 10 logarithm of the input array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>expm1(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Calculate exp(x) – 1 for all elements in the array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>log1p(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the natural logarithm of one plus the input array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>sqrt(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the non-negative square-root of an array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>square(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the element-wise square of the input.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>cbrt(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the cube-root of an array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>reciprocal(x, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the reciprocal of the argument, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>gcd(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Returns the greatest common divisor of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>lcm(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Returns the lowest common multiple of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tip: The optional output arguments can be used to help you save memory for large calculations. If your arrays are large, complicated expressions can take longer than absolutely necessary due to the creation and (later) destruction of temporary calculation spaces. For example, the expression \( G = A \times B + C \) is equivalent to \( T1 = A \times B; \ G = T1 + C; \) del T1. It will be more quickly executed as \( G = A \times B; \ add(G, C, G) \) which is the same as \( G = A \times B; \ G += C. \)
### 3.8.2 Trigonometric functions

All trigonometric functions use radians when an angle is called for. The ratio of degrees to radians is $180^\circ / \pi$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>sin(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Trigonometric sine, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>cos(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Cosine element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tan(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Compute tangent element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>arcsin(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Inverse sine, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>arccos(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Trigonometric inverse cosine, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>arctan(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Trigonometric inverse tangent, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>arctan2(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Element-wise arc tangent of $x1/x2$ choosing the quadrant correctly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>hypot(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Given the “legs” of a right triangle, return its hypotenuse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>sinh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Hyperbolic sine, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>cosh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Hyperbolic cosine, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tanh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Compute hyperbolic tangent element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>arcsinh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Inverse hyperbolic sine element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>arccosh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Inverse hyperbolic cosine, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>arctanh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Inverse hyperbolic tangent element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>degrees(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Convert angles from radians to degrees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>radians(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Convert angles from degrees to radians.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>deg2rad(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Convert angles from degrees to radians.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rad2deg(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Convert angles from radians to degrees.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.8.3 Bit-twiddling functions

These function all require integer arguments and they manipulate the bit-pattern of those arguments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>bitwise_and(x1, x2, /[, out, where, …])</code></td>
<td>Compute the bit-wise AND of two arrays element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>bitwise_or(x1, x2, /[, out, where, …])</code></td>
<td>Compute the bit-wise OR of two arrays element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>bitwise_xor(x1, x2, /[, out, where, …])</code></td>
<td>Compute the bit-wise XOR of two arrays element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>invert(x, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Compute bit-wise inversion, or bit-wise NOT, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>left_shift(x1, x2, /[, out, where, …])</code></td>
<td>Shift the bits of an integer to the left.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>right_shift(x1, x2, /[, out, where, …])</code></td>
<td>Shift the bits of an integer to the right.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.8.4 Comparison functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>greater(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the truth value of $(x1 &gt; x2)$ element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>greater_equal(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the truth value of $(x1 &gt;= x2)$ element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>less(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the truth value of $(x1 &lt; x2)$ element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>less_equal(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Return the truth value of $(x1 &lt;= x2)$ element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>not_equal(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Return $(x1 != x2)$ element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>equal(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, …])</code></td>
<td>Return $(x1 == x2)$ element-wise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Warning:** Do not use the Python keywords `and` and `or` to combine logical array expressions. These keywords will test the truth value of the entire array (not element-by-element as you might expect). Use the bitwise operators `&` and `|` instead.
\texttt{logical\_and}(x1, x2, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Compute the truth value of } x1 \text{ AND } x2 \text{ element-wise.}

\texttt{logical\_or}(x1, x2, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \text{casting}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Compute the truth value of } x1 \text{ OR } x2 \text{ element-wise.}

\texttt{logical\_xor}(x1, x2, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Compute the truth value of } x1 \text{ XOR } x2, \text{ element-wise.}

\texttt{logical\_not}(x, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \text{casting}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Compute the truth value of NOT } x \text{ element-wise.}

\textbf{Warning:} The bit-wise operators \& and | are the proper way to perform element-by-element array comparisons. Be sure you understand the operator precedence: \((a > 2) \& (a < 5)\) is the proper syntax because \(a > 2 \& a < 5\) will result in an error due to the fact that \(2 \& a\) is evaluated first.

\texttt{maximum}(x1, x2, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \text{casting}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Element-wise maximum of array elements.}

\textbf{Tip:} The Python function max() will find the maximum over a one-dimensional array, but it will do so using a slower sequence interface. The reduce method of the maximum ufunc is much faster. Also, the max() method will not give answers you might expect for arrays with greater than one dimension. The reduce method of minimum also allows you to compute a total minimum over an array.

\texttt{minimum}(x1, x2, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \text{casting}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Element-wise minimum of array elements.}

\textbf{Warning:} the behavior of maximum(a, b) is different than that of max(a, b). As a ufunc, maximum(a, b) performs an element-by-element comparison of a and b and chooses each element of the result according to which element in the two arrays is larger. In contrast, max(a, b) treats the objects a and b as a whole, looks at the (total) truth value of a > b and uses it to return either a or b (as a whole). A similar difference exists between minimum(a, b) and min(a, b).

\texttt{fmax}(x1, x2, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \text{casting}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Element-wise maximum of array elements.}

\texttt{fmin}(x1, x2, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \text{casting}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Element-wise minimum of array elements.}

\subsection*{3.8.5 Floating functions}

Recall that all of these functions work element-by-element over an array, returning an array output. The description details only a single operation.

\texttt{isfinite}(x, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \text{casting}, \text{order}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Test element-wise for finiteness (not infinity or not Not a Number).}

\texttt{isinf}(x, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \text{casting}, \text{order}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Test element-wise for positive or negative infinity.}

\texttt{isnan}(x, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \text{casting}, \text{order}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Test element-wise for NaN and return result as a boolean array.}

\texttt{isnat}(x, [\text{out}, \text{where}, \text{casting}, \text{order}, \ldots]) \quad \text{Test element-wise for NaT (not a time) and return result as a boolean array.}

continues on next page
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>fabs(x[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Compute the absolute values element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>signbit(x[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Returns element-wise True where signbit is set (less than zero).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>copysign(x1, x2[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Change the sign of x1 to that of x2, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nextafter(x1, x2[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the next floating-point value after x1 towards x2, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>spacing(x[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the distance between x and the nearest adjacent number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>modf(x[, out1, out2], [, out, where, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the fractional and integral parts of an array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ldexp(x1, x2[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Returns $x1 \times 2^{x2}$, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>frexp(x[, out1, out2], [, out, where, ...])</code></td>
<td>Decompose the elements of x into mantissa and twos exponent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>fmod(x1, x2[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the element-wise remainder of division.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>floor(x[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the floor of the input, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ceil(x[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the ceiling of the input, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>trunc(x[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the truncated value of the input, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In this chapter, routine docstrings are presented, grouped by functionality. Many docstrings contain example code, which demonstrates basic usage of the routine. The examples assume that NumPy is imported with:

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

A convenient way to execute examples is the `%doctest_mode` mode of IPython, which allows for pasting of multi-line examples and preserves indentation.

### 4.1 Array creation routines

**See also:**
Array creation

#### 4.1.1 From shape or value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>empty(shape[, dtype, order, like])</code></td>
<td>Return a new array of given shape and type, without initializing entries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>empty_like(prototype[, dtype, order, subok, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return a new array with the same shape and type as a given array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>eye[N[, M, k, dtype, order, like]]</code></td>
<td>Return a 2-D array with ones on the diagonal and zeros elsewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>identity(n[, dtype, like])</code></td>
<td>Return the identity array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ones(shape[, dtype, order, like])</code></td>
<td>Return a new array of given shape and type, filled with ones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ones_like(a[, dtype, order, subok, shape])</code></td>
<td>Return an array of ones with the same shape and type as a given array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>zeros(shape[, dtype, order, like])</code></td>
<td>Return a new array of given shape and type, filled with zeros.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>zeros_like(a[, dtype, order, subok, shape])</code></td>
<td>Return an array of zeros with the same shape and type as a given array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>full(shape, fill_value[, dtype, order, like])</code></td>
<td>Return a new array of given shape and type, filled with <code>fill_value</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>full_like(a, fill_value[, dtype, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return a full array with the same shape and type as a given array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
numpy.empty(shape[, dtype=float, order='C', *like=None])
```

Return a new array of given shape and type, without initializing entries.
Parameters

shape
[int or tuple of int] Shape of the empty array, e.g., \( (2, 3) \) or 2.

dtype
[data-type, optional] Desired output data-type for the array, e.g., `numpy.int8`. Default is `numpy.float64`.

order
[{'C', 'F'}, optional, default: 'C'] Whether to store multi-dimensional data in row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order in memory.

like
[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as `like` supports the `__array_function__` protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

out
[ndarray] Array of uninitialized (arbitrary) data of the given shape, dtype, and order. Object arrays will be initialized to None.

See also:

empty_like
Return an empty array with shape and type of input.

ones
Return a new array setting values to one.

zeros
Return a new array setting values to zero.

full
Return a new array of given shape filled with value.

Notes

empty, unlike zeros, does not set the array values to zero, and may therefore be marginally faster. On the other hand, it requires the user to manually set all the values in the array, and should be used with caution.
Examples

```python
>>> np.empty([2, 2])
array([[ -9.74499359e+001,  6.69583040e-309],
       [  2.13182611e-314,  3.06959433e-309]]) #uninitialized
```

```python
>>> np.empty([2, 2], dtype=int)
array([[-1073741821, -1067949133],
       [ 496041986,  19249760]]) #uninitialized
```

`numpy.empty_like (prototype, dtype=None, order='K', subok=True, shape=None)`

Return a new array with the same shape and type as a given array.

**Parameters**

- **prototype**
  - [array_like] The shape and data-type of `prototype` define these same attributes of the returned array.

- **dtype**
  - [data-type, optional] Overrides the data type of the result.
  
  New in version 1.6.0.

- **order**
  - [['C', 'F', 'A', or 'K'], optional] Overrides the memory layout of the result. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ if `prototype` is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means match the layout of `prototype` as closely as possible.
  
  New in version 1.6.0.

- **subok**
  - [bool, optional] If True, then the newly created array will use the sub-class type of `prototype`, otherwise it will be a base-class array. Defaults to True.

- **shape**
  - [int or sequence of ints, optional] Overrides the shape of the result. If order='K' and the number of dimensions is unchanged, will try to keep order, otherwise, order='C' is implied.
  
  New in version 1.17.0.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray] Array of uninitialized (arbitrary) data with the same shape and type as `prototype`.

**See also:**

- **ones_like**
  - Return an array of ones with shape and type of input.

- **zeros_like**
  - Return an array of zeros with shape and type of input.
full_like

Return a new array with shape of input filled with value.

empty

Return a new uninitialized array.

Notes

This function does not initialize the returned array; to do that use zeros_like or ones_like instead. It may be marginally faster than the functions that do set the array values.

Examples

```python
>>> a = ([1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6])  # a is array-like
>>> np.empty_like(a)
array([[-1073741821, -1073741821, 3],  # uninitialized
       [0, 0, -1073741821]])
>>> a = np.array([[1., 2., 3.], [4., 5., 6.]])
>>> np.empty_like(a)
array([[-2.00000715e+000, 1.48219694e-323, -2.00000572e+000],  # uninitialized
       [4.38791518e-305, -2.00000715e+000, 4.17269252e-309]])
```

numpy.eye(N, M=None, k=0, dtype=<class 'float'>, order='C', *, like=None)

Return a 2-D array with ones on the diagonal and zeros elsewhere.

Parameters

N

[int] Number of rows in the output.

M

[int, optional] Number of columns in the output. If None, defaults to N.

k

[int, optional] Index of the diagonal: 0 (the default) refers to the main diagonal, a positive value refers to an upper diagonal, and a negative value to a lower diagonal.

dtype

[data-type, optional] Data-type of the returned array.

order

[‘C’, ‘F’], optional] Whether the output should be stored in row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order in memory.

New in version 1.14.0.

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.
Returns

I

[ndarray of shape (N,M)] An array where all elements are equal to zero, except for the $k$-th diagonal, whose values are equal to one.

See also:

identity
(almost) equivalent function
diag
diagonal 2-D array from a 1-D array specified by the user.

Examples

```python
>>> np.eye(2, dtype=int)
array([[1, 0],
       [0, 1]])
>>> np.eye(3, k=1)
array([[0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.],
       [0., 0., 0.]])
```

```
>>> np.eye(2, dtype=int)
array([[1, 0],
       [0, 1]])
>>> np.eye(3, k=1)
array([[0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.],
       [0., 0., 0.]])
```

`numpy.identity(n, dtype=None, *, like=None)`

Return the identity array.

The identity array is a square array with ones on the main diagonal.

Parameters

- n
  [int] Number of rows (and columns) in $n \times n$ output.

- dtype
  [data-type, optional] Data-type of the output. Defaults to float.

- like
  [array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

- out
  [ndarray] $n \times n$ array with its main diagonal set to one, and all other elements 0.
Examples

```python
>>> np.identity(3)
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
```

`numpy.ones(shape, dtype=None, order='C', *, like=None)`
Return a new array of given shape and type, filled with ones.

**Parameters**

- `shape`  
  [int or sequence of ints] Shape of the new array, e.g., `(2, 3)` or `2`.

- `dtype`  
  [data-type, optional] The desired data-type for the array, e.g., `numpy.int8`. Default is `numpy.float64`.

- `order`  
  [{'C', 'F'}, optional, default: C] Whether to store multi-dimensional data in row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order in memory.

- `like`  
  [array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as `like` supports the `__array_function__` protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

- `out`  
  [ndarray] Array of ones with the given shape, dtype, and order.

**See also:**

- `ones_like`  
  Return an array of ones with shape and type of input.

- `empty`  
  Return a new uninitialized array.

- `zeros`  
  Return a new array setting values to zero.

- `full`  
  Return a new array of given shape filled with value.
Examples

```python
>>> np.ones(5)
array([1., 1., 1., 1., 1.])
```

```python
>>> np.ones((5,), dtype=int)
array([1, 1, 1, 1, 1])
```

```python
>>> np.ones((2,))
array([[1.],
       [1.]]
```

```python
>>> s = (2,2)
>>> np.ones(s)
array([[1., 1.],
       [1., 1.]])
```

`numpy.ones_like(a, dtype=None, order='K', subok=True, shape=None)`

Return an array of ones with the same shape and type as a given array.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] The shape and data-type of `a` define these same attributes of the returned array.

- **dtype**
  - [data-type, optional] Overrides the data type of the result.
    New in version 1.6.0.

- **order**
    New in version 1.6.0.

- **subok**
  - [bool, optional] If True, then the newly created array will use the sub-class type of `a`, otherwise it will be a base-class array. Defaults to True.

- **shape**
  - [int or sequence of ints, optional] Overrides the shape of the result. If order='K' and the number of dimensions is unchanged, will try to keep order, otherwise, order='C' is implied.
    New in version 1.17.0.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray] Array of ones with the same shape and type as `a`.

See also:
empty_like
Return an empty array with shape and type of input.

zeros_like
Return an array of zeros with shape and type of input.

full_like
Return a new array with shape of input filled with value.

ones
Return a new array setting values to one.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6)
>>> x = x.reshape((2, 3))
>>> x
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5]])

>>> np.ones_like(x)
array([[1, 1, 1],
       [1, 1, 1]])

>>> y = np.arange(3, dtype=float)
>>> y
array([0., 1., 2.])

>>> np.ones_like(y)
array([1., 1., 1.])
```

numpy.zeros(shape, dtype=float, order='C', *, like=None)
Return a new array of given shape and type, filled with zeros.

Parameters

shape
[int or tuple of ints] Shape of the new array, e.g., (2, 3) or 2.

dtype
[data-type, optional] The desired data-type for the array, e.g., numpy.int8. Default is numpy.float64.

order
[{'C', 'F'}, optional, default: 'C'] Whether to store multi-dimensional data in row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order in memory.

like
[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument. New in version 1.20.0.

Returns
out

[ndarray] Array of zeros with the given shape, dtype, and order.

See also:

zeros_like
Return an array of zeros with shape and type of input.

empty
Return a new uninitialized array.

ones
Return a new array setting values to one.

full
Return a new array of given shape filled with value.

Examples

```python
>>> np.zeros(5)
array([ 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.])

>>> np.zeros((5,), dtype=int)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0])

>>> np.zeros((2, 1))
array([[ 0.],
       [ 0.]])

>>> s = (2, 2)
>>> np.zeros(s)
array([[ 0., 0.],
       [ 0., 0.]])

>>> np.zeros((2,), dtype=[('x', 'i4'), ('y', 'i4')]) # custom dtype
array([(0, 0), (0, 0)],
      dtype=[('x', '<i4'), ('y', '<i4')])
```

numpy.zeros_like(a, dtype=None, order='K', subok=True, shape=None)
Return an array of zeros with the same shape and type as a given array.

Parameters

- a
  [array_like] The shape and data-type of a define these same attributes of the returned array.

- dtype
  [data-type, optional] Overrides the data type of the result.

  New in version 1.6.0.
order

\([\{'C', 'F', 'A', \text{or} 'K'\}, \text{optional}\]\) Overrides the memory layout of the result. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ if \(a\) is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means match the layout of \(a\) as closely as possible.

New in version 1.6.0.

subok

[bool, optional.] If True, then the newly created array will use the sub-class type of \(a\), otherwise it will be a base-class array. Defaults to True.

shape

[int or sequence of ints, optional.] Overrides the shape of the result. If order=’K’ and the number of dimensions is unchanged, will try to keep order, otherwise, order=’C’ is implied.

New in version 1.17.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Array of zeros with the same shape and type as \(a\).

See also:

empty_like

Return an empty array with shape and type of input.

ones_like

Return an array of ones with shape and type of input.

full_like

Return a new array with shape of input filled with value.

zeros

Return a new array setting values to zero.

Examples

```python
code
>>> x = np.arange(6)
>>> x = x.reshape((2, 3))
>>> x
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5]])

>>> np.zeros_like(x)
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])

>>> y = np.arange(3, dtype=float)
>>> y
array([0., 1., 2.])

>>> np.zeros_like(y)
array([0., 0., 0.])
```
numpy.full(shape, fill_value, dtype=None, order='C', *, like=None)

Return a new array of given shape and type, filled with fill_value.

Parameters

shape

[int or sequence of ints] Shape of the new array, e.g., (2, 3) or 2.

fill_value

[scalar or array_like] Fill value.

dtype

[data-type, optional]

The desired data-type for the array The default, None, means

np.array(fill_value).dtype.

order

[[‘C’, ‘F’], optional] Whether to store multidimensional data in C- or Fortran-contiguous (row-
or column-wise) order in memory.

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If
an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result
will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with
that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Array of fill_value with the given shape, dtype, and order.

See also:

full_like

Return a new array with shape of input filled with value.

empty

Return a new uninitialized array.

ones

Return a new array setting values to one.

zeros

Return a new array setting values to zero.
Examples

```python
>>> np.full((2, 2), np.inf)
array([[inf, inf],
       [inf, inf]])
>>> np.full((2, 2), 10)
array([[10, 10],
       [10, 10]])
>>> np.full((2, 2), [1, 2])
array([[1, 2],
       [1, 2]])
```

`numpy.full_like(a, fill_value, dtype=None, order='K', subok=True, shape=None)`

Return a full array with the same shape and type as a given array.

Parameters

- `a`: array_like. The shape and data-type of `a` define these same attributes of the returned array.
- `fill_value`: scalar. Fill value.
- `dtype`: data-type, optional. Overrides the data type of the result.
- `order`: {'C', 'F', 'A', or 'K'}, optional. Overrides the memory layout of the result. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ if ‘a’ is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means match the layout of ‘a’ as closely as possible.
- `subok`: bool, optional. If True, then the newly created array will use the sub-class type of `a`, otherwise it will be a base-class array. Defaults to True.
- `shape`: int or sequence of ints, optional. Overrides the shape of the result. If order='K' and the number of dimensions is unchanged, will try to keep order, otherwise, order='C' is implied.

New in version 1.17.0.

Returns

- `out`: ndarray. Array of `fill_value` with the same shape and type as `a`.

See also:

- `empty_like`: Return an empty array with shape and type of input.
- `ones_like`: Return an array of ones with shape and type of input.
zeros_like
Return an array of zeros with shape and type of input.

full
Return a new array of given shape filled with value.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6, dtype=int)
>>> np.full_like(x, 1)
array([1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1])
>>> np.full_like(x, 0.1)
array([0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.1])
>>> np.full_like(x, 0.1, dtype=np.double)
array([0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.1])
>>> np.full_like(x, np.nan, dtype=np.double)
array([nan, nan, nan, nan, nan, nan])
```

```python
>>> y = np.arange(6, dtype=np.double)
>>> np.full_like(y, 0.1)
array([0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.1])
```

4.1.2 From existing data

array(object[, dtype, copy, order, subok, ...]) Create an array.
asarray(a[, dtype, order, like]) Convert the input to an array.
asanyarray(a[, dtype, order, like]) Convert the input to an ndarray, but pass ndarray subclasses through.
ascontiguousarray(a[, dtype, like]) Return a contiguous array (ndim >= 1) in memory (C order).
asmatrix(data[, dtype]) Interpret the input as a matrix.
copy(a[, order, subok]) Return an array copy of the given object.
frombuffer(buffer[, dtype, count, offset, like]) Interpret a buffer as a 1-dimensional array.
fromfile(file[, dtype, count, sep, offset, like]) Construct an array from data in a text or binary file.
fromfunction(function, shape, [*[, dtype, like]]) Construct an array by executing a function over each coordinate.
fromiter(iter, dtype[, count, like]) Create a new 1-dimensional array from an iterable object.
fromstring(string[, dtype, count, sep, like]) A new 1-D array initialized from text data in a string.
loadtxt(fname[, dtype, comments, delimiter, ...]) Load data from a text file.

numpy.array(object, dtype=None, *, copy=True, order='K', subok=False, ndmin=0, like=None)
Create an array.

Parameters

object
[array_like] An array, any object exposing the array interface, an object whose __array__ method returns an array, or any (nested) sequence.
dtype
[data-type, optional] The desired data-type for the array. If not given, then the type will be determined as the minimum type required to hold the objects in the sequence.

**copy**

[bool, optional] If true (default), then the object is copied. Otherwise, a copy will only be made if __array__ returns a copy, if obj is a nested sequence, or if a copy is needed to satisfy any of the other requirements (dtype, order, etc.).

**order**

[{'K', 'A', 'C', 'F'}, optional] Specify the memory layout of the array. If object is not an array, the newly created array will be in C order (row major) unless 'F' is specified, in which case it will be in Fortran order (column major). If object is an array the following holds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>order</th>
<th>no copy</th>
<th>copy=True</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'K'</td>
<td>unchanged</td>
<td>F &amp; C order preserved, otherwise most similar order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'A'</td>
<td>unchanged</td>
<td>F order if input is F and not C, otherwise C order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'C'</td>
<td>C order</td>
<td>C order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'F'</td>
<td>F order</td>
<td>F order</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When copy=False and a copy is made for other reasons, the result is the same as if copy=True, with some exceptions for ‘A’, see the Notes section. The default order is ‘K’.

**subok**

[bool, optional] If True, then sub-classes will be passed-through, otherwise the returned array will be forced to be a base-class array (default).

**ndmin**

[int, optional] Specifies the minimum number of dimensions that the resulting array should have. Ones will be pre-pended to the shape as needed to meet this requirement.

**like**

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

- **out**
  
  [ndarray] An array object satisfying the specified requirements.

**See also:**

- **empty_like**
  
  Return an empty array with shape and type of input.

- **ones_like**
  
  Return an array of ones with shape and type of input.

- **zeros_like**
  
  Return an array of zeros with shape and type of input.
full_like

Return a new array with shape of input filled with value.

empty

Return a new uninitialized array.

ones

Return a new array setting values to one.

zeros

Return a new array setting values to zero.

full

Return a new array of given shape filled with value.

Notes

When order is ‘A’ and object is an array in neither ‘C’ nor ‘F’ order, and a copy is forced by a change in dtype, then the order of the result is not necessarily ‘C’ as expected. This is likely a bug.

Examples

```python
>>> np.array([1, 2, 3])
a
array([1, 2, 3])
```

Upcasting:

```python
>>> np.array([1, 2, 3.0])
a
array([ 1., 2., 3.])
```

More than one dimension:

```python
>>> np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
a
array([[1, 2],
        [3, 4]])
```

Minimum dimensions 2:

```python
>>> np.array([1, 2, 3], ndmin=2)
a
array([[1, 2, 3]])
```

Type provided:

```python
>>> np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=complex)
a
array([ 1.+0.j, 2.+0.j, 3.+0.j])
```

Data-type consisting of more than one element:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1,2],[3,4]], dtype=[('a','<i4'),('b','<i4')])
>>> x['a']
a
array([[1, 3]])
```

Creating an array from sub-classes:
numpy.array(a, dtype=None, order=None, *, like=None)

Convert the input to an array.

Parameters

- `a`  
  [array_like] Input data, in any form that can be converted to an array. This includes lists, lists of tuples, tuples of tuples, tuples of lists and ndarrays.

- `dtype`  
  [data-type, optional] By default, the data-type is inferred from the input data.

- `order`  

- `like`  
  [array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as `like` supports the `__array_function__` protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

- `out`  
  [ndarray] Array interpretation of `a`. No copy is performed if the input is already an ndarray with matching dtype and order. If `a` is a subclass of ndarray, a base class ndarray is returned.

See also:

- `asanyarray`
  Similar function which passes through subclasses.

- `ascontiguousarray`
  Convert input to a contiguous array.

- `asfarray`
  Convert input to a floating point ndarray.

- `asfortranarray`
  Convert input to an ndarray with column-major memory order.
**asarray_chkfinite**

Similar function which checks input for NaNs and Infs.

**fromiter**

Create an array from an iterator.

**fromfunction**

Construct an array by executing a function on grid positions.

### Examples

Convert a list into an array:

```python
def a = [1, 2]
de np.asarray(a)
d array([1, 2])
```

Existing arrays are not copied:

```python
def a = np.array([1, 2])
de np.asarray(a) is a
True
```

If `dtype` is set, array is copied only if dtype does not match:

```python
def a = np.array([1, 2], dtype=np.float32)
de np.asarray(a, dtype=np.float32) is a
True
de np.asarray(a, dtype=np.float64) is a
False
```

Contrary to `asanyarray`, ndarray subclasses are not passed through:

```python
def issubclass(np.recarray, np.ndarray)
True
def a = np.array([(1.0, 2), (3.0, 4)], dtype='f4,i4').view(np.recarray)
de np.asarray(a) is a
False
de np.asanyarray(a) is a
True
```

**numpy.asanyarray** *(a, dtype=\*\*, order=\*\*, *, like=\*)

Convert the input to an ndarray, but pass ndarray subclasses through.

#### Parameters

- **a**
  
  [array_like] Input data, in any form that can be converted to an array. This includes scalars, lists, lists of tuples, tuples, tuples of tuples, tuples of lists, and ndarrays.

- **dtype**
  
  [data-type, optional] By default, the data-type is inferred from the input data.

- **order**

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as `like` supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray or an ndarray subclass] Array interpretation of a. If a is an ndarray or a subclass of ndarray, it is returned as-is and no copy is performed.

See also:

asarray
    Similar function which always returns ndarrays.

ascontiguousarray
    Convert input to a contiguous array.

asfarray
    Convert input to a floating point ndarray.

asfortranarray
    Convert input to an ndarray with column-major memory order.

asarray_chkfinite
    Similar function which checks input for NaNs and Infs.

fromiter
    Create an array from an iterator.

fromfunction
    Construct an array by executing a function on grid positions.

Examples

Convert a list into an array:

```
>>> a = [1, 2]
>>> np.asanyarray(a)
array([1, 2])
```

Instances of `ndarray` subclasses are passed through as-is:
```python
>>> a = np.array([(1.0, 2), (3.0, 4)], dtype='f4,i4').view(np.recarray)
>>> np.asanyarray(a) is a
True
```

(numpy:::ascontiguousarray) 

\(a, \text{ dtype} = \text{None}, * , \text{ like} = \text{None}\)

Return a contiguous array (ndim \(\geq 1\)) in memory (C order).

**Parameters**

- \(a\)
  - [array_like] Input array.
- \(\text{dtype}\)
  - [str or dtype object, optional] Data-type of returned array.
- \(\text{like}\)
  - [array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

- \(\text{out}\)
  - [ndarray] Contiguous array of same shape and content as \(a\), with type \(\text{dtype}\) if specified.

**See also:**

  - Convert input to an ndarray with column-major memory order.
  - Return an ndarray that satisfies requirements.
  - Information about the memory layout of the array.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3)
>>> np.ascontiguousarray(x, dtype=np.float32)
array([[0., 1., 2.],
       [3., 4., 5.]], dtype=float32)
>>> x.flags['C_CONTIGUOUS']
True
```

Note: This function returns an array with at least one-dimension (1-d) so it will not preserve 0-d arrays.

(numpy:::copy) 

\(a, \text{ order} = 'K', \text{ subok} = \text{False}\)

Return an array copy of the given object.

**Parameters**

4.1. Array creation routines

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**array**

[array_like] Input data.

**order**

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the memory layout of the copy. ‘C’ means C-order, ‘F’ means F-order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ if `a` is Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means match the layout of `a` as closely as possible. (Note that this function and `ndarray.copy` are very similar, but have different default values for their order= arguments.)

**subok**

[bool, optional] If True, then sub-classes will be passed-through, otherwise the returned array will be forced to be a base-class array (defaults to False).

New in version 1.19.0.

**Returns**

**arr**


**See also:**

`ndarray.copy`

Preferred method for creating an array copy

**Notes**

This is equivalent to:

```python
>>> np.array(a, copy=True)
```

**Examples**

Create an array `x`, with a reference `y` and a copy `z`:

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> y = x
>>> z = np.copy(x)
```

Note that, when we modify `x`, `y` changes, but not `z`:

```python
>>> x[0] = 10
>>> x[0] == y[0]
True
>>> x[0] == z[0]
False
```

Note that `np.copy` is a shallow copy and will not copy object elements within arrays. This is mainly important for arrays containing Python objects. The new array will contain the same object which may lead to surprises if that object can be modified (is mutable):
To ensure all elements within an `object` array are copied, use `copy.deepcopy`:

```python
>>> import copy
>>> a = np.array([1, 'm', [2, 3, 4]], dtype=object)
>>> c = copy.deepcopy(a)
>>> c[2][0] = 10
>>> a
array([1, 'm', list([10, 3, 4])], dtype=object)
```

Numpy's `frombuffer` function is defined as:

```
interrobang np.frombuffer (buffer, dtype=float, count=-1, offset=0, *, like=None)
```

Interpret a buffer as a 1-dimensional array.

**Parameters**

- **buffer**
  - [buffer_like] An object that exposes the buffer interface.
- **dtype**
  - [data-type, optional] Data-type of the returned array; default: float.
- **count**
  - [int, optional] Number of items to read. -1 means all data in the buffer.
- **offset**
  - [int, optional] Start reading the buffer from this offset (in bytes); default: 0.
- **like**
  - [array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the `__array_function__` protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

**Notes**

If the buffer has data that is not in machine byte-order, this should be specified as part of the data-type, e.g.:

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype(int)
>>> dt = dt.newbyteorder('>')  # big-endian order
>>> np.frombuffer(buf, dtype=dt)
```

The data of the resulting array will not be byteswapped, but will be interpreted correctly.
Examples

```python
>>> s = b'hello world'
>>> np.frombuffer(s, dtype='S1', count=5, offset=6)
array([b'w', b'o', b'r', b'l', b'd'], dtype='|S1')
```

```python
>>> np.frombuffer(b'\x01\x02', dtype=np.uint8)
array([1, 2], dtype=uint8)
>>> np.frombuffer(b'\x01\x02\x03\x04\x05', dtype=np.uint8, count=3)
array([1, 2, 3], dtype=uint8)
```

`numpy.fromfile` *(file, dtype=float, count=-1, sep='', offset=0, *, like=None)*

Construct an array from data in a text or binary file.

A highly efficient way of reading binary data with a known data-type, as well as parsing simply formatted text files. Data written using the `tofile` method can be read using this function.

Parameters

- **file**
  - [file or str or Path] Open file object or filename.
  
  Changed in version 1.17.0: `pathlib.Path` objects are now accepted.

- **dtype**
  - [data-type] Data type of the returned array. For binary files, it is used to determine the size and byte-order of the items in the file. Most built-in numeric types are supported and extension types may be supported.
  
  New in version 1.18.0: Complex dtypes.

- **count**
  - [int] Number of items to read. `-1` means all items (i.e., the complete file).

- **sep**
  - [str] Separator between items if file is a text file. Empty ("") separator means the file should be treated as binary. Spaces (" ") in the separator match zero or more whitespace characters. A separator consisting only of spaces must match at least one whitespace.

- **offset**
  - [int] The offset (in bytes) from the file’s current position. Defaults to 0. Only permitted for binary files.
  
  New in version 1.17.0.

- **like**
  - [array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as `like` supports the `__array_function__` protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.
  
  New in version 1.20.0.

**See also:**

`load, save`
**ndarray.tofile**

**loadtxt**

More flexible way of loading data from a text file.

**Notes**

Do not rely on the combination of `tofile` and `fromfile` for data storage, as the binary files generated are not platform independent. In particular, no byte-order or data-type information is saved. Data can be stored in the platform independent `.npy` format using `save` and `load` instead.

**Examples**

Construct an ndarray:

```python
>>> dt = np.dtype([('time', [( 'min', np.int64), ('sec', np.int64)]),
...                   ('temp', float)])
>>> x = np.zeros((1,), dtype=dt)
>>> x['time']['min'] = 10; x['temp'] = 98.25
>>> x
array(((10, 0), 98.25),
      dtype=[('time', [( 'min', '<i8'), ('sec', '<i8')]), ('temp', '<f8')])
```

Save the raw data to disk:

```python
>>> import tempfile
>>> fname = tempfile.mkstemp()[1]
>>> x.tofile(fname)
```

Read the raw data from disk:

```python
>>> np.fromfile(fname, dtype=dt)
array(((10, 0), 98.25),
      dtype=[('time', [( 'min', '<i8'), ('sec', '<i8')]), ('temp', '<f8')])
```

The recommended way to store and load data:

```python
>>> np.save(fname, x)
>>> np.load(fname + '.npy')
array(((10, 0), 98.25),
      dtype=[('time', [( 'min', '<i8'), ('sec', '<i8')]), ('temp', '<f8')])
```

**numpy.fromfunction** *(function, shape, *, dtype=float, like=None, **kwargs)*

Construct an array by executing a function over each coordinate.

The resulting array therefore has a value `fn(x, y, z)` at coordinate `(x, y, z)`.  

**Parameters**

- **function**

  [callable] The function is called with N parameters, where N is the rank of `shape`. Each parameter represents the coordinates of the array varying along a specific axis. For example, if `shape` were `(2, 2)`, then the parameters would be `array([[0, 0], [1, 1]])` and `array([[0, 1], [0, 1]])`
shape

[(N,) tuple of ints] Shape of the output array, which also determines the shape of the coordinate arrays passed to function.

dtype

[data-type, optional] Data-type of the coordinate arrays passed to function. By default, dtype is float.

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

fromfunction

[any] The result of the call to function is passed back directly. Therefore the shape of fromfunction is completely determined by function. If function returns a scalar value, the shape of fromfunction would not match the shape parameter.

See also:

indices, meshgrid

Notes

Keywords other than dtype are passed to function.

Examples

```python
>>> np.fromfunction(lambda i, j: i == j, (3, 3), dtype=int)
array([[ True, False, False],
       [False,  True, False],
       [False, False,  True]])
```

```python
>>> np.fromfunction(lambda i, j: i + j, (3, 3), dtype=int)
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [1, 2, 3],
       [2, 3, 4]])
```

numpy.fromiter(iter, dtype, count=-1, *, like=None)

Create a new 1-dimensional array from an iterable object.

Parameters

iter

[iterable object] An iterable object providing data for the array.
**dtype**

[data-type] The data-type of the returned array.

**count**

[int, optional] The number of items to read from iterable. The default is -1, which means all data is read.

**like**

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

**out**

[ndarray] The output array.

**Notes**

Specify count to improve performance. It allows fromiter to pre-allocate the output array, instead of resizing it on demand.

**Examples**

```python
>>> iterable = (x*x for x in range(5))
>>> np.fromiter(iterable, float)
array([ 0., 1., 4., 9., 16.])
```

**numpy.fromstring** *(string, dtype=float, count=-1, sep=",", *, like=None)*

A new 1-D array initialized from text data in a string.

**Parameters**

**string**

[|str] A string containing the data.

**dtype**

[data-type, optional] The data type of the array; default: float. For binary input data, the data must be in exactly this format. Most builtin numeric types are supported and extension types may be supported.

New in version 1.18.0: Complex dtypes.

**count**

[int, optional] Read this number of dtype elements from the data. If this is negative (the default), the count will be determined from the length of the data.
sep

[str, optional] The string separating numbers in the data; extra whitespace between elements
is also ignored.

Deprecated since version 1.14: Passing sep='', the default, is deprecated since it will
toggle the deprecated binary mode of this function. This mode interprets string as bi-
nary bytes, rather than ASCII text with decimal numbers, an operation which is better spelt
frombuffer(string, dtyper, count). If string contains unicode text, the bi-
nary mode of fromstring will first encode it into bytes using either utf-8 (python 3) or the
default encoding (python 2), neither of which produce sane results.

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If
an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result
will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with
that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

arr

[ndarray] The constructed array.

Raises

ValueError

If the string is not the correct size to satisfy the requested dtype and count.

See also:

frombuffer, fromfile, fromiter

Examples

>>> np.fromstring('1 2', dtype=int, sep=' ')
a4array([1, 2])
>>> np.fromstring('1, 2', dtype=int, sep=',')
a4array([1, 2])

numpy.loadtxt (fname, dtype=<class 'float'>, comments='#', delimiter=None, converters=None, skiprows=0,
usecols=None, unpack=False, ndmin=0, encoding='bytes', max_rows=None, *, like=None)

Load data from a text file.

Each row in the text file must have the same number of values.

Parameters

fname

[file, str, or pathlib.Path] File, filename, or generator to read. If the filename extension is .gz
or .bz2, the file is first decompressed. Note that generators should return byte strings.
dtype
[data-type, optional] Data-type of the resulting array; default: float. If this is a structured data-
type, the resulting array will be 1-dimensional, and each row will be interpreted as an element
of the array. In this case, the number of columns used must match the number of fields in the
data-type.

comments
[st or sequence of st, optional] The characters or list of characters used to indicate the start
of a comment. None implies no comments. For backwards compatibility, byte strings will be
decoded as ‘latin1’. The default is ‘#’.

delimiter
[st, optional] The string used to separate values. For backwards compatibility, byte strings
will be decoded as ‘latin1’. The default is whitespace.

converters
[dict, optional] A dictionary mapping column number to a function that will parse the col-
umn string into the desired value. E.g., if column 0 is a date string: converters =
{0: datestr2num}. Converters can also be used to provide a default value for miss-
ing data (but see also genfromtxt): converters = {3: lambda s: float(s.
strip() or 0)}. Default: None.

skiprows
[int, optional] Skip the first skiprows lines, including comments; default: 0.

usecols
[int or sequence, optional] Which columns to read, with 0 being the first. For example,
usecols = (1, 4, 5) will extract the 2nd, 5th and 6th columns. The default, None, results
in all columns being read.

Changed in version 1.11.0: When a single column has to be read it is possible to use an integer
instead of a tuple. E.g usecols = 3 reads the fourth column the same way as usecols
= (3,) would.

unpack
[bool, optional] If True, the returned array is transposed, so that arguments may be unpacked
using x, y, z = loadtxt(...). When used with a structured data-type, arrays are
returned for each field. Default is False.

ndmin
[int, optional] The returned array will have at least ndmin dimensions. Otherwise mono-
dimensional axes will be squeezed. Legal values: 0 (default), 1 or 2.

New in version 1.6.0.

encoding
[str, optional] Encoding used to decode the inputfile. Does not apply to input streams. The
special value ‘bytes’ enables backward compatibility workarounds that ensures you receive byte
arrays as results if possible and passes ‘latin1’ encoded strings to converters. Override this value
to receive unicode arrays and pass strings as input to converters. If set to None the system
default is used. The default value is ‘bytes’. 

New in version 1.14.0.
max_rows

[int, optional] Read max_rows lines of content after skiprows lines. The default is to read all the lines.

New in version 1.16.0.

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Data read from the text file.

See also:

load, fromstring, fromregex
genfromtxt

Load data with missing values handled as specified.

scipy.io.loadmat

reads MATLAB data files

Notes

This function aims to be a fast reader for simply formatted files. The genfromtxt function provides more sophisticated handling of, e.g., lines with missing values.

New in version 1.10.0.

The strings produced by the Python float.hex method can be used as input for floats.

Examples

```python
>>> from io import StringIO  # StringIO behaves like a file object
>>> c = StringIO("0 1
2 3")
>>> np.loadtxt(c)
array([[0., 1.],
       [2., 3.]])
```

```python
>>> d = StringIO("M 21 72
F 35 58")
>>> np.loadtxt(d, dtype={'names': ('gender', 'age', 'weight'),
... 'formats': ('S1', 'i4', 'f4')})
array([(b'M', 21, 72.), (b'F', 35, 58.)],
     dtype=[('gender', 'S1'), ('age', '<i4'), ('weight', '<f4')])
```
```python
>>> c = StringIO("1,0,2\n3,0,4")
>>> x, y = np.loadtxt(c, delimiter=' ', usecols=(0, 2), unpack=True)
```

This example shows how `converters` can be used to convert a field with a trailing minus sign into a negative number.

```python
>>> s = StringIO('10.01 31.25-
19.22 64.31
17.57- 63.94')
>>> def conv(fld):
...     return -float(fld[:-1]) if fld.endswith(b'-') else float(fld)
... >>> np.loadtxt(s, converters={0: conv, 1: conv})
array([[ 10.01, -31.25],
       [ 19.22,  64.31],
       [-17.57,  63.94]])
```

### 4.1.3 Creating record arrays (numpy.rec)

**Note:** `numpy.rec` is the preferred alias for `numpy.core.records`.

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<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<td><code>core.records.array(obj[, dtype, shape, ...])</code></td>
<td>Construct a record array from a wide-variety of objects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>core.records.fromarrays(arrayList[, dtype, ...])</code></td>
<td>Create a record array from a (flat) list of arrays</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>core.records.fromrecords(recList[, dtype, ...])</code></td>
<td>Create a record array from a list of records in text form.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>core.records.fromstring(datastring[, dtype, ...])</code></td>
<td>Create a record array from binary data</td>
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<td>Create an array from binary file data</td>
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**core.records.array**

Construct a record array from a wide-variety of objects.

A general-purpose record array constructor that dispatches to the appropriate `recarray` creation function based on the inputs (see Notes).

**Parameters**

- **obj**
  - [any] Input object. See Notes for details on how various input types are treated.
- **dtype**
  - [data-type, optional] Valid dtype for array.
- **shape**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Shape of each array.
- **offset**
  - [int, optional] Position in the file or buffer to start reading from.
strides

[tuple of ints, optional] Buffer (buf) is interpreted according to these strides (strides define how many bytes each array element, row, column, etc. occupy in memory).

formats, names, titles, aligned, byteorder :

If dtype is None, these arguments are passed to numpy.format_parser to construct a dtype. See that function for detailed documentation.

copy

[bool, optional] Whether to copy the input object (True), or to use a reference instead. This option only applies when the input is an ndarray or recarray. Defaults to True.

Returns

np.recarray

Record array created from the specified object.

Notes

If obj is None, then call the recarray constructor. If obj is a string, then call the fromstring constructor. If obj is a list or a tuple, then if the first object is an ndarray, call fromarrays, otherwise call fromrecords. If obj is a recarray, then make a copy of the data in the recarray (if copy=True) and use the new formats, names, and titles. If obj is a file, then call fromfile. Finally, if obj is an ndarray, then return obj.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]])
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6],
       [7, 8, 9]])

>>> np.core.records.array(a)
rec.array([[1, 2, 3],
          [4, 5, 6],
          [7, 8, 9]],
         dtype=int32)

>>> b = [(1, 1), (2, 4), (3, 9)]
>>> c = np.core.records.array(b, formats = ['i2', 'f2'], names = ('x', 'y'))
>>> c
rec.array([(1, 1.0), (2, 4.0), (3, 9.0)],
          dtype=[('x', '<i2'), ('y', '<f2')])

>>> c.x
rec.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=int16)

>>> c.y
rec.array([ 1.0, 4.0, 9.0], dtype=float16)
```
```python
>>> r = np.rec.array([['abc', 'def'], names=['col1', 'col2'])
>>> print(r.col1)
abc
```

```python
>>> r.col1
array(['abc', dtype='<U3'))
```

```python
>>> r.col2
array(['def', dtype='<U3'))
```

```
core.records.fromarrays(arrayList, dtype=None, shape=None, names=None, titles=None, aligned=False, byteorder=None)
create a record array from a (flat) list of arrays

Parameters

arrayList
[list or tuple] List of array-like objects (such as lists, tuples, and ndarrays).

dtype
[data-type, optional] valid dtype for all arrays

shape
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Shape of the resulting array. If not provided, inferred from 
arrayList[0].

formats, names, titles, aligned, byteorder :
If dtype is None, these arguments are passed to numpy.format_parser to construct 
a dtype. See that function for detailed documentation.

Returns

np.recarray
Record array consisting of given arrayList columns.

Examples

```python
>>> x1=np.array([1,2,3,4])
>>> x2=np.array(['a', 'dd', 'xyz', '12'])
>>> x3=np.array([1.1,2,3,4])
>>> r = np.core.records.fromarrays([x1, x2, x3], names='a, b, c')
>>> print(r[1])
(2, 'dd', 2.0) # may vary
>>> x1[1]=34
>>> r.a
array([1, 2, 3, 4])
```
... dtype=np.dtype([('a', np.int32), ('b', 'S3'), ('c', np.float32)])

```python
>>> r
rec.array([(1, b'a', 1.1), (2, b'dd', 2.), (3, b'xyz', 3.),
           (4, b'12', 4.)],
          dtype=[('a', '<i4'), ('b', 'S3'), ('c', '<f4')])
```

```python
core.records.fromrecords (recList, dtype=None, shape=None, formats=None, names=None, titles=None,
                         aligned=False, byteorder=None)
Create a recarray from a list of records in text form.

Parameters
recList
[sequence] data in the same field may be heterogeneous - they will be promoted to the highest
data type.
dtype
[data-type, optional] valid dtype for all arrays
shape
[int or tuple of ints, optional] shape of each array.
formats, names, titles, aligned, byteorder :
If dtype is None, these arguments are passed to numpy.format_parser to construct
a dtype. See that function for detailed documentation.
If both formats and dtype are None, then this will auto-detect formats. Use list of tuples
rather than list of lists for faster processing.

Returns
np.recarray
record array consisting of given recList rows.

Examples
```python
>>> r=np.core.records.fromrecords([(456,'dbe',1.2),(2,'de',1.3)],
... names='col1,col2,col3')
>>> print(r[0])
(456, 'dbe', 1.2)
>>> r.col1
array([456, 2])
>>> r.col2
array(['dbe', 'de'], dtype='<U3')
```
Parameters

datastring  
[bytes-like] Buffer of binary data
dtype  
[data-type, optional] Valid dtype for all arrays
shape  
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Shape of each array.
offset  
[int, optional] Position in the buffer to start reading from.
formats, names, titles, aligned, byteorder :

If dtype is None, these arguments are passed to numpy.format_parser to construct a dtype. See that function for detailed documentation.

Returns

np.recarray

Record array view into the data in datastring. This will be readonly if datastring is readonly.

See also:

numpy.frombuffer

Examples

```python
>>> a = b'\x01\x02\x03abc'
>>> np.core.records.fromstring(a, dtype='u1,u1,u1,S3')
rec.array([(1, 2, 3, b'abc')],
          dtype=[('f0', 'u1'), ('f1', 'u1'), ('f2', 'u1'), ('f3', 'S3')])
```

```python
>>> grades_dtype = [('Name', (np.str_, 10)), ('Marks', np.float64), ...
                   ('GradeLevel', np.int32)]
>>> grades_array = np.array([(Sam', 33.3, 3), ('Mike', 44.4, 5), ...
                   ('Aadi', 66.6, 6)], dtype=grades_dtype)
>>> np.core.records.fromstring(grades_array.tobytes(), dtype=grades_dtype)
rec.array([(Sam', 33.3, 3), ('Mike', 44.4, 5), ('Aadi', 66.6, 6)],
          dtype=[('Name', '<U10'), ('Marks', '<f8'), ('GradeLevel', '<i4')])
```

```python
>>> s = 'abc'
>>> np.core.records.fromstring(s, dtype='u1,u1,u1,S3')
Traceback (most recent call last)
    ...
TypeError: a bytes-like object is required, not 'str'
```

core.records.fromfile (fd, dtype=None, shape=None, offset=0, formats=None, names=None, titles=None, aligned=False, byteorder=None)

Create an array from binary file data

Parameters
fd

[ str or file type ] If file is a string or a path-like object then that file is opened, else it is assumed to be a file object. The file object must support random access (i.e. it must have tell and seek methods).

dtype

[data-type, optional] valid dtype for all arrays

shape

[int or tuple of ints, optional] shape of each array.

offset

[int, optional] Position in the file to start reading from.

formats, names, titles, aligned, byteorder :

If dtype is None, these arguments are passed to numpy.format_parser to construct a dtype. See that function for detailed documentation

Returns

np.recarray

record array consisting of data enclosed in file.

Examples

```python
>>> from tempfile import TemporaryFile
>>> a = np.empty(10, dtype='f8,i4,a5')
>>> a[5] = (0.5, 10, 'abcde')

>>> fd=TemporaryFile()
>>> a = a.newbyteorder('<')
>>> a.tofile(fd)

>>> _ = fd.seek(0)
>>> r=np.core.records.fromfile(fd, formats='f8,i4,a5', shape=10, ... byteorder='<')
>>> print(r[5])
(0.5, 10, 'abcde')
>>> r.shape
(10,)
```

4.1.4 Creating character arrays (numpy.char)

Note: numpy.char is the preferred alias for numpy.core.defchararray.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>core.defchararray.array(obj[, itemsize, ...])</code></td>
<td>Create a chararray.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>core.defchararray.asarray(obj[, itemsize, ...])</code></td>
<td>Convert the input to a chararray, copying the data only if necessary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
core.defchararray.asarray(obj, itemsize=None, unicode=None, order=None)

Convert the input to a chararray, copying the data only if necessary.

Versus a regular NumPy array of type str or unicode, this class adds the following functionality:

1) values automatically have whitespace removed from the end when indexed
2) comparison operators automatically remove whitespace from the end when comparing values
3) vectorized string operations are provided as methods (e.g. str.endswith) and infix operators (e.g. +, *,”%”)

Parameters

obj

[array of str or unicode-like]

itemsize

[int, optional] itemsize is the number of characters per scalar in the resulting array. If itemsize is None, and obj is an object array or a Python list, the itemsize will be automatically determined. If itemsize is provided and obj is of type str or unicode, then the obj string will be chunked into itemsize pieces.

unicode

[bool, optional] When true, the resulting chararray can contain Unicode characters, when false only 8-bit characters. If unicode is None and obj is one of the following:

• a chararray,
• an ndarray of type str or ‘unicode’
• a Python str or unicode object,

then the unicode setting of the output array will be automatically determined.

order

[‘C’, ‘F’], optional] Specify the order of the array. If order is ‘C’ (default), then the array will be in C-contiguous order (last-index varies the fastest). If order is ‘F’, then the returned array will be in Fortran-contiguous order (first-index varies the fastest).

4.1.5 Numerical ranges

numpy.arange([start[, stop[, step[, dtype[, like]]]]])

Return evenly spaced values within a given interval.

linspace(start, stop[, num, endpoint, …])

Return evenly spaced numbers over a specified interval.

logspace(start, stop[, num, endpoint, base, …])

Return numbers spaced evenly on a log scale.

geomspace(start, stop[, num, endpoint, …])

Return numbers spaced evenly on a log scale (a geometric progression).

meshgrid(*xi[, copy, sparse, indexing])

Return coordinate matrices from coordinate vectors.

mgrid
dgrid instance which returns a dense multi-dimensional “meshgrid”.

ogrid
dgrid instance which returns an open multi-dimensional “meshgrid”.

4.1. Array creation routines
Values are generated within the half-open interval \([\text{start}, \text{stop})\) (in other words, the interval including \text{start} but excluding \text{stop}). For integer arguments the function is equivalent to the Python built-in \text{range} function, but returns an ndarray rather than a list.

When using a non-integer step, such as 0.1, the results will often not be consistent. It is better to use \texttt{numpy.linspace} for these cases.

**Parameters**

- **start**
  - [integer or real, optional] Start of interval. The interval includes this value. The default start value is 0.

- **stop**
  - [integer or real] End of interval. The interval does not include this value, except in some cases where \text{step} is not an integer and floating point round-off affects the length of \text{out}.

- **step**
  - [integer or real, optional] Spacing between values. For any output \text{out}, this is the distance between two adjacent values, \text{out}[i+1] - \text{out}[i]. The default step size is 1. If \text{step} is specified as a position argument, \text{start} must also be given.

- **dtype**
  - [dtype] The type of the output array. If \text{dtype} is not given, infer the data type from the other input arguments.

- **like**
  - [array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as \text{like} supports the \text{__array_function__} protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

- **arange**
  - [ndarray] Array of evenly spaced values.

For floating point arguments, the length of the result is
\[\text{ceil}((\text{stop} - \text{start})/\text{step}).\]

Because of floating point overflow, this rule may result in the last element of \text{out} being greater than \text{stop}.

**See also:**

- **\texttt{numpy.linspace}**
  - Evenly spaced numbers with careful handling of endpoints.

- **\texttt{numpy.ogrid}**
  - Arrays of evenly spaced numbers in N-dimensions.

- **\texttt{numpy.mgrid}**
  - Grid-shaped arrays of evenly spaced numbers in N-dimensions.
### Examples

```python
>>> np.arange(3)
array([0, 1, 2])

>>> np.arange(3.0)
array([ 0., 1., 2.])

>>> np.arange(3, 7)
array([3, 4, 5, 6])

>>> np.arange(3, 7, 2)
array([3, 5])
```

**numpy.linspace** *(start, stop, num=50, endpoint=True, retstep=False, dtype=None, axis=0)*

Return evenly spaced numbers over a specified interval.

Returns *num* evenly spaced samples, calculated over the interval *[start, stop]*.

The endpoint of the interval can optionally be excluded.

Changed in version 1.16.0: Non-scalar *start* and *stop* are now supported.

Changed in version 1.20.0: Values are rounded towards -inf instead of 0 when an integer *dtype* is specified.

The old behavior can still be obtained with `np.linspace(start, stop, num).astype(int)`

**Parameters**

- **start**
  - [array_like] The starting value of the sequence.

- **stop**
  - [array_like] The end value of the sequence, unless *endpoint* is set to False. In that case, the sequence consists of all but the last of *num* + 1 evenly spaced samples, so that *stop* is excluded. Note that the step size changes when *endpoint* is False.

- **num**
  - [int, optional] Number of samples to generate. Default is 50. Must be non-negative.

- **endpoint**
  - [bool, optional] If True, *stop* is the last sample. Otherwise, it is not included. Default is True.

- **retstep**
  - [bool, optional] If True, return *(samples, step)*, where *step* is the spacing between samples.

- **dtype**
  - [dtype, optional] The type of the output array. If *dtype* is not given, the data type is inferred from *start* and *stop*. The inferred dtype will never be an integer; *float* is chosen even if the arguments would produce an array of integers.

    New in version 1.9.0.

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] The axis in the result to store the samples. Relevant only if start or stop are array-like. By default (0), the samples will be along a new axis inserted at the beginning. Use -1 to get an axis at the end.

    New in version 1.16.0.

**Returns**
samples
[ndarray] There are num equally spaced samples in the closed interval [start, stop] or the half-open interval [start, stop) (depending on whether endpoint is True or False).

step
[float, optional] Only returned if retstep is True
Size of spacing between samples.

See also:

arange
Similar to linspace, but uses a step size (instead of the number of samples).

geomspace
Similar to linspace, but with numbers spaced evenly on a log scale (a geometric progression).

logspace
Similar to geomspace, but with the end points specified as logarithms.

Examples

```python
>>> np.linspace(2.0, 3.0, num=5)
array([2. , 2.25, 2.5 , 2.75, 3. ])
>>> np.linspace(2.0, 3.0, num=5, endpoint=False)
array([2. , 2.2, 2.4, 2.6, 2.8])
>>> np.linspace(2.0, 3.0, num=5, retstep=True)
(array([2. , 2.25, 2.5 , 2.75, 3. ]), 0.25)
```

Graphical illustration:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> N = 8
>>> y = np.zeros(N)
>>> x1 = np.linspace(0, 10, N, endpoint=True)
>>> x2 = np.linspace(0, 10, N, endpoint=False)
>>> plt.plot(x1, y, 'o')
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.plot(x2, y + 0.5, 'o')
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.ylim([-0.5, 1])
(-0.5, 1)
>>> plt.show()
```

numpy.logspace (start, stop, num=50, endpoint=True, base=10.0, dtype=None, axis=0)
Return numbers spaced evenly on a log scale.

In linear space, the sequence starts at base ** start (base to the power of start) and ends with base ** stop (see endpoint below).

Changed in version 1.16.0: Non-scalar start and stop are now supported.

Parameters
start

[array_like] base ** start is the starting value of the sequence.

stop

[array_like] base ** stop is the final value of the sequence, unless endpoint is False. In that case, num + 1 values are spaced over the interval in log-space, of which all but the last (a sequence of length num) are returned.

num

[integer, optional] Number of samples to generate. Default is 50.

dtype

[dtype] The type of the output array. If dtype is not given, the data type is inferred from start and stop. The inferred type will never be an integer; float is chosen even if the arguments would produce an array of integers.

axis

[int, optional] The axis in the result to store the samples. Relevant only if start or stop are array-like. By default (0), the samples will be along a new axis inserted at the beginning. Use -1 to get an axis at the end.

New in version 1.16.0.

Returns

samples
[ndarray] num samples, equally spaced on a log scale.

See also:

- **arange**
  
  Similar to linspace, with the step size specified instead of the number of samples. Note that, when used with a float endpoint, the endpoint may or may not be included.

- **linspace**
  
  Similar to logspace, but with the samples uniformly distributed in linear space, instead of log space.

- **geomspace**
  
  Similar to logspace, but with endpoints specified directly.

**Notes**

Logspace is equivalent to the code

```python
>>> y = np.logspace(start, stop, num=num, endpoint=endpoint)
...
>>> power(base, y).astype(dtype)
...
```

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.logspace(2.0, 3.0, num=4)
array([ 100. , 215.443469 , 464.15888336, 1000. ])
>>> np.logspace(2.0, 3.0, num=4, endpoint=False)
array([ 100. , 177.827941 , 316.22776602, 562.34132519])
>>> np.logspace(2.0, 3.0, num=4, base=2.0)
array([4. , 5.0396842 , 6.34960421, 8. ])
```

Graphical illustration:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> N = 10
>>> x1 = np.logspace(0.1, 1, N, endpoint=True)
>>> x2 = np.logspace(0.1, 1, N, endpoint=False)
>>> y = np.zeros(N)
>>> plt.plot(x1, y, 'o')
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.plot(x2, y + 0.5, 'o')
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.ylim([-0.5, 1])
(-0.5, 1)
>>> plt.show()
```

**numpy.geomspace** (start, stop, num=50, endpoint=True, dtype=None, axis=0)

Return numbers spaced evenly on a log scale (a geometric progression).

This is similar to **logspace**, but with endpoints specified directly. Each output sample is a constant multiple of the previous.

Changed in version 1.16.0: Non-scalar start and stop are now supported.
Parameters

**start**

[array_like] The starting value of the sequence.

**stop**

[array_like] The final value of the sequence, unless `endpoint` is False. In that case, \( \text{num} + 1 \) values are spaced over the interval in log-space, of which all but the last (a sequence of length \( \text{num} \)) are returned.

**num**

[integer, optional] Number of samples to generate. Default is 50.

**endpoint**

[boolean, optional] If true, `stop` is the last sample. Otherwise, it is not included. Default is True.

**dtype**

[dttype] The type of the output array. If `dtype` is not given, the data type is inferred from `start` and `stop`. The inferred dtype will never be an integer; `float` is chosen even if the arguments would produce an array of integers.

**axis**

[int, optional] The axis in the result to store the samples. Relevant only if start or stop are array-like. By default (0), the samples will be along a new axis inserted at the beginning. Use -1 to get an axis at the end.

New in version 1.16.0.

Returns

**samples**

[ndarray] `num` samples, equally spaced on a log scale.
See also:

logspace

Similar to geomspace, but with endpoints specified using log and base.

linspace

Similar to geomspace, but with arithmetic instead of geometric progression.

arange

Similar to linspace, with the step size specified instead of the number of samples.

Notes

If the inputs or dtype are complex, the output will follow a logarithmic spiral in the complex plane. (There are an infinite number of spirals passing through two points; the output will follow the shortest such path.)

Examples

```python
>>> np.geomspace(1, 1000, num=4)
array([ 1., 10., 100., 1000.])
>>> np.geomspace(1, 1000, num=3, endpoint=False)
array([ 1., 10., 100.])
>>> np.geomspace(1, 1000, num=4, endpoint=False)
array([ 1., 5.62341325, 31.6227766 , 177.827941 ])
>>> np.geomspace(1, 256, num=9)
array([ 1. , 2. , 4. ,  8. , 16. , 64. , 128. , 256.])
```

Note that the above may not produce exact integers:

```python
>>> np.geomspace(1, 256, num=9, dtype=int)
array([ 1, 2, 4, 7, 16, 32, 63, 127, 256])
>>> np.around(np.geomspace(1, 256, num=9)).astype(int)
array([ 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256])
```

Negative, decreasing, and complex inputs are allowed:

```python
>>> np.geomspace(1000, 1, num=4)
array([1000., 100., 10., 1.])
>>> np.geomspace(-1000, -1, num=4)
array([-1000., -100., -10., -1.])
>>> np.geomspace(1j, 1000j, num=4) # Straight line
array([0. +1.j, 0. +10.j, 0. +100.j, 0.+1000.j])
>>> np.geomspace(-1+0j, 1+0j, num=5) # Circle
array([-1.00000000e+00+1.22464680e-16j, -7.07106781e-01+7.07106781e-01j,
       6.12323400e-17+1.00000000e+00j, 7.07106781e-01+7.07106781e-01j,
       1.00000000e+00+0.00000000e+00j])
```

Graphical illustration of `endpoint` parameter:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> N = 10
>>> y = np.zeros(N)
>>> plt.semilogx(np.geomspace(1, 1000, N, endpoint=True), y + 1, 'o')
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
```

numpy.meshgrid(*xi, copy=True, sparse=False, indexing='xy')

Return coordinate matrices from coordinate vectors.

Make N-D coordinate arrays for vectorized evaluations of N-D scalar/vector fields over N-D grids, given one-dimensional coordinate arrays x1, x2, ..., xn.

Changed in version 1.9: 1-D and 0-D cases are allowed.

Parameters

x1, x2, ..., xn

[array_like] 1-D arrays representing the coordinates of a grid.

indexing

[{'xy', 'ij'}, optional] Cartesian ('xy', default) or matrix ('ij') indexing of output. See Notes for more details.

New in version 1.7.0.

sparse

[bool, optional] If True a sparse grid is returned in order to conserve memory. Default is False.

New in version 1.7.0.

copy

[bool, optional] If False, a view into the original arrays are returned in order to conserve memory. Default is True. Please note that sparse=False, copy=False will likely return non-contiguous arrays. Furthermore, more than one element of a broadcast array may refer to a single memory location. If you need to write to the arrays, make copies first.
New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

\[X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N\]

[ndarray] For vectors \(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\) with lengths \(N_i = \text{len}(x_i)\), return \((N_1, N_2, N_3, \ldots, N_n)\) shaped arrays if indexing='ij' or \((N_2, N_1, N_3, \ldots, N_n)\) shaped arrays if indexing='xy' with the elements of \(x_i\) repeated to fill the matrix along the first dimension for \(x_1\), the second for \(x_2\) and so on.

See also:

- mgrid
  Construct a multi-dimensional “meshgrid” using indexing notation.
- ogrid
  Construct an open multi-dimensional “meshgrid” using indexing notation.

Notes

This function supports both indexing conventions through the indexing keyword argument. Giving the string ‘ij’ returns a meshgrid with matrix indexing, while ‘xy’ returns a meshgrid with Cartesian indexing. In the 2-D case with inputs of length \(M\) and \(N\), the outputs are of shape \((N, M)\) for ‘xy’ indexing and \((M, N)\) for ‘ij’ indexing. In the 3-D case with inputs of length \(M\), \(N\) and \(P\), outputs are of shape \((N, M, P)\) for ‘xy’ indexing and \((M, N, P)\) for ‘ij’ indexing. The difference is illustrated by the following code snippet:

```python
xv, yv = np.meshgrid(x, y, sparse=False, indexing='ij')
for i in range(nx):
    for j in range(ny):
        # treat xv[i,j], yv[i,j]

xv, yv = np.meshgrid(x, y, sparse=False, indexing='xy')
for i in range(nx):
    for j in range(ny):
        # treat xv[j,i], yv[j,i]
```

In the 1-D and 0-D case, the indexing and sparse keywords have no effect.

Examples

```python
>>> nx, ny = (3, 2)
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 1, nx)
>>> y = np.linspace(0, 1, ny)
>>> xv, yv = np.meshgrid(x, y)
>>> xv
array([[0. , 0.5, 1. ],
       [0. , 0.5, 1. ]])
>>> yv
array([[0. , 0. , 0. ],
       [1. , 1. , 1. ]])
>>> xv, yv = np.meshgrid(x, y, sparse=True)  # make sparse output arrays
>>> xv
```
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

(continued from previous page)

```python
array([[0. , 0.5, 1. ]])
>>> yv
array([[0.],
       [1.]])
```

`meshgrid` is very useful to evaluate functions on a grid.

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = np.arange(-5, 5, 0.1)
>>> y = np.arange(-5, 5, 0.1)
>>> xx, yy = np.meshgrid(x, y, sparse=True)
>>> z = np.sin(xx**2 + yy**2) / (xx**2 + yy**2)
>>> h = plt.contourf(x, y, z)
>>> plt.axis('scaled')
>>> plt.show()
```

![Contour plot]

**numpy.mgrid** = `<numpy.lib.index_tricks.MGridClass object>`

`nd_grid` instance which returns a dense multi-dimensional “meshgrid”.

An instance of `numpy.lib.index_tricks.nd_grid` which returns an dense (or fleshed out) mesh-grid when indexed, so that each returned argument has the same shape. The dimensions and number of the output arrays are equal to the number of indexing dimensions. If the step length is not a complex number, then the stop is not inclusive.

However, if the step length is a complex number (e.g. 5j), then the integer part of its magnitude is interpreted as specifying the number of points to create between the start and stop values, where the stop value is **inclusive**.

Returns

mesh-grid ndarrays all of the same dimensions

See also:

`numpy.lib.index_tricks.nd_grid`

class of `ogrid` and `mgrid` objects

4.1. Array creation routines  517
**ogrid**

like mgrid but returns open (not fleshed out) mesh grids

**Examples**

```python
code
>>> np.mgrid[0:5,0:5]
array([[0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
       [1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
       [2, 2, 2, 2, 2],
       [3, 3, 3, 3, 3],
       [4, 4, 4, 4, 4]],
       [[0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
       [0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
       [0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
       [0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
       [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]],
       [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]])
>>> np.mgrid[-1:1:5j]
array([-1., -0.5, 0., 0.5, 1.])
```

numpy.ogrid = <numpy.lib.index_tricks.OGridClass object>

nd_grid instance which returns an open multi-dimensional “meshgrid”.

An instance of numpy.lib.index_tricks.nd_grid which returns an open (i.e. not fleshed out) meshgrid when indexed, so that only one dimension of each returned array is greater than 1. The dimension and number of the output arrays are equal to the number of indexing dimensions. If the step length is not a complex number, then the stop is not inclusive.

However, if the step length is a complex number (e.g. 5j), then the integer part of its magnitude is interpreted as specifying the number of points to create between the start and stop values, where the stop value is inclusive.

Returns

mesh-grid

ndarrays with only one dimension not equal to 1

See also:

np.lib.index_tricks.nd_grid
class of ogrid and mgrid objects

mgrid

like ogrid but returns dense (or fleshed out) mesh grids

r_

array concatenator
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy import ogrid
>>> ogrid[-1:1:5j]
array([-1. , -0.5, 0. , 0.5, 1. ])
>>> ogrid[0:5,0:5]
[array([[0],
    [1],
    [2],
    [3],
    [4]]), array([[0, 1, 2, 3, 4]])]
```

4.1.6 Building matrices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>diag(v[, k])</code></td>
<td>Extract a diagonal or construct a diagonal array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>diagflat(v[, k])</code></td>
<td>Create a two-dimensional array with the flattened input as a diagonal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tri(N[, M, k, dtype, like])</code></td>
<td>An array with ones at and below the given diagonal and zeros elsewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tril(m[, k])</code></td>
<td>Lower triangle of an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>triu(m[, k])</code></td>
<td>Upper triangle of an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>vander(x[, N, increasing])</code></td>
<td>Generate a Vandermonde matrix.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```
numpy.diag(v, k=0)
Extract a diagonal or construct a diagonal array.

See the more detailed documentation for `numpy.diagonal` if you use this function to extract a diagonal and wish to write to the resulting array; whether it returns a copy or a view depends on what version of numpy you are using.

Parameters

- **v**
  
  [array_like] If `v` is a 2-D array, return a copy of its `k`-th diagonal. If `v` is a 1-D array, return a 2-D array with `v` on the `k`-th diagonal.

- **k**
  
  [int, optional] Diagonal in question. The default is 0. Use `k>0` for diagonals above the main diagonal, and `k<0` for diagonals below the main diagonal.

Returns

- **out**
  
  [ndarray] The extracted diagonal or constructed diagonal array.

See also:

- `diagonal`
  
  Return specified diagonals.
```

4.1. Array creation routines
**diagflat**

Create a 2-D array with the flattened input as a diagonal.

**trace**

Sum along diagonals.

**triu**

Upper triangle of an array.

**tril**

Lower triangle of an array.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.arange(9).reshape((3, 3))
>>> x
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5],
       [6, 7, 8]])

>>> np.diag(x)
array([0, 4, 8])

>>> np.diag(x, k=1)
array([1, 5])

>>> np.diag(x, k=-1)
array([3, 7])

>>> np.diag(np.diag(x))
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 4, 0],
       [0, 0, 8]])
```

```python
np.diagflat(v, k=0)
```

Create a two-dimensional array with the flattened input as a diagonal.

**Parameters**

- v
  - [array_like] Input data, which is flattened and set as the k-th diagonal of the output.

- k
  - [int, optional] Diagonal to set; 0, the default, corresponds to the “main” diagonal, a positive (negative) k giving the number of the diagonal above (below) the main.

**Returns**

- out
  - [ndarray] The 2-D output array.

**See also:**
**diag**

MATLAB work-alike for 1-D and 2-D arrays.

**diagonal**

Return specified diagonals.

**trace**

Sum along diagonals.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.diagflat([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
array([[1, 0, 0, 0],
       [0, 2, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 3, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 4]])
```

```python
>>> np.diagflat([1, 2], 1)
array([[0, 1, 0],
       [0, 0, 2],
       [0, 0, 0]])
```

**numpy.tri** (*N*, *M=None*, *k=0*, *dtype=float*, *, *like=None*)

An array with ones at and below the given diagonal and zeros elsewhere.

**Parameters**

- **N**
  - [int] Number of rows in the array.

- **M**
  - [int, optional] Number of columns in the array. By default, *M* is taken equal to *N*.

- **k**
  - [int, optional] The sub-diagonal at and below which the array is filled. *k* = 0 is the main diagonal, while *k* < 0 is below it, and *k* > 0 is above. The default is 0.

- **dtype**
  - [dtype, optional] Data type of the returned array. The default is float.

- **like**
  - [array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as *like* supports the `__array_function__` protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

- **tri**
  - [ndarray of shape (*N*, *M*)] Array with its lower triangle filled with ones and zero elsewhere; in other words *T[i, j] == 1* for *j <= i + k*, 0 otherwise.
Examples

```python
>>> np.tri(3, 5, 2, dtype=int)
array([[1, 1, 0, 0, 0],
       [1, 1, 1, 0, 0],
       [1, 1, 1, 1, 1]])
```

```python
>>> np.tri(3, 5, -1)
array([[0., 0., 0., 0., 0.],
       [1., 0., 0., 0., 0.],
       [1., 1., 0., 0., 0.]])
```

`numpy.tril(m, k=0)`

Lower triangle of an array.

Return a copy of an array with elements above the k-th diagonal zeroed.

**Parameters**

- **m**
  
  [array_like, shape (M, N)] Input array.

- **k**
  
  [int, optional] Diagonal above which to zero elements. k = 0 (the default) is the main diagonal, k < 0 is below it and k > 0 is above.

**Returns**

- **tril**
  
  [ndarray, shape (M, N)] Lower triangle of m, of same shape and data-type as m.

**See also:**

- **triu**
  
    same thing, only for the upper triangle

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.tril([[1,2,3],[4,5,6],[7,8,9],[10,11,12]], -1)
array([[ 0.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 4.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 7.,  8.,  0.],
       [10., 11., 12.]])
```

`numpy.triu(m, k=0)`

Upper triangle of an array.

Return a copy of an array with the elements below the k-th diagonal zeroed.

Please refer to the documentation for `tril` for further details.

**See also:**
**tril**

lower triangle of an array

**Examples**

```python
gnp.triu([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9], [10, 11, 12]], -1)
array([[ 1,  2,  3],
       [ 4,  5,  6],
       [ 0,  8,  9],
       [ 0,  0, 12]])
```

`numpy.vander(x, N=None, increasing=False)`

Generate a Vandermonde matrix.

The columns of the output matrix are powers of the input vector. The order of the powers is determined by the `increasing` boolean argument. Specifically, when `increasing` is False, the `i`-th output column is the input vector raised element-wise to the power of `N - i - 1`. Such a matrix with a geometric progression in each row is named for Alexandre-Theophile Vandermonde.

**Parameters**

- `x`  
  [array_like] 1-D input array.

- `N`  
  [int, optional] Number of columns in the output. If `N` is not specified, a square array is returned (`N = len(x)`).

- `increasing`  
  [bool, optional] Order of the powers of the columns. If True, the powers increase from left to right, if False (the default) they are reversed.

  New in version 1.9.0.

**Returns**

- `out`  
  [ndarray] Vandermonde matrix. If `increasing` is False, the first column is `x^{(N-1)}`, the second `x^{(N-2)}` and so forth. If `increasing` is True, the columns are `x^0`, `x^1`, ..., `x^{(N-1)}`.

**See also:**

`polynomial.polynomial.polyvander`
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3, 5])
>>> N = 3
>>> np.vander(x, N)
array([[ 1,  1,  1],
       [ 4,  2,  1],
       [ 9,  3,  1],
       [25,  5,  1]])
```

```python
>>> np.column_stack([[x**(N-1-i) for i in range(N)]])
array([[ 1,  1,  1],
       [ 4,  2,  1],
       [ 9,  3,  1],
       [25,  5,  1]])
```

The determinant of a square Vandermonde matrix is the product of the differences between the values of the input vector:

```python
>>> np.linalg.det(np.vander(x))
48.000000000000043 # may vary
>>> (5-3) * (5-2) * (5-1) * (3-2) * (3-1) * (2-1)
48
```

### 4.1.7 The Matrix class

```
mat(data[, dtype])    Interpret the input as a matrix.
bmat(obj[, ldct, gdct]) Build a matrix object from a string, nested sequence, or array.
```

`numpy.mat(data, dtype=None)`

Interpret the input as a matrix.

Unlike `matrix`, `asmatrix` does not make a copy if the input is already a matrix or an ndarray. Equivalent to `matrix(data, copy=False)`.

**Parameters**

- **data**
  - array_like: Input data.

- **dtype**
[data-type] Data-type of the output matrix.

Returns

mat

[matrix] data interpreted as a matrix.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> m = np.asmatrix(x)
>>> x[0, 0] = 5
>>> m
matrix([[5, 2],
        [3, 4]])
```

4.2 Array manipulation routines

4.2.1 Basic operations

```python
numpy.copyto(dst, src[, casting, where]) Copies values from one array to another, broadcasting as necessary.
shape(a) Return the shape of an array.
```

**numpy.copyto** *(dst, src, casting='same_kind', where=True)*

Copies values from one array to another, broadcasting as necessary.

Raises a TypeError if the casting rule is violated, and if where is provided, it selects which elements to copy.

New in version 1.7.0.

**Parameters**

- `dst` [ndarray] The array into which values are copied.
- `src` [array_like] The array from which values are copied.
- `casting` [('no', 'equiv', 'safe', 'same_kind', 'unsafe'), optional] Controls what kind of data casting may occur when copying.
  - 'no' means the data types should not be cast at all.
  - 'equiv' means only byte-order changes are allowed.
  - 'safe' means only casts which can preserve values are allowed.
• ‘same_kind’ means only safe casts or casts within a kind, like float64 to float32, are allowed.
• 'unsafe' means any data conversions may be done.

where

[array_like of bool, optional] A boolean array which is broadcasted to match the dimensions of dst, and selects elements to copy from src to dst wherever it contains the value True.

numpy.shape(a)

Return the shape of an array.

Parameters

a
array_like Input array.

Returns

shape
tuple of ints The elements of the shape tuple give the lengths of the corresponding array dimensions.

See also:

len
ndarray.shape
Equivalent array method.

Examples

```python
>>> np.shape(np.eye(3))
(3, 3)
>>> np.shape([[1, 2]])
(1, 2)
>>> np.shape([0])
(1,)
>>> np.shape(0)
()
```

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], (3, 4)], dtype=[('x', 'i4'), ('y', 'i4')])
>>> np.shape(a)
(2,)
>>> a.shape
(2,)
```
4.2.2 Changing array shape

numpy.reshape(a, newshape, order='C')
Gives a new shape to an array without changing its data.

Parameters

a
[array_like] Array to be reshaped.

newshape
[int or tuple of ints] The new shape should be compatible with the original shape. If an integer, then the result will be a 1-D array of that length. One shape dimension can be -1. In this case, the value is inferred from the length of the array and remaining dimensions.

order
[{'C', 'F', 'A'}, optional] Read the elements of a using this index order, and place the elements into the reshaped array using this index order. 'C' means to read / write the elements using C-like index order, with the last axis index changing fastest, back to the first axis index changing slowest. 'F' means to read / write the elements using Fortran-like index order, with the first index changing fastest, and the last index changing slowest. Note that the ‘C’ and ‘F’ options take no account of the memory layout of the underlying array, and only refer to the order of indexing. ‘A’ means to read / write the elements in Fortran-like index order if a is Fortran contiguous in memory, C-like order otherwise.

Returns

reshaped_array
[ndarray] This will be a new view object if possible; otherwise, it will be a copy. Note there is no guarantee of the memory layout (C- or Fortran- contiguous) of the returned array.

See also:

ndarray.reshape
Equivalent method.

Notes

It is not always possible to change the shape of an array without copying the data. If you want an error to be raised when the data is copied, you should assign the new shape to the shape attribute of the array:

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((10, 2))
# A transpose makes the array non-contiguous
>>> b = a.T
(continues on next page)```
# Taking a view makes it possible to modify the shape without modifying the initial object.

```python
>>> c = b.view()
```

```python
>>> c.shape = (20)
```

Traceback (most recent call last):
...

`AttributeError`: Incompatible shape for in-place modification. Use `.reshape()` to make a copy with the desired shape.

The `order` keyword gives the index ordering both for fetching the values from `a`, and then placing the values into the output array. For example, let’s say you have an array:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape((3, 2))
>>> a
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3],
       [4, 5]])
```

You can think of reshaping as first raveling the array (using the given index order), then inserting the elements from the raveled array into the new array using the same kind of index ordering as was used for the raveling.

```python
>>> np.reshape(a, (2, 3)) # C-like index ordering
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5]])
```

```python
>>> np.reshape(np.ravel(a), (2, 3)) # equivalent to C ravel then C reshape
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5]])
```

```python
>>> np.reshape(a, (2, 3), order='F') # Fortran-like index ordering
array([[0, 4, 3],
       [2, 1, 5]])
```

```python
>>> np.reshape(np.ravel(a, order='F'), (2, 3), order='F')
array([[0, 4, 3],
       [2, 1, 5]])
```

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]])
>>> np.reshape(a, 6)
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6])
>>> np.reshape(a, 6, order='F')
array([1, 4, 2, 5, 3, 6])
```

```python
>>> np.reshape(a, (3,-1)) # the unspecified value is inferred to be 2
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4],
       [5, 6]])
```

`numpy.ravel(a, order='C')`

Return a contiguous flattened array.

A 1-D array, containing the elements of the input, is returned. A copy is made only if needed.

As of NumPy 1.10, the returned array will have the same type as the input array. (for example, a masked array will be returned for a masked array input)

Parameters
a

[array_like] Input array. The elements in a are read in the order specified by order, and packed as a 1-D array.

order

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] The elements of a are read using this index order. ‘C’ means to index the elements in row-major, C-style order, with the last axis index changing fastest, back to the first axis index changing slowest. ‘F’ means to index the elements in column-major, Fortran-style order, with the first index changing fastest, and the last index changing slowest. Note that the ‘C’ and ‘F’ options take no account of the memory layout of the underlying array, and only refer to the order of axis indexing. ‘A’ means to read the elements in Fortran-like index order if a is Fortran contiguous in memory, C-like order otherwise. ‘K’ means to read the elements in the order they occur in memory, except for reversing the data when strides are negative. By default, ‘C’ index order is used.

Returns

y

[array_like] y is an array of the same subtype as a, with shape (a.size,). Note that matrices are special cased for backward compatibility, if a is a matrix, then y is a 1-D ndarray.

See also:

ndarray.flat

1-D iterator over an array.

ndarray.flatten

1-D array copy of the elements of an array in row-major order.

ndarray.reshape

Change the shape of an array without changing its data.

Notes

In row-major, C-style order, in two dimensions, the row index varies the slowest, and the column index the quickest. This can be generalized to multiple dimensions, where row-major order implies that the index along the first axis varies slowest, and the index along the last quickest. The opposite holds for column-major, Fortran-style index ordering.

When a view is desired in as many cases as possible, arr.reshape(-1) may be preferable.

Examples

It is equivalent to reshape(-1, order=order).

```python
>>> x = np.array(((1, 2, 3), (4, 5, 6)))
>>> np.ravel(x)
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6])

>>> x.reshape(-1)
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6])
```
>>> np.ravel(x, order='F')
array([1, 4, 2, 5, 3, 6])

When order is ‘A’, it will preserve the array’s ‘C’ or ‘F’ ordering:

>>> np.ravel(x.T)
array([1, 4, 2, 5, 3, 6])
>>> np.ravel(x.T, order='A')
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6])

When order is ‘K’, it will preserve orderings that are neither ‘C’ nor ‘F’, but won’t reverse axes:

>>> a = np.arange(3)[::-1]; a
array([2, 1, 0])
>>> a.ravel(order='C')
array([2, 1, 0])
>>> a.ravel(order='K')
array([2, 1, 0])

>>> a = np.arange(12).reshape(2,3,2).swapaxes(1,2); a
array([[ 0, 2, 4],
       [ 1, 3, 5],
       [ 6, 8, 10],
       [ 7, 9, 11]])
>>> a.ravel(order='C')
array([ 0, 2, 4, 1, 3, 5, 6, 8, 10, 7, 9, 11])
>>> a.ravel(order='K')
array([ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11])

### 4.2.3 Transpose-like operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>moveaxis(a, source, destination)</code></td>
<td>Move axes of an array to new positions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rollaxis(a, axis[, start])</code></td>
<td>Roll the specified axis backwards, until it lies in a given position.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>swapaxes(a, axis1, axis2)</code></td>
<td>Interchange two axes of an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.T</code></td>
<td>The transposed array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>transpose(a[, axes])</code></td>
<td>Reverse or permute the axes of an array; returns the modified array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`numpy.moveaxis(a, source, destination)`

Move axes of an array to new positions.

Other axes remain in their original order.

New in version 1.11.0.

**Parameters**

- `a`  
  [np.ndarray] The array whose axes should be reordered.

- `source`  
  [int or sequence of int] Original positions of the axes to move. These must be unique.
destination

[int or sequence of int] Destination positions for each of the original axes. These must also be unique.

Returns

result

[np.ndarray] Array with moved axes. This array is a view of the input array.

See also:

transpose

Permute the dimensions of an array.

swapaxes

Interchange two axes of an array.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.zeros((3, 4, 5))
>>> np.moveaxis(x, 0, -1).shape
(4, 5, 3)
>>> np.moveaxis(x, -1, 0).shape
(5, 3, 4)
```

These all achieve the same result:

```python
>>> np.transpose(x).shape
(5, 4, 3)
>>> np.swapaxes(x, 0, -1).shape
(5, 4, 3)
>>> np.moveaxis(x, [0, 1], [-1, -2]).shape
(5, 3, 4)
>>> np.moveaxis(x, [0, 1, 2], [-1, -2, -3]).shape
(5, 4, 3)
```

`numpy.rollaxis(a, axis, start=0)`

Roll the specified axis backwards, until it lies in a given position.

This function continues to be supported for backward compatibility, but you should prefer `moveaxis`. The `moveaxis` function was added in NumPy 1.11.

Parameters

a

[np.ndarray] Input array.

axis

[int] The axis to be rolled. The positions of the other axes do not change relative to one another.

start

[int, optional] When start <= axis, the axis is rolled back until it lies in this position. When start > axis, the axis is rolled until it lies before this position. The default, 0,
results in a “complete” roll. The following table describes how negative values of \texttt{start} are interpreted:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>\texttt{start}</th>
<th>Normalized \texttt{start}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-(\texttt{arr.ndim}+1)</td>
<td>raise AxisError</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-\texttt{arr.ndim}</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:</td>
<td>:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>\texttt{arr.ndim}-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:</td>
<td>:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{arr.ndim}</td>
<td>\texttt{arr.ndim}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{arr.ndim} + 1</td>
<td>raise AxisError</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textbf{Returns}

\texttt{res}

\texttt{[ndarray]} For NumPy $\geq 1.10.0$ a view of \texttt{a} is always returned. For earlier NumPy versions a view of \texttt{a} is returned only if the order of the axes is changed, otherwise the input array is returned.

\textbf{See also:}

\texttt{moveaxis}

Move array axes to new positions.

\texttt{roll}

Roll the elements of an array by a number of positions along a given axis.

\textbf{Examples}

```python
>>> a = np.ones((3, 4, 5, 6))
>>> np.rollaxis(a, 3, 1).shape
(3, 6, 4, 5)
>>> np.rollaxis(a, 2).shape
(5, 3, 4, 6)
>>> np.rollaxis(a, 1, 4).shape
(3, 5, 6, 4)
```

\texttt{numpy.swapaxes}(\texttt{a}, \texttt{axis1}, \texttt{axis2})

Interchange two axes of an array.

\textbf{Parameters}

\texttt{a}

[array_like] Input array.

\texttt{axis1}

[int] First axis.

\texttt{axis2}

[int] Second axis.
Returns

\texttt{a\_swapped}

[ndarray] For NumPy \geq 1.10.0, if \texttt{a} is an ndarray, then a view of \texttt{a} is returned; otherwise a new array is created. For earlier NumPy versions a view of \texttt{a} is returned only if the order of the axes is changed, otherwise the input array is returned.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3]])
>>> np.swapaxes(x, 0, 1)
array([[1],
       [2],
       [3]])
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([[[0, 1], [2, 3]], [[4, 5], [6, 7]]])
>>> x
array([[[0, 1],
       [2, 3]],
       [[4, 5],
       [6, 7]]])
```

```python
>>> np.swapaxes(x, 0, 2)
array([[[0, 4],
       [2, 6]],
       [[1, 5],
       [3, 7]]])
```

\texttt{numpy.transpose(a, axes=None)}

Reverse or permute the axes of an array; returns the modified array.

For an array \texttt{a} with two axes, \texttt{transpose(a)} gives the matrix transpose.

Refer to \texttt{numpy.ndarray.transpose} for full documentation.

Parameters

\texttt{a}

[array_like] Input array.

\texttt{axes}

[tuple or list of ints, optional] If specified, it must be a tuple or list which contains a permutation of \([0,1,...,N-1]\) where \(N\) is the number of axes of \texttt{a}. The \(i\)’th axis of the returned array will correspond to the axis numbered \texttt{axes[i]} of the input. If not specified, defaults to \texttt{range(a.ndim)[::-1]}, which reverses the order of the axes.

Returns

\texttt{p}

[ndarray] \texttt{a} with its axes permuted. A view is returned whenever possible.

See also:
**ndarray.transpose**

Equivalent method

**moveaxis**

**argsort**

**Notes**

Use `transpose(a, argsort(axes))` to invert the transposition of tensors when using the `axes` keyword argument. Transposing a 1-D array returns an unchanged view of the original array.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.arange(4).reshape((2, 2))
>>> x
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]])

>>> np.transpose(x)
array([[0, 2],
       [1, 3]])

>>> x = np.ones((1, 2, 3))
>>> np.transpose(x, (1, 0, 2)).shape
(2, 1, 3)

>>> x = np.ones((2, 3, 4, 5))
>>> np.transpose(x).shape
(5, 4, 3, 2)
```

### 4.2.4 Changing number of dimensions

- `atleast_1d(*arys)` Convert inputs to arrays with at least one dimension.
- `atleast_2d(*arys)` View inputs as arrays with at least two dimensions.
- `atleast_3d(*arys)` View inputs as arrays with at least three dimensions.
- `broadcast` Produce an object that mimics broadcasting.
- `broadcast_to(array, shape[, subok])` Broadcast an array to a new shape.
- `broadcast_arrays(*arys[, subok])` Broadcast any number of arrays against each other.
- `expand_dims(a, axis)` Expand the shape of an array.
- `squeeze(a[, axis])` Remove axes of length one from `a`.

**numpy.atleast_1d(*arys)**

Convert inputs to arrays with at least one dimension.

Scalar inputs are converted to 1-dimensional arrays, whilst higher-dimensional inputs are preserved.

**Parameters**

- `arys1, arys2, ...`
[array_like] One or more input arrays.

Returns

ret

[ndarray] An array, or list of arrays, each with a.ndim >= 1. Copies are made only if necessary.

See also:

atleast_2d, atleast_3d

Examples

```python
>>> np.atleast_1d(1.0)
array([1.])

>>> x = np.arange(9.0).reshape(3,3)
>>> np.atleast_1d(x)
array([[0., 1., 2.],
      [3., 4., 5.],
      [6., 7., 8.]])
>>> np.atleast_1d(x) is x
True

>>> np.atleast_1d(1, [3, 4])
[array([1]), array([3, 4])]
```

numpy.atleast_2d(*arys)

View inputs as arrays with at least two dimensions.

Parameters

arys1, arys2, ...

[array_like] One or more array-like sequences. Non-array inputs are converted to arrays. Arrays that already have two or more dimensions are preserved.

Returns

res, res2, ...

[ndarray] An array, or list of arrays, each with a.ndim >= 2. Copies are avoided where possible, and views with two or more dimensions are returned.

See also:

atleast_1d, atleast_3d

4.2. Array manipulation routines 535
Examples

```python
>>> np.atleast_2d(3.0)
array([[3.]])

>>> x = np.arange(3.0)
>>> np.atleast_2d(x)
array([[0., 1., 2.]])
>>> np.atleast_2d(x).base is x
True

>>> np.atleast_2d(1, [1, 2], [[1, 2]])
[array([[1]]), array([[1, 2]]), array([[1, 2]])]
```

```python
numpy.atleast_3d(*arys)
View inputs as arrays with at least three dimensions.

Parameters

arys1, arys2, ...
[array_like] One or more array-like sequences. Non-array inputs are converted to arrays. Arrays that already have three or more dimensions are preserved.

Returns

res1, res2, ...
[ndarray] An array, or list of arrays, each with a.ndim >= 3. Copies are avoided where possible, and views with three or more dimensions are returned. For example, a 1-D array of shape (N,) becomes a view of shape (1, N, 1), and a 2-D array of shape (M, N) becomes a view of shape (M, N, 1).

See also:

atleast_1d, atleast_2d
```

Examples

```python
>>> np.atleast_3d(3.0)
array([[[3.]]])

>>> x = np.arange(3.0)
>>> np.atleast_3d(x).shape
(1, 3, 1)

>>> x = np.arange(12.0).reshape(4,3)
>>> np.atleast_3d(x).shape
(4, 3, 1)
>>> np.atleast_3d(x).base is x.base  # x is a reshape, so not base itself
True
```
```python
>>> for arr in np.atleast_3d([1, 2], [[1, 2]], [[[1, 2]]]):
...     print(arr, arr.shape)
...
[[[1]
 [2]]] (1, 2, 1)
[[[1]
 [2]]] (1, 2, 1)
[[[1 2]]] (1, 1, 2)
```

`numpy.broadcast_to(array, shape, subok=False)`
Broadcast an array to a new shape.

**Parameters**

- `array`  
  [array_like] The array to broadcast.

- `shape`  
  [tuple] The shape of the desired array.

- `subok`  
  [bool, optional] If True, then sub-classes will be passed-through, otherwise the returned array will be forced to be a base-class array (default).

**Returns**

- `broadcast`  
  [array] A readonly view on the original array with the given shape. It is typically not contiguous. Furthermore, more than one element of a broadcasted array may refer to a single memory location.

**Raises**

- `ValueError`  
  If the array is not compatible with the new shape according to NumPy's broadcasting rules.

**See also:**

- `broadcast`
- `broadcast_arrays`
- `broadcast_shapes`

4.2. Array manipulation routines
Notes

New in version 1.10.0.

Examples

```
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> np.broadcast_to(x, (3, 3))
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [1, 2, 3],
       [1, 2, 3]])
```

`numpy.broadcast_arrays(*args, subok=False)`

Broadcast any number of arrays against each other.

Parameters

- `*args` [array_likes] The arrays to broadcast.
- `subok` [bool, optional] If True, then sub-classes will be passed-through, otherwise the returned arrays will be forced to be a base-class array (default).

Returns

- `broadcasted` [list of arrays] These arrays are views on the original arrays. They are typically not contiguous. Furthermore, more than one element of a broadcasted array may refer to a single memory location. If you need to write to the arrays, make copies first. While you can set the writable flag True, writing to a single output value may end up changing more than one location in the output array.

Deprecation warning: The output is currently marked so that if written to, a deprecation warning will be emitted. A future version will set the writable flag False so writing to it will raise an error.

See also:

- `broadcast`
- `broadcast_to`
- `broadcast_shapes`
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3]])
>>> y = np.array([[4], [5]])
>>> np.broadcast_arrays(x, y)
[array([[1, 2, 3],
       [1, 2, 3]]), array([[4, 4, 4],
       [5, 5, 5]])]
```

Here is a useful idiom for getting contiguous copies instead of non-contiguous views.

```python
>>> [np.array(a) for a in np.broadcast_arrays(x, y)]
[array([[1, 2, 3],
       [1, 2, 3]]), array([[4, 4, 4],
       [5, 5, 5]])]
```

```
numpy.expand_dims(a, axis)
Expand the shape of an array.
```

Insert a new axis that will appear at the axis position in the expanded array shape.

**Parameters**

- `a`  
  [array_like] Input array.

- `axis`  
  [int or tuple of ints] Position in the expanded axes where the new axis (or axes) is placed.

  Deprecated since version 1.13.0: Passing an axis where axis > a.ndim will be treated as axis == a.ndim, and passing axis < -a.ndim - 1 will be treated as axis == 0. This behavior is deprecated.

  Changed in version 1.18.0: A tuple of axes is now supported. Out of range axes as described above are now forbidden and raise an `AxisError`.

**Returns**

- `result`  
  [ndarray] View of a with the number of dimensions increased.

**See also:**

- `squeeze`
  The inverse operation, removing singleton dimensions

- `reshape`
  Insert, remove, and combine dimensions, and resize existing ones

**doc.indexing**, **atleast_1d, atleast_2d, atleast_3d**
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2])
>>> x.shape
(2,)
```

The following is equivalent to `x[np.newaxis, :]` or `x[np.newaxis]`:

```python
>>> y = np.expand_dims(x, axis=0)
>>> y
array([[1, 2]])
>>> y.shape
(1, 2)
```

The following is equivalent to `x[:, np.newaxis]`:

```python
>>> y = np.expand_dims(x, axis=1)
>>> y
array([[1],
       [2]])
```

`axis` may also be a tuple:

```python
>>> y = np.expand_dims(x, axis=(0, 1))
>>> y
array([[1, 2]])
```

```python
>>> y = np.expand_dims(x, axis=(2, 0))
>>> y
array([[1],
       [2]])
```

Note that some examples may use `None` instead of `np.newaxis`. These are the same objects:

```python
>>> np.newaxis is None
True
```

numpy.squeeze(a, axis=None)

Remove axes of length one from a.

Parameters

- `a`
  - [array_like] Input data.

- `axis`
  - [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] New in version 1.7.0.
  - Selects a subset of the entries of length one in the shape. If an axis is selected with shape entry greater than one, an error is raised.

Returns

- `squeezed`
The input array, but with all or a subset of the dimensions of length 1 removed. This is always \( a \) itself or a view into \( a \). Note that if all axes are squeezed, the result is a 0d array and not a scalar.

 Raises

 **ValueError**

 If \( \text{axis} \) is not None, and an axis being squeezed is not of length 1

 See also:

 **expand_dims**

 The inverse operation, adding entries of length one

 **reshape**

 Insert, remove, and combine dimensions, and resize existing ones

 Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[[0], [1], [2]]])
>>> x.shape
(1, 3, 1)
>>> np.squeeze(x).shape
(3,)
>>> np.squeeze(x, axis=0).shape
(3, 1)
>>> np.squeeze(x, axis=1).shape
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError: cannot select an axis to squeeze out which has size not equal to one
>>> np.squeeze(x, axis=2).shape
(1, 3)
>>> x = np.array([[[1234]]])
>>> x.shape
(1, 1)
>>> np.squeeze(x)
array(1234) # 0d array
>>> np.squeeze(x).shape
()
>>> np.squeeze(x)[:, 1]
1234
```

### 4.2.5 Changing kind of array

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<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<td>astype(a, dtype, order, like)</td>
<td>Convert the input to an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>astype(a, dtype, order, like)</td>
<td>Convert the input to an ndarray, but pass ndarray subclasses through.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asmatrix(data[, dtype])</td>
<td>Interpret the input as a matrix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asarray(a[, dtype])</td>
<td>Return an array converted to a float type.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td><code>asfortranarray</code></td>
<td>Return an array (ndim &gt;= 1) laid out in Fortran order in memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ascontiguousarray</code></td>
<td>Return a contiguous array (ndim &gt;= 1) in memory (C order).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>asarray_chkfinite</code></td>
<td>Convert the input to an array, checking for NaNs or Infs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>asscalar</code></td>
<td>Convert an array of size 1 to its scalar equivalent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>require</code></td>
<td>Return an ndarray of the provided type that satisfies requirements.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`numpy.asfarray(a, dtype=<class 'numpy.double'>)`

Return an array converted to a float type.

Parameters

- `a` ([array_like]) The input array.
- `dtype` ([str or dtype object, optional]) Float type code to coerce input array `a`. If `dtype` is one of the 'int' dtypes, it is replaced with float64.

Returns

- `out` ([ndarray]) The input `a` as a float ndarray.

Examples

```python
>>> np.asfarray([2, 3])
array([2., 3.])
>>> np.asfarray([2., 3.], dtype='float')
array([2., 3.])
>>> np.asfarray([2, 3], dtype='int8')
array([2., 3.])
```

`numpy.asfortranarray(a, dtype=None, *, like=None)`

Return an array (ndim >= 1) laid out in Fortran order in memory.

Parameters

- `a` ([array_like]) Input array.
- `dtype` ([str or dtype object, optional]) By default, the data-type is inferred from the input data.
- `like` ([array_like]) Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as `like` supports the `__array_function__` protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.
New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

`out`

[numpy.ndarray] The input `a` in Fortran, or column-major, order.

**See also:**

- `ascontiguousarray`
  Convert input to a contiguous (C order) array.
- `asanyarray`
  Convert input to an array with either row or column-major memory order.
- `require`
  Return an ndarray that satisfies requirements.
- `ndarray.flags`
  Information about the memory layout of the array.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3)
>>> y = np.asfortranarray(x)
>>> x.flags['F_CONTIGUOUS']
False
>>> y.flags['F_CONTIGUOUS']
True
```

Note: This function returns an array with at least one-dimension (1-d) so it will not preserve 0-d arrays.

**numpy.array_chkfinite** *(a, dtype=None, order=None)*

Convert the input to an array, checking for NaNs or Infs.

**Parameters**

- `a`
  [array_like] Input data, in any form that can be converted to an array. This includes lists, lists of tuples, tuples, tuples of tuples, tuples of lists and ndarrays. Success requires no NaNs or Infs.

- `dtype`
  [data-type, optional] By default, the data-type is inferred from the input data.

- `order`

**Returns**
out

[ndarray] Array interpretation of \( a \). No copy is performed if the input is already an ndarray. If \( a \) is a subclass of ndarray, a base class ndarray is returned.

Raises

ValueError

Raises ValueError if \( a \) contains NaN (Not a Number) or Inf (Infinity).

See also:

asarray

Create and array.

asanyarray

Similar function which passes through subclasses.

ascontiguousarray

Convert input to a contiguous array.

asfarray

Convert input to a floating point ndarray.

asfortranarray

Convert input to an ndarray with column-major memory order.

fromiter

Create an array from an iterator.

fromfunction

Construct an array by executing a function on grid positions.

Examples

Convert a list into an array. If all elements are finite asarray_chkfinite is identical to asarray.

```python
>>> a = [1, 2]
>>> np.asarray_chkfinite(a, dtype=float)
array([1., 2.])
```

Raises ValueError if array_like contains Nans or Infs.

```python
>>> a = [1, 2, np.inf]
>>> try:
...     np.asarray_chkfinite(a)
... except ValueError:
...     print('ValueError')
...
ValueError
```
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

numpy.asscalar(a)
Convert an array of size 1 to its scalar equivalent.

Deprecated since version 1.16: Deprecated, use numpy.ndarray.item() instead.

Parameters

a
[ndarray] Input array of size 1.

Returns

out
[scalar] Scalar representation of a. The output data type is the same type returned by the input’s item method.

Examples

```python
>>> np.asscalar(np.array([24]))
24
```

numpy.require(a, dtype=None, requirements=None, *, like=None)
Return an ndarray of the provided type that satisfies requirements.

This function is useful to be sure that an array with the correct flags is returned for passing to compiled code (perhaps through ctypes).

Parameters

a
[array_like] The object to be converted to a type-and-requirement-satisfying array.

dtype
[data-type] The required data-type. If None preserve the current dtype. If your application requires the data to be in native byteorder, include a byteorder specification as a part of the dtype specification.

requirements
[str or list of str] The requirements list can be any of the following

- ‘F_CONTIGUOUS’ (‘F’) - ensure a Fortran-contiguous array
- ‘C_CONTIGUOUS’ (‘C’) - ensure a C-contiguous array
- ‘ALIGNED’ (‘A’) - ensure a data-type aligned array
- ‘WRITEABLE’ (‘W’) - ensure a writable array
- ‘OWNDATA’ (‘O’) - ensure an array that owns its own data
- ‘ENSUREARRAY’, (‘E’) - ensure a base array, instead of a subclass

like
[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as like supports the __array_function__ protocol, the result
will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with
that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Array with specified requirements and type if given.

See also:

asarray

Convert input to an ndarray.

asanyarray

Convert to an ndarray, but pass through ndarray subclasses.

ascontiguousarray

Convert input to a contiguous array.

asfortranarray

Convert input to an ndarray with column-major memory order.

ndarray.flags

Information about the memory layout of the array.

Notes

The returned array will be guaranteed to have the listed requirements by making a copy if needed.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> x.flags
    C_CONTIGUOUS : True
    F_CONTIGUOUS : False
    OWndata : False
    WRITEABLE : True
    ALIGNED : True
    WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
    UPDATEIFCOPY : False

>>> y = np.require(x, dtype=np.float32, requirements=['A', 'O', 'W', 'F'])
>>> y.flags
    C_CONTIGUOUS : False
    F_CONTIGUOUS : True
    OWndata : True
    WRITEABLE : True
    ALIGNED : True
    WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
    UPDATEIFCOPY : False
```
4.2.6 Joining arrays

- `concatenate([axis, out, dtype, casting])` Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.
- `stack(arrays[, axis, out])` Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.
- `block(arrays)` Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.
- `vstack(tup)` Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).
- `hstack(tup)` Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).
- `dstack(tup)` Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).
- `column_stack(tup)` Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.
- `row_stack(tup)` Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).

```python
numpy.concatenate((a1, a2, ...), axis=0, out=None, dtype=None, casting="same_kind")
```

Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

**Parameters**

- **a1, a2, ...**
  - [sequence of array_like] The arrays must have the same shape, except in the dimension corresponding to `axis` (the first, by default).

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] The axis along which the arrays will be joined. If axis is None, arrays are flattened before use. Default is 0.

- **out**
  - [ndarray, optional] If provided, the destination to place the result. The shape must be correct, matching that of what concatenate would have returned if no out argument were specified.

- **dtype**
  - [str or dtype] If provided, the destination array will have this dtype. Cannot be provided together with `out`.
    - New in version 1.20.0.

- **casting**
  - [{'no', 'equiv', 'safe', 'same_kind', 'unsafe'}, optional] Controls what kind of data casting may occur. Defaults to 'same_kind'.
    - New in version 1.2.0.

**Returns**

- **res**
  - [ndarray] The concatenated array.

**See also:**

- `ma.concatenate`
  - Concatenate function that preserves input masks.

- `array_split`
  - Split an array into multiple sub-arrays of equal or near-equal size.
split
Split array into a list of multiple sub-arrays of equal size.

hsplit
Split array into multiple sub-arrays horizontally (column wise).

vsplit
Split array into multiple sub-arrays vertically (row wise).

dsplit
Split array into multiple sub-arrays along the 3rd axis (depth).

stack
Stack a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

block
Assemble arrays from blocks.

hstack
Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).

vstack
Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).

dstack
Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third dimension).

column_stack
Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

Notes
When one or more of the arrays to be concatenated is a MaskedArray, this function will return a MaskedArray object instead of an ndarray, but the input masks are not preserved. In cases where a MaskedArray is expected as input, use the ma.concatenate function from the masked array module instead.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> b = np.array([[5, 6]])
>>> np.concatenate((a, b), axis=0)
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4],
       [5, 6]])
>>> np.concatenate((a, b.T), axis=1)
array([[1, 2, 5],
       [3, 4, 6]])
>>> np.concatenate((a, b), axis=None)
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6])
```

This function will not preserve masking of MaskedArray inputs.
```python
>>> a = np.ma.arange(3)
>>> a[1] = np.ma.masked
>>> b = np.arange(2, 5)
>>> a
masked_array(data=[0, --, 2],
             mask=[False,  True, False],
            fill_value=999999)
>>> b
array([2, 3, 4])
>>> np.concatenate([a, b])
masked_array(data=[0, --, 2, 2, 3, 4],
             mask=[False,  True, False, False, False, False],
            fill_value=999999)
```

**numpy.stack** *(arrays, axis=0, out=None)*

Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

The *axis* parameter specifies the index of the new axis in the dimensions of the result. For example, if *axis=0* it will be the first dimension and if *axis=-1* it will be the last dimension.

New in version 1.10.0.

**Parameters**

- **arrays**
  - [sequence of array_like] Each array must have the same shape.

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] The axis in the result array along which the input arrays are stacked.

- **out**
  - [ndarray, optional] If provided, the destination to place the result. The shape must be correct, matching that of what stack would have returned if no out argument were specified.

**Returns**

- **stacked**
  - [ndarray] The stacked array has one more dimension than the input arrays.

**See also:**

- **concatenate**
  - Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

- **block**
  - Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.

- **split**
  - Split array into a list of multiple sub-arrays of equal size.
Examples

```python
>>> arrays = [np.random.randn(3, 4) for _ in range(10)]
>>> np.stack(arrays, axis=0).shape
(10, 3, 4)
```

```python
>>> np.stack(arrays, axis=1).shape
(3, 10, 4)
```

```python
>>> np.stack(arrays, axis=2).shape
(3, 4, 10)
```

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

```python
>>> np.stack((a, b), axis=-1)
array([[1, 4],
       [2, 5],
       [3, 6]])
```

```
numpy.block(arrays)
Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.

Blocks in the innermost lists are concatenated (see concatenate) along the last dimension (-1), then these are concatenated along the second-last dimension (-2), and so on until the outermost list is reached.

Blocks can be of any dimension, but will not be broadcasted using the normal rules. Instead, leading axes of size 1 are inserted, to make block.ndim the same for all blocks. This is primarily useful for working with scalars, and means that code like np.block([v, 1]) is valid, where v.ndim == 1.

When the nested list is two levels deep, this allows block matrices to be constructed from their components.

New in version 1.13.0.

Parameters

arrays

[nested list of array_like or scalars (but not tuples)] If passed a single ndarray or scalar (a nested list of depth 0), this is returned unmodified (and not copied).

Elements shapes must match along the appropriate axes (without broadcasting), but leading 1s will be prepended to the shape as necessary to make the dimensions match.

Returns

block_array

[ndarray] The array assembled from the given blocks.

The dimensionality of the output is equal to the greatest of:

* the dimensionality of all the inputs
* the depth to which the input list is nested

Raises
ValueError

- If list depths are mismatched - for instance, \([a, b], c\) is illegal, and should be spelt \([[a, b], [c]]\)
- If lists are empty - for instance, \([a, b], []\)

See also:

**concatenate**

Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

**stack**

Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

**vstack**

Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).

**hstack**

Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).

**dstack**

Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).

**column_stack**

Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

**vsplit**

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays vertically (row-wise).

Notes

When called with only scalars, \(\text{np.block}\) is equivalent to an \(\text{ndarray}\) call. So \(\text{np.block}([[1, 2], [3, 4]])\) is equivalent to \(\text{np.array}([[1, 2], [3, 4]])\).

This function does not enforce that the blocks lie on a fixed grid. \(\text{np.block}([[a, b], [c, d]])\) is not restricted to arrays of the form:

```
AAAAbb  
AAAAbb  
ccccDD
```

But is also allowed to produce, for some \(a, b, c, d\):

```
AAAAbb  
AAAAbb  
cDDDD
```

Since concatenation happens along the last axis first, \(\text{block}\) is not capable of producing the following directly:

```
AAAAbb  
ccccbb  
ccccDD
```
Matlab’s “square bracket stacking”, \([A, B, \ldots; p, q, \ldots]\), is equivalent to \(\text{np.block([[A, B, \ldots], [p, q, \ldots]])}\).

**Examples**

The most common use of this function is to build a block matrix

```python
>>> A = np.eye(2) * 2
>>> B = np.eye(3) * 3
>>> np.block([  
...     [A, np.zeros((2, 3))],
...     [np.ones((3, 2)), B]
... ])
array([[2., 0., 0., 0., 0.],
       [0., 2., 0., 0., 0.],
       [1., 1., 1., 0., 0.],
       [1., 1., 0., 3., 0.],
       [1., 1., 0., 0., 3.]])
```

With a list of depth 1, `block` can be used as `hstack`

```python
>>> np.block([[1, 2, 3]]) # hstack([1, 2, 3])
array([1, 2, 3])
```

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> b = np.array([4, 5, 6])
>>> np.block([a, b, 10]) # hstack([a, b, 10])
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10])
```

```python
>>> A = np.ones((2, 2), int)
>>> B = 2 * A
>>> np.block([A, B]) # hstack([A, B])
array([[1, 1, 2, 2],
       [1, 1, 2, 2],
       [2, 2, 4, 4],
       [2, 2, 4, 4]])
```

With a list of depth 2, `block` can be used in place of `vstack`:

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> b = np.array([4, 5, 6])
>>> np.block([[a], [b]]) # vstack([a, b])
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
```

```python
>>> A = np.ones((2, 2), int)
>>> B = 2 * A
>>> np.block([[A], [B]]) # vstack([A, B])
array([[1, 1],
       [2, 2],
       [1, 1],
       [2, 2]])
```

It can also be used in places of `atleast_1d` and `atleast_2d`

```python
>>> a = np.array(0)
>>> b = np.array([1])
```
numpy.\texttt{vstack}(tup)

Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).

This is equivalent to concatenation along the first axis after 1-D arrays of shape \((N,)\) have been reshaped to \((1,N)\). Rebuilds arrays divided by \texttt{vsplit}.

This function makes most sense for arrays with up to 3 dimensions. For instance, for pixel-data with a height (first axis), width (second axis), and r/g/b channels (third axis). The functions \texttt{concatenate}, \texttt{stack} and \texttt{block} provide more general stacking and concatenation operations.

**Parameters**

- \texttt{tup}  
  [sequence of ndarrays] The arrays must have the same shape along all but the first axis. 1-D arrays must have the same length.

**Returns**

- \texttt{stacked}  
  [ndarray] The array formed by stacking the given arrays, will be at least 2-D.

**See also:**

- \texttt{concatenate}  
  Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

- \texttt{stack}  
  Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

- \texttt{block}  
  Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.

- \texttt{hstack}  
  Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).

- \texttt{dstack}  
  Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).

- \texttt{column_stack}  
  Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

- \texttt{vsplit}  
  Split an array into multiple sub-arrays vertically (row-wise).
Examples

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

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

**numpy.hstack(tup)**

Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).

This is equivalent to concatenation along the second axis, except for 1-D arrays where it concatenates along the first axis. Rebuilds arrays divided by `hsplit`.

This function makes most sense for arrays with up to 3 dimensions. For instance, for pixel-data with a height (first axis), width (second axis), and r/g/b channels (third axis). The functions `concatenate`, `stack` and `block` provide more general stacking and concatenation operations.

**Parameters**

- `tup`  
  [sequence of ndarrays] The arrays must have the same shape along all but the second axis, except 1-D arrays which can be any length.

**Returns**

- `stacked`  
  [ndarray] The array formed by stacking the given arrays.

**See also:**

- `concatenate`  
  Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

- `stack`  
  Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

- `block`  
  Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.

- `vstack`  
  Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).
**dstack**

Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).

**column_stack**

Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

**hsplit**

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays horizontally (column-wise).

### Examples

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

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

numpy.dstack(tup)

Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).

This is equivalent to concatenation along the third axis after 2-D arrays of shape \((M,N)\) have been reshaped to \((M,N,1)\) and 1-D arrays of shape \((N,)\) have been reshaped to \((1,N,1)\). Rebuilds arrays divided by \texttt{dsplit}.

This function makes most sense for arrays with up to 3 dimensions. For instance, for pixel-data with a height (first axis), width (second axis), and r/g/b channels (third axis). The functions \texttt{concatenate}, \texttt{stack} and \texttt{block} provide more general stacking and concatenation operations.

**Parameters**

- tup
  - [sequence of arrays] The arrays must have the same shape along all but the third axis. 1-D or 2-D arrays must have the same shape.

**Returns**

- stacked
  - [ndarray] The array formed by stacking the given arrays, will be at least 3-D.

**See also:**

- \texttt{concatenate}
  - Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

- \texttt{stack}
  - Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

- \texttt{block}
  - Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.
**vstack**

Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).

**hstack**

Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).

**column_stack**

Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

**dsplit**

Split array along third axis.

### Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array((1, 2, 3))
>>> b = np.array((2, 3, 4))
>>> np.dstack((a, b))
array([[1, 2],
       [2, 3],
       [3, 4]])
```

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1], [2], [3]])
>>> b = np.array([[2], [3], [4]])
>>> np.dstack((a, b))
array([[1, 2],
       [2, 3],
       [3, 4]])
```

**numpy.column_stack(tup)**

Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

Take a sequence of 1-D arrays and stack them as columns to make a single 2-D array. 2-D arrays are stacked as-is, just like with **hstack**. 1-D arrays are turned into 2-D columns first.

**Parameters**

- **tup**
  
  [sequence of 1-D or 2-D arrays.] Arrays to stack. All of them must have the same first dimension.

**Returns**

- **stacked**
  
  [2-D array] The array formed by stacking the given arrays.

**See also:**

- **stack, hstack, vstack, concatenate**
Examples

>>> a = np.array((1,2,3))
>>> b = np.array((2,3,4))
>>> np.column_stack((a,b))

array([[1, 2],
        [2, 3],
        [3, 4]])

numpy.row_stack(tup)
Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).

This is equivalent to concatenation along the first axis after 1-D arrays of shape \((N,)\) have been reshaped to \((1,N)\).
Rebuilds arrays divided by vsplit.

This function makes most sense for arrays with up to 3 dimensions. For instance, for pixel-data with a height (first axis), width (second axis), and r/g/b channels (third axis). The functions concatenate, stack and block provide more general stacking and concatenation operations.

Parameters

tup

[sequence of ndarrays] The arrays must have the same shape along all but the first axis. 1-D arrays must have the same length.

Returns

stacked

[ndarray] The array formed by stacking the given arrays, will be at least 2-D.

See also:

concatenate
Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

stack
Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

block
Assemble an nd-array from nested lists of blocks.

hstack
Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).

dstack
Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third axis).

column_stack
Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

vsplit
Split an array into multiple sub-arrays vertically (row-wise).
**Examples**

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

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

### 4.2.7 Splitting arrays

<table>
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<th><code>split</code> (ary, indices_or_sections[, axis])</th>
<th>Split an array into multiple sub-arrays as views into <code>ary</code>.</th>
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<td><code>array_split</code> (ary, indices_or_sections[, axis])</td>
<td>Split an array into multiple sub-arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dsplit</code> (ary, indices_or_sections)</td>
<td>Split array into multiple sub-arrays along the 3rd axis (depth).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>hsplit</code> (ary, indices_or_sections)</td>
<td>Split an array into multiple sub-arrays horizontally (column-wise).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>vsplit</code> (ary, indices_or_sections)</td>
<td>Split an array into multiple sub-arrays vertically (row-wise).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**numpy.split (ary, indices_or_sections, axis=0)**

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays as views into `ary`.

**Parameters**

- **ary**
  - [ndarray] Array to be divided into sub-arrays.

- **indices_or_sections**
  - [int or 1-D array] If `indices_or_sections` is an integer, N, the array will be divided into N equal arrays along `axis`. If such a split is not possible, an error is raised.

  If `indices_or_sections` is a 1-D array of sorted integers, the entries indicate where along `axis` the array is split. For example, [2, 3] would, for `axis=0`, result in
  - `ary[:2]`
  - `ary[2:3]`
  - `ary[3:]`

  If an index exceeds the dimension of the array along `axis`, an empty sub-array is returned correspondingly.

  - **axis**
[int, optional] The axis along which to split, default is 0.

**Returns**

**sub-arrays**

[list of ndarrays] A list of sub-arrays as views into `ary`.

**Raises**

**ValueError**

If `indices_or_sections` is given as an integer, but a split does not result in equal division.

[See also:

`array_split`]

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays of equal or near-equal size. Does not raise an exception if an equal division cannot be made.

`hsplit`

Split array into multiple sub-arrays horizontally (column-wise).

`vsplit`

Split array into multiple sub-arrays vertically (row wise).

`dsplit`

Split array into multiple sub-arrays along the 3rd axis (depth).

`concatenate`

Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

`stack`

Join a sequence of arrays along a new axis.

`hstack`

Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).

`vstack`

Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).

`dstack`

Stack arrays in sequence depth wise (along third dimension).
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(9.0)
>>> np.split(x, 3)
[array([0., 1., 2.]), array([3., 4., 5.]), array([6., 7., 8.])]

>>> x = np.arange(8.0)
>>> np.split(x, [3, 5, 6, 10])
[array([0., 1., 2.]), array([3., 4.]), array([5.]),
 array([6., 7.]), array([], dtype=float64])
```

numpy.array_split(ary, indices_or_sections, axis=0)

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays.

Please refer to the split documentation. The only difference between these functions is that array_split allows indices_or_sections to be an integer that does not equally divide the axis. For an array of length l that should be split into n sections, it returns l % n sub-arrays of size l/n + 1 and the rest of size l/n.

See also:

split

Split array into multiple sub-arrays of equal size.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(8.0)
>>> np.array_split(x, 3)
[array([0., 1., 2.]), array([3., 4., 5.]), array([6., 7.])]

>>> x = np.arange(9)
>>> np.array_split(x, 4)
[array([0, 1, 2]), array([3, 4]), array([5, 6]), array([7, 8])]
```

numpy.dsplit(ary, indices_or_sections)

Split array into multiple sub-arrays along the 3rd axis (depth).

Please refer to the split documentation. dsplit is equivalent to split with axis=2, the array is always split along the third axis provided the array dimension is greater than or equal to 3.

See also:

split

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays of equal size.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(16.0).reshape(2, 2, 4)
>>> x
array([[[0., 1., 2., 3.],
         [4., 5., 6., 7.],
         [8., 9., 10., 11.],
         [12., 13., 14., 15.]]], dtype=float64)
>>> np.dsplit(x, 2)
[array([[[ 0.,  1.],
          [ 4.,  5.],
          [ 8.,  9.],
          [12., 13.]],
         [[[ 2.,  3.],
           [ 6.,  7.],
           [10., 11.],
           [14., 15.]]]),
      array([[[ 2.,  3.],
          [ 6.,  7.],
          [10., 11.],
          [14., 15.]]])]
>>> np.dsplit(x, np.array([3, 6]))
[array([[[ 0.,  1.,  2.],
          [ 4.,  5.,  6.],
          [ 8.,  9., 10.],
          [12., 13., 14.]],
         [[[ 3.],
           [ 7.],
           [11.],
           [15.]]]),
      array([], shape=(2, 2, 0), dtype=float64)]
```

numpy.hsplit (ary, indices_or_sections)

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays horizontally (column-wise).

Please refer to the `split` documentation. `hsplit` is equivalent to `split` with `axis=1`, the array is always split along the second axis regardless of the array dimension.

See also:

`split`

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays of equal size.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(16.0).reshape(4, 4)
>>> x
array([[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.],
       [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
       [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.],
       [12., 13., 14., 15.]]),
>>> np.hsplit(x, 2)
[array([[[ 0.,  1.],
         [ 4.,  5.],
         [ 8.,  9.],
         [12., 13.]],
        [[ 2.,  3.],
         [ 6.,  7.],
         [10., 11.],
         [14., 15.]]])
```

(continues on next page)
>>> np.hsplit(x, np.array([3, 6]))
[array([[0., 1., 2.],
        [4., 5., 6.],
        [8., 9., 10.],
        [12., 13., 14.]]),
 array([[ 3.],
        [ 7.],
        [11.],
        [15.]]),
 array([], shape=(4, 0, dtype=float64))]

With a higher dimensional array the split is still along the second axis.

```python
>>> x = np.arange(8.0).reshape(2, 2, 2)
>>> x
array([[[0., 1.],
        [2., 3.]],
       [[4., 5.],
        [6., 7.]]])
>>> np.hsplit(x, 2)
[array([[[0., 1.],
        [4., 5.]],
       [[2., 3.],
        [6., 7.]]])
```

numpy.vsplit(ary, indices_or_sections)

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays vertically (row-wise).

Please refer to the split documentation. vsplit is equivalent to split with axis=0 (default), the array is always split along the first axis regardless of the array dimension.

See also:

split

Split an array into multiple sub-arrays of equal size.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(16.0).reshape(4, 4)
>>> x
array([[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.],
       [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
       [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.],
       [12., 13., 14., 15.]]))
>>> np.vsplit(x, 2)
[array([[ 0.,  1.],
        [ 4.,  5.],
        [ 8.,  9.],
        [12., 13.]]), array([[ 2.,  3.],
        [ 6.,  7.],
        [10., 11.],
        [14., 15.]]))
>>> np.vsplit(x, np.array([3, 6]))
[array([[ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.],
        [ 4.,  5.,  6.,  7.],
        [ 8.,  9., 10., 11.]]), array([[12., 13., 14., 15.]]), array([], shape=(0,...
```

With a higher dimensional array the split is still along the first axis.
```
>>> x = np.arange(8.0).reshape(2, 2, 2)
>>> x
array([[[ 0.,  1.],
        [ 2.,  3.]],
       [[ 4.,  5.],
        [ 6.,  7.]]])
>>> np.vsplit(x, 2)
[array([[[ 0.,  1.],
        [ 2.,  3.]]],
       [[[ 4.,  5.],
        [ 6.,  7.]]])
```

### 4.2.8 Tiling arrays

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>tile(A, reps)</code></td>
<td>Construct an array by repeating A the number of times given by reps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>repeat(a, repeats[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Repeat elements of an array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`numpy.tile(A, reps)`

Construct an array by repeating `A` the number of times given by `reps`.

If `reps` has length `d`, the result will have dimension of `max(d, A.ndim)`. If `A.ndim < d`, `A` is promoted to be `d`-dimensional by prepending new axes. So a shape `(3,)` array is promoted to `(1, 3)` for 2-D replication, or shape `(1, 1, 3)` for 3-D replication. If this is not the desired behavior, promote `A` to `d`-dimensions manually before calling this function.

If `A.ndim > d`, `reps` is promoted to `A.ndim` by pre-pending 1’s to it. Thus for an `A` of shape `(2, 3, 4, 5)`, a `reps` of `(2, 2)` is treated as `(1, 1, 2, 2)`.

Note: Although `tile` may be used for broadcasting, it is strongly recommended to use `numpy`'s broadcasting operations and functions.

**Parameters**

- `A`
  - [array_like] The input array.

- `reps`
  - [array_like] The number of repetitions of `A` along each axis.

**Returns**

- `c`
  - [ndarray] The tiled output array.

**See also:**

- `repeat`
  - Repeat elements of an array.

- `broadcast_to`
  - Broadcast an array to a new shape

---

**4.2. Array manipulation routines**
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([0, 1, 2])
>>> np.tile(a, 2)
array([0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2])
>>> np.tile(a, (2, 2))
array([[0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2],
       [0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2]])
>>> np.tile(a, (2, 1, 2))
array([[[0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2],
        [0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2]],
        [[0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2],
        [0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2]])
```

```python
>>> b = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> np.tile(b, 2)
array([[1, 2, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 3, 4]])
>>> np.tile(b, (2, 1))
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4],
       [1, 2],
       [3, 4]])
```

```python
>>> c = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> np.tile(c, (4, 1))
array([[1, 2, 3, 4],
       [1, 2, 3, 4],
       [1, 2, 3, 4],
       [1, 2, 3, 4]])
```

`numpy.repeat(a, repeats, axis=None)`
Repeat elements of an array.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  [array_like] Input array.

- **repeats**
  [int or array of ints] The number of repetitions for each element. *repeats* is broadcasted to fit the shape of the given axis.

- **axis**
  [int, optional] The axis along which to repeat values. By default, use the flattened input array, and return a flat output array.

**Returns**

- **repeated_array**
  [ndarray] Output array which has the same shape as *a*, except along the given axis.

**See also:**

- **tile**
  Tile an array.
**unique**

Find the unique elements of an array.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.repeat(3, 4)
array([3, 3, 3, 3])

>>> x = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])

>>> np.repeat(x, 2)
array([[1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4]], dtype=object)

>>> np.repeat(x, [3, 1], axis=1)
array([[1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4]], dtype=object)

>>> np.repeat(x, [1, 2], axis=0)
array([[1, 2, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 3, 4]])
```

### 4.2.9 Adding and removing elements

- **delete**(arr, obj[, axis])
  Return a new array with sub-arrays along an axis deleted. For a one dimensional array, this returns those entries not returned by `arr[obj].

- **insert**(arr, obj, values[, axis])
  Insert values along the given axis before the given indices.

- **append**(arr, values[, axis])
  Append values to the end of an array.

- **resize**(a, new_shape)
  Return a new array with the specified shape.

- **trim_zeros**(filt[, trim])
  Trim the leading and/or trailing zeros from a 1-D array or sequence.

- **unique**(arr[, return_index, return_inverse, ...])
  Find the unique elements of an array.

**numpy.delete**(arr, obj, axis=None)

Return a new array with sub-arrays along an axis deleted. For a one dimensional array, this returns those entries not returned by `arr[obj].

**Parameters**

- **arr**
  [array_like] Input array.

- **obj**
  [slice, int or array of ints] Indicate indices of sub-arrays to remove along the specified axis.

  Changed in version 1.19.0: Boolean indices are now treated as a mask of elements to remove, rather than being cast to the integers 0 and 1.

- **axis**
  [int, optional] The axis along which to delete the subarray defined by `obj`. If `axis` is None, `obj` is applied to the flattened array.

**Returns**

- **out**
[ndarray] A copy of arr with the elements specified by obj removed. Note that delete does not occur in-place. If axis is None, out is a flattened array.

See also:

insert

Insert elements into an array.

append

Append elements at the end of an array.

Notes

Often it is preferable to use a boolean mask. For example:

```python
>>> arr = np.arange(12) + 1
>>> mask = np.ones(len(arr), dtype=bool)
>>> mask[[0,2,4]] = False
>>> result = arr[mask,...]
```

Is equivalent to np.delete(arr, [0,2,4], axis=0), but allows further use of mask.

Examples

```python
>>> arr = np.array([[1,2,3,4], [5,6,7,8], [9,10,11,12]])
>>> arr
array([[ 1,  2,  3,  4],
       [ 5,  6,  7,  8],
       [ 9, 10, 11, 12]])
>>> np.delete(arr, 1, 0)
array([[ 1,  2,  3,  4],
       [ 9, 10, 11, 12]])
```

```python
>>> np.delete(arr, np.s_[:2], 1)
array([[ 2,  4],
       [ 6,  8],
       [10, 12]])
>>> np.delete(arr, [1,3,5], None)
array([ 1,  3,  5,  7,  8,  9, 10, 11, 12])
```

numpy.insert (arr, obj, values, axis=None)

Insert values along the given axis before the given indices.

Parameters

arr

[array_like] Input array.

obj

[int, slice or sequence of ints] Object that defines the index or indices before which values is inserted.

New in version 1.8.0.
Support for multiple insertions when `obj` is a single scalar or a sequence with one element (similar to calling `insert` multiple times).

**values**

[array_like] Values to insert into `arr`. If the type of `values` is different from that of `arr`, `values` is converted to the type of `arr`. `values` should be shaped so that `arr[..., obj, ...] = values` is legal.

**axis**

[int, optional] Axis along which to insert `values`. If `axis` is None then `arr` is flattened first.

**Returns**

**out**

[ndarray] A copy of `arr` with `values` inserted. Note that `insert` does not occur in-place: a new array is returned. If `axis` is None, `out` is a flattened array.

**See also:**

*append*

Append elements at the end of an array.

*concatenate*

Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

*delete*

Delete elements from an array.

**Notes**

Note that for higher dimensional inserts `obj=0` behaves very different from `obj=[0]` just like `arr[:,0,:] = values` is different from `arr[:,[0],:] = values`.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 1], [2, 2], [3, 3]])
>>> a
array([[1, 1],
       [2, 2],
       [3, 3]])
>>> np.insert(a, 1, 5)
array([[1, 5, 1, ..., 2, 3, 3]])
>>> np.insert(a, 1, 5, axis=1)
array([[1, 5, 1],
       [2, 5, 2],
       [3, 5, 3]])
```

Difference between sequence and scalars:
```python
>>> np.insert(a, [1], [[[1],[2],[3]], axis=1))
array([[1, 1, 1],
       [2, 2, 2],
       [3, 3, 3]])
>>> np.array_equal(np.insert(a, 1, [1, 2, 3], axis=1),
    np.insert(a, [1], [[[1],[2],[3]], axis=1))
True

>>> b = a.flatten()
>>> b
array([1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3])
>>> np.insert(b, [2, 2], [5, 6])
array([1, 1, 5, ..., 2, 3, 3])
>>> np.insert(b, slice(2, 4), [5, 6])
array([1, 1, 5, ..., 2, 3, 3])
>>> np.insert(b, [2, 2], [7.13, False]) # type casting
array([1, 1, 7, ..., 2, 3, 3])
```

**numpy.append** *(arr, values, axis=None)*

Append values to the end of an array.

**Parameters**

- **arr**
  
  [array_like] Values are appended to a copy of this array.

- **values**
  
  [array_like] These values are appended to a copy of **arr**. It must be of the correct shape (the same shape as **arr**, excluding **axis**). If **axis** is not specified, **values** can be any shape and will be flattened before use.

- **axis**
  
  [int, optional] The axis along which **values** are appended. If **axis** is not given, both **arr** and **values** are flattened before use.

**Returns**

- **append**
  
  [ndarray] A copy of **arr** with **values** appended to **axis**. Note that **append** does not occur in-place: a new array is allocated and filled. If **axis** is None, **out** is a flattened array.

**See also:**

- **insert**
  
  Insert elements into an array.
**delete**

Delete elements from an array.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.append([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]], np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]]))
array([[1, 2, 3, ..., 7, 8, 9]])
```

When `axis` is specified, `values` must have the correct shape.

```python
>>> np.append([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], [7, 8, 9], axis=0)
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6],
       [7, 8, 9]])
>>> np.append([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], [7, 8, 9], axis=0)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ... ValueError: all the input arrays must have same number of dimensions, but
the array at index 0 has 2 dimension(s) and the array at index 1 has 1
dimension(s)
```

**numpy.resize**

Return a new array with the specified shape.

If the new array is larger than the original array, then the new array is filled with repeated copies of `a`. Note that this behavior is different from `a.resize(new_shape)` which fills with zeros instead of repeated copies of `a`.

**Parameters**

- `a`: [array_like] Array to be resized.

- `new_shape`: [int or tuple of int] Shape of resized array.

**Returns**

- `reshaped_array`: [ndarray] The new array is formed from the data in the old array, repeated if necessary to fill out the required number of elements. The data are repeated iterating over the array in C-order.

**See also:**

- `np.reshape`: Reshape an array without changing the total size.

- `np.pad`: Enlarge and pad an array.

- `np.repeat`: Repeat elements of an array.
**ndarray.resize**

resize an array in-place.

**Notes**

When the total size of the array does not change, `reshape` should be used. In most other cases either indexing (to reduce the size) or padding (to increase the size) may be a more appropriate solution.

Warning: This functionality does not consider axes separately, i.e. it does not apply interpolation/extrapolation. It fills the return array with the required number of elements, iterating over `a` in C-order, disregarding axes (and cycling back from the start if the new shape is larger). This functionality is therefore not suitable to resize images, or data where each axis represents a separate and distinct entity.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a=np.array([[0,1],[2,3]])
>>> np.resize(a,(2,3))
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 0, 1]])
>>> np.resize(a,(1,4))
array([[0, 1, 2, 3]])
>>> np.resize(a,(2,4))
array([[0, 1, 2, 3],
       [0, 1, 2, 3]])
```

**numpy.trim_zeros** (`filt, trim='fb'`)

Trim the leading and/or trailing zeros from a 1-D array or sequence.

**Parameters**

- **filt**
  - [1-D array or sequence] Input array.

- **trim**
  - [str, optional] A string with 'f' representing trim from front and 'b' to trim from back. Default is 'fb', trim zeros from both front and back of the array.

**Returns**

- **trimmed**
  - [1-D array or sequence] The result of trimming the input. The input data type is preserved.
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array((0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 0, 2, 1, 0))
>>> np.trim_zeros(a)
array([1, 2, 3, 0, 2, 1])
```

```python
>>> np.trim_zeros(a, 'b')
array([0, 0, 0, ..., 0, 2, 1])
```

The input data type is preserved, list/tuple in means list/tuple out.

```python
>>> np.trim_zeros([0, 1, 2, 0])
[1, 2]
```

`numpy.unique(ar, return_index=False, return_inverse=False, return_counts=False, axis=None)`

Find the unique elements of an array.

Returns the sorted unique elements of an array. There are three optional outputs in addition to the unique elements:

- the indices of the input array that give the unique values
- the indices of the unique array that reconstruct the input array
- the number of times each unique value comes up in the input array

**Parameters**

- `ar` [array_like] Input array. Unless `axis` is specified, this will be flattened if it is not already 1-D.
- `return_index` [bool, optional] If True, also return the indices of `ar` (along the specified axis, if provided, or in the flattened array) that result in the unique array.
- `return_inverse` [bool, optional] If True, also return the indices of the unique array (for the specified axis, if provided) that can be used to reconstruct `ar`.
- `return_counts` [bool, optional] If True, also return the number of times each unique item appears in `ar`.

**Returns**

- `unique` [ndarray] The sorted unique values.
unique_indices
[ndarray, optional] The indices of the first occurrences of the unique values in the original array. Only provided if return_index is True.

unique_inverse
[ndarray, optional] The indices to reconstruct the original array from the unique array. Only provided if return_inverse is True.

unique_counts
[ndarray, optional] The number of times each of the unique values comes up in the original array. Only provided if return_counts is True.

New in version 1.9.0.

See also:

numpy.lib.arraysetops
Module with a number of other functions for performing set operations on arrays.

repeat
Repeat elements of an array.

Notes

When an axis is specified the subarrays indexed by the axis are sorted. This is done by making the specified axis the first dimension of the array (move the axis to the first dimension to keep the order of the other axes) and then flattening the subarrays in C order. The flattened subarrays are then viewed as a structured type with each element given a label, with the effect that we end up with a 1-D array of structured types that can be treated in the same way as any other 1-D array. The result is that the flattened subarrays are sorted in lexicographic order starting with the first element.

Examples

```python
>>> np.unique([1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3])
array([1, 2, 3])
>>> a = np.array([[1, 1], [2, 3]])
>>> np.unique(a)
array([1, 2, 3])
```

Return the unique rows of a 2D array

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 0, 0], [1, 0, 0], [2, 3, 4]])
>>> np.unique(a, axis=0)
array([[1, 0, 0], [2, 3, 4]])
```

Return the indices of the original array that give the unique values:

```python
>>> a = np.array(['a', 'b', 'b', 'c', 'a'])
>>> u, indices = np.unique(a, return_index=True)
>>> u
array(['a', 'b', 'c'], dtype='U1')
>>> indices
```
Reconstruct the input array from the unique values and inverse:

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 6, 4, 2, 3, 2])
>>> u, indices = np.unique(a, return_inverse=True)
>>> u
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 6])
>>> indices
array([0, 1, 4, 3, 1, 2, 1])
>>> u[indices]
array([1, 2, 6, 4, 2, 3, 2])
```

Reconstruct the input values from the unique values and counts:

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 6, 4, 2, 3, 2])
>>> values, counts = np.unique(a, return_counts=True)
>>> values
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 6])
>>> counts
array([1, 3, 1, 1, 1])
>>> np.repeat(values, counts)
array([1, 2, 2, 2, 3, 4, 6])  # original order not preserved
```

### 4.2.10 Rearranging elements

- **flip(m[, axis])**
  - Reverse the order of elements in an array along the given axis. New in version 1.12.0.
  
  Parameters

  - m
    - [array_like] Input array.
  
  - axis
    - [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which to flip over. The default, axis=None, will flip over all of the axes of the input array. If axis is negative it counts from the last to the first axis.

- **flipud(m)**
  - Reverse the order of elements along axis 0 (up/down).

- **fliplr(m)**
  - Reverse the order of elements along axis 1 (left/right).

- **reshape(a, newshape[, order])**
  - Gives a new shape to an array without changing its data.

- **roll(a, shift[, axis])**
  - Roll array elements along a given axis.

- **rot90(m[, k, axes])**
  - Rotate an array by 90 degrees in the plane specified by axes.
If axis is a tuple of ints, flipping is performed on all of the axes specified in the tuple.

Changed in version 1.15.0: None and tuples of axes are supported

Returns

out

[array_like] A view of \( m \) with the entries of axis reversed. Since a view is returned, this operation is done in constant time.

See also:

flipud

Flip an array vertically (axis=0).

fliplr

Flip an array horizontally (axis=1).

Notes

flip(m, 0) is equivalent to flipud(m).
flip(m, 1) is equivalent to fliplr(m).
flip(m, n) corresponds to \( m[\ldots, ::-1, \ldots] \) with \( ::-1 \) at position n.
flip(m) corresponds to \( m[:::-1, :::-1, \ldots, :::-1] \) with \( ::-1 \) at all positions.
flip(m, (0, 1)) corresponds to \( m[:::-1, :::-1, \ldots] \) with \( ::-1 \) at position 0 and position 1.

Examples

```python
>>> A = np.arange(8).reshape((2, 2, 2))
>>> A
array([[[0, 1],
    [2, 3]],
   [[4, 5],
    [6, 7]]])
>>> np.flip(A, 0)
array([[[4, 5],
    [6, 7]],
   [[0, 1],
    [2, 3]]])
>>> np.flip(A, 1)
array([[[2, 3],
    [0, 1]],
   [[6, 7],
    [4, 5]]])
>>> np.flip(A)
array([[[7, 6],
    [5, 4]],
   [[3, 2],
    [1, 0]]])
>>> np.flip(A, (0, 2))
array([[[5, 4],
    [3, 2]],
   [[1, 0],
    [7, 6]]])
```
numpy.flip(m)
Reverse the order of elements along axis 1 (left/right).
For a 2-D array, this flips the entries in each row in the left/right direction. Columns are preserved, but appear in a different order than before.

Parameters
m
[array_like] Input array, must be at least 2-D.

Returns
f
[ndarray] A view of m with the columns reversed. Since a view is returned, this operation is \(O(1)\).

See also:
flipud
Flip array in the up/down direction.
flip
Flip array in one or more dimensions.
rot90
Rotate array counterclockwise.

Notes
Equivalent to \(m[:,::-1]\) or np.flip(m, axis=1). Requires the array to be at least 2-D.

Examples

```python
>>> A = np.diag([1., 2., 3.])
>>> A
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 2., 0.],
       [0., 0., 3.]])
>>> np.flip(A)
array([[0., 0., 1.],
       [0., 2., 0.],
       [3., 0., 0.]])
```
```python
>>> A = np.random.randn(2,3,5)
>>> np.all(np.fliplr(A) == A[:,::-1,...])
True
```

**numpy.flipud(m)**

Reverse the order of elements along axis 0 (up/down).

For a 2-D array, this flips the entries in each column in the up/down direction. Rows are preserved, but appear in a different order than before.

**Parameters**

- `m`  
  [array_like] Input array.

**Returns**

- `out`  
  [array_like] A view of `m` with the rows reversed. Since a view is returned, this operation is \( O(1) \).

**See also:**

- `fliplr`  
  Flip array in the left/right direction.

- `flip`  
  Flip array in one or more dimensions.

- `rot90`  
  Rotate array counterclockwise.

**Notes**

Equivalent to `m[::-1, ...]` or `np.flip(m, axis=0)`. Requires the array to be at least 1-D.

**Examples**

```python
>>> A = np.diag([1.0, 2, 3])
>>> A
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 2., 0.],
       [0., 0., 3.]])
```

```python
>>> np.flipud(A)
array([[0., 0., 3.],
       [0., 2., 0.],
       [1., 0., 0.]])
```

```python
>>> A = np.random.randn(2,3,5)
>>> np.all(np.flipud(A) == A[::-1,...])
True
```
numpy.flipud(arr)

Flip array in the up/down direction.

Parameters

arr

[array_like] Input array.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Output array, with the same shape as arr.

See also:

roll

Roll the specified axis backwards, until it lies in a given position.

Examples

>>> x = np.arange(10)
>>> np.roll(x, 2)
array([8, 9, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7])
>>> np.roll(x, -2)
array([2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 0, 1])

>>> x2 = np.reshape(x, (2, 5))
>>> x2
array([[0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
        [5, 6, 7, 8, 9]])
>>> np.roll(x2, 1)

(continues on next page)
array([[9, 0, 1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6, 7, 8]])

>>> np.roll(x2, -1)
array([[1, 2, 3, 4, 5],
       [6, 7, 8, 9, 0]])

>>> np.roll(x2, 1, axis=0)
array([[5, 6, 7, 8, 9],
       [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]])

>>> np.roll(x2, -1, axis=0)
array([[5, 6, 7, 8, 9],
       [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]])

>>> np.roll(x2, 1, axis=1)
array([[4, 0, 1, 2, 3],
       [9, 5, 6, 7, 8]])

>>> np.roll(x2, -1, axis=1)
array([[1, 2, 3, 4, 0],
       [6, 7, 8, 9, 5]])

numpy.rot90 (m, k=1, axes=(0, 1))

Rotate an array by 90 degrees in the plane specified by axes.

Rotation direction is from the first towards the second axis.

Parameters

m

[array_like] Array of two or more dimensions.

k

[integer] Number of times the array is rotated by 90 degrees.

axes: (2,) array_like

The array is rotated in the plane defined by the axes. Axes must be different.

New in version 1.12.0.

Returns

y

[ndarray] A rotated view of m.

See also:

flip

Reverse the order of elements in an array along the given axis.

fliplr

Flip an array horizontally.

flipud

Flip an array vertically.
Notes

rot90(m, k=1, axes=(1,0)) is the reverse of rot90(m, k=1, axes=(0,1)) rot90(m, k=1, axes=(1,0)) is equivalent to rot90(m, k=-1, axes=(0,1))

Examples

```python
>>> m = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]], int)
>>> m
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]])
>>> np.rot90(m)
array([[2, 4],
       [1, 3]])
>>> np.rot90(m, 2)
array([[4, 3],
       [2, 1]])
>>> m = np.arange(8).reshape((2, 2, 2))
>>> np.rot90(m, 1, (1,2))
array([[[1, 3],
        [0, 2]],
       [[5, 7],
        [4, 6]]])
```

4.3 Binary operations

4.3.1 Elementwise bit operations

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```python
numpy.bitwise_and(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True) = <ufunc 'bitwise_and'>
```

The function `numpy.bitwise_and` computes the bit-wise AND of two arrays, element-wise. It handles only integer and boolean types and performs the operation based on the underlying binary representation of the integers in the input arrays. This ufunc implements the C/Python operator `&`.

**Parameters**

- **x1, x2**
  [array_like] Only integer and boolean types are handled. If `x1.shape != x2.shape`, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored.
stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

**where**

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Result. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

logical_and
bitwise_or
bitwise_xor
binary_repr

Return the binary representation of the input number as a string.

Examples

The number 13 is represented by 00001101. Likewise, 17 is represented by 00010001. The bit-wise AND of 13 and 17 is therefore 00000001, or 1:

```python
>>> np.bitwise_and(13, 17)
1

>>> np.bitwise_and(14, 13)
12
>>> np.binary_repr(12)
'1100'
>>> np.bitwise_and([14, 3], 13)
array([12,  1])

>>> np.bitwise_and([[11, 7], [4,25]])
array([0, 1])
>>> np.bitwise_and(np.array([2,5,255]), np.array([3,14,16]))
array([2, 4, 16])
>>> np.bitwise_and([[True, True], [False, True]])
array([False, True])
```

The & operator can be used as a shorthand for np.bitwise_and on ndarrays.
```python
>>> x1 = np.array([2, 5, 255])
>>> x2 = np.array([3, 14, 16])
>>> x1 & x2
array([ 2,  4, 16])
```

```
numpy.bitwise_or(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'bitwise_or'>
```

Computes the bit-wise OR of the underlying binary representation of the integers in the input arrays. This ufunc implements the C/Python operator `|`.

**Parameters**

- `x1, x2` [array_like] Only integer and boolean types are handled. If `x1.shape != x2.shape`, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- `out` [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- `where` [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the `out` array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the `out` array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized `out` array is created via the default `out=None`, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- `**kwargs` For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- `out` [ndarray or scalar] Result. This is a scalar if both `x1` and `x2` are scalars.

**See also:**

- `logical_or`
- `bitwise_and`
- `bitwise_xor`
- `binary_repr`

Return the binary representation of the input number as a string.

---

**4.3. Binary operations**

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Examples

The number 13 has the binary representation 00001101. Likewise, 16 is represented by 00010000. The bit-wise OR of 13 and 16 is then 00011101, or 29:

```python
>>> np.bitwise_or(13, 16)
29
>>> np.binary_repr(29)
'11101'
```

```python
>>> np.bitwise_or(32, 2)
34
>>> np.bitwise_or([33, 4], 1)
array([33, 5])
>>> np.bitwise_or([33, 4], [1, 2])
array([33, 6])
```

```python
>>> np.bitwise_or(np.array([2, 5, 255]), np.array([4, 4, 4]))
array([ 6,   5, 255])
>>> np.array([2, 5, 255]) | np.array([4, 4, 4])
array([6,  5, 255])
>>> np.array([2, 5, 255, 2147483647], dtype=np.int32),
... np.array([4, 4, 2147483647], dtype=np.int32)
array([6, 5, 255, 2147483647])
>>> np.bitwise_or([True, True], [False, True])
array([ True, True])
```

The | operator can be used as a shorthand for np.bitwise_or on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.array([2, 5, 255])
>>> x2 = np.array([4, 4, 4])
>>> x1 | x2
array([ 6,   5, 255])
```

```
numpy.bitwise_xor(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'bitwise_xor'>
```

Computes the bit-wise XOR of two arrays element-wise.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] Only integer and boolean types are handled. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain
its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Result. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

logical_xor
bitwise_and
bitwise_or
binary_repr

Return the binary representation of the input number as a string.

Examples

The number 13 is represented by 00001101. Likewise, 17 is represented by 00010001. The bit-wise XOR of 13 and 17 is therefore 00011100, or 28:

```python
>>> np.bitwise_xor(13, 17)
28
>>> np.bitwise_xor(13, 17)
28
```

The & operator can be used as a shorthand for np.bitwise_xor on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.array([True, True])
>>> x2 = np.array([False, True])
>>> x1 ^ x2
array([ True, False])
```
For signed integer inputs, the two’s complement is returned. In a two's-complement system negative numbers are represented by the two's complement of the absolute value. This is the most common method of representing signed integers on computers [1]. A N-bit two's-complement system can represent every integer in the range $-2^{N-1}$ to $+2^{N-1} - 1$.

Parameters

- x
  - array_like: Only integer and boolean types are handled.

- out
  - ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional: A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- where
  - array_like, optional: This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- **kwargs
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

- out
  - ndarray or scalar: Result. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

- bitwise_and, bitwise_or, bitwise_xor
- logical_not
- binary_repr

Return the binary representation of the input number as a string.

Notes

bitwise_not is an alias for invert:

```python
>>> np.bitwise_not is np.invert
True
```
Examples

We’ve seen that 13 is represented by 00001101. The invert bit-wise NOT of 13 is then:

```python
>>> x = np.invert(np.array(13, dtype=np.uint8))
>>> x
242
>>> np.binary_repr(x, width=8)
'11110010'
```

The result depends on the bit-width:

```python
>>> x = np.invert(np.array(13, dtype=np.uint16))
>>> x
65522
>>> np.binary_repr(x, width=16)
'1111111111110010'
```

When using signed integer types the result is the two’s complement of the result for the unsigned type:

```python
>>> np.invert(np.array([13], dtype=np.int8))
array([-14], dtype=int8)
>>> np.binary_repr(-14, width=8)
'11110010'
```

Booleans are accepted as well:

```python
>>> np.invert(np.array([True, False]))
array([False, True])
```

The ~ operator can be used as a shorthand for np.invert on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.array([True, False])
>>> ~x1
array([False, True])
```

```python
numpy.left_shift(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj ] ) = <ufunc 'left_shift'>
```

Shift the bits of an integer to the left.

Bits are shifted to the left by appending x2 0s at the right of x1. Since the internal representation of numbers is in binary format, this operation is equivalent to multiplying x1 by \(2^{x2}\).

**Parameters**

- **x1**
  - [array_like of integer type] Input values.

- **x2**
  - [array_like of integer type] Number of zeros to append to x1. Has to be non-negative. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).
out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out

[array of integer type] Return \(x_1\) with bits shifted \(x_2\) times to the left. This is a scalar if both \(x_1\) and \(x_2\) are scalars.

See also:

right_shift

Shift the bits of an integer to the right.

binary_repr

Return the binary representation of the input number as a string.

Examples

```python
>>> np.binary_repr(5)
'101'
>>> np.left_shift(5, 2)
20
>>> np.binary_repr(20)
'10100'

>>> np.left_shift(5, [1,2,3])
array([10, 20, 40])
```

Note that the dtype of the second argument may change the dtype of the result and can lead to unexpected results in some cases (see Casting Rules):

```python
>>> a = np.left_shift(np.uint8(255), 1) # Expect 254
>>> print(a, type(a)) # Unexpected result due to upcasting
510 <class 'numpy.int64'>
>>> b = np.left_shift(np.uint8(255), np.uint8(1))
>>> print(b, type(b))
254 <class 'numpy.uint8'>
```

The \(<<\) operator can be used as a shorthand for np.left_shift on ndarrays.
```python
>>> x1 = 5
>>> x2 = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> x1 << x2
array([10, 20, 40])
```

**numpy.right_shift** *(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature, extobj)* = <ufunc 'right_shift'>

Shift the bits of an integer to the right.

Bits are shifted to the right x2. Because the internal representation of numbers is in binary format, this operation is equivalent to dividing x1 by \(2^{\times x2}\).

**Parameters**

- **x1**
  - [array_like, int] Input values.

- **x2**
  - [array_like, int] Number of bits to remove at the right of x1. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwargs
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray, int] Return x1 with bits shifted x2 times to the right. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

**See also:**

- **left_shift**
  - Shift the bits of an integer to the left.

- **binary_repr**
  - Return the binary representation of the input number as a string.

4.3. Binary operations
Examples

```python
>>> np.binary_repr(10)
'1010'
>>> np.right_shift(10, 1)
5
>>> np.binary_repr(5)
'101'
```

```python
>>> np.right_shift(10, [1, 2, 3])
array([5, 2, 1])
```

The `>>` operator can be used as a shorthand for `np.right_shift` on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = 10
>>> x2 = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> x1 >> x2
array([5, 2, 1])
```

4.3.2 Bit packing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>packbits(a[, axis, bitorder])</td>
<td>Packs the elements of a binary-valued array into bits in a uint8 array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unpackbits(a[, axis, count, bitorder])</td>
<td>Unpacks elements of a uint8 array into a binary-valued output array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`numpy.packbits(a[, axis=None, bitorder=’big’])`

Packs the elements of a binary-valued array into bits in a uint8 array.

The result is padded to full bytes by inserting zero bits at the end.

**Parameters**

- `a`
  - [array_like] An array of integers or booleans whose elements should be packed to bits.
- `axis`
  - [int, optional] The dimension over which bit-packing is done. None implies packing the flattened array.
- `bitorder`
  - [{'big', 'little'}, optional] The order of the input bits. ‘big’ will mimic `bin(val)`, `[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1]` => `3 = 0b00000011`, ‘little’ will reverse the order so `[1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]` => `3`. Defaults to ‘big’.

**New in version 1.17.0.**

**Returns**

- `packed`
  - [ndarray] Array of type uint8 whose elements represent bits corresponding to the logical (0 or nonzero) value of the input elements. The shape of `packed` has the same number of dimensions
as the input (unless \textit{axis} is \texttt{None}, in which case the output is 1-D).

\textbf{See also:}

\texttt{unpackbits}

Unpacks elements of a uint8 array into a binary-valued output array.

\textbf{Examples}

\begin{Verbatim}
>>> a = np.array([[1,0,1],
...                [0,1,0],
...                [1,1,0],
...                [0,0,1]])
>>> b = np.packbits(a, axis=-1)
>>> b
array([[160],
       [ 64],
       [192],
       [ 32]], dtype=uint8)
\end{Verbatim}

Note that in binary 160 = 1010 0000, 64 = 0100 0000, 192 = 1100 0000, and 32 = 0010 0000.

\begin{Verbatim}
numpy.unpackbits(a, axis=None, count=None, bitorder='big')
Unpacks elements of a uint8 array into a binary-valued output array.
Each element of \texttt{a} represents a bit-field that should be unpacked into a binary-valued output array. The shape of the output array is either 1-D (if \textit{axis} is \texttt{None}) or the same shape as the input array with unpacking done along the axis specified.

\textbf{Parameters}

\texttt{a}
[ndarray, uint8 type] Input array.

\texttt{axis}
[int, optional] The dimension over which bit-unpacking is done. \texttt{None} implies unpacking the flattened array.

\texttt{count}
[int or \texttt{None}, optional] The number of elements to unpack along \texttt{axis}, provided as a way of undoing the effect of packing a size that is not a multiple of eight. A non-negative number means to only unpack \texttt{count} bits. A negative number means to trim off that many bits from the end. \texttt{None} means to unpack the entire array (the default). Counts larger than the available number of bits will add zero padding to the output. Negative counts must not exceed the available number of bits.

New in version 1.17.0.

\texttt{bitorder}
[\{'big', 'little'\}, optional] The order of the returned bits. \texttt{bitorder} will mimic \texttt{bin(val)}, 3 = 0b00000011 => [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1]. \texttt{little} will reverse the order to [1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]. Defaults to \texttt{big}.

New in version 1.17.0.

4.3. Binary operations
Returns

unpacked

[ndarray, uint8 type] The elements are binary-valued (0 or 1).

See also:

packbits

Packs the elements of a binary-valued array into bits in a uint8 array.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[2], [7], [23]], dtype=np.uint8)
>>> a
array([[ 2],
       [ 7],
       [23]], dtype=uint8)
>>> b = np.unpackbits(a, axis=1)
>>> b
array([[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1],
       [0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1]], dtype=uint8)
>>> c = np.unpackbits(a, axis=1, count=-3)
>>> c
array([[0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 1, 0]], dtype=uint8)
```

```python
>>> p = np.packbits(b, axis=0)
>>> np.unpackbits(p, axis=0)
array([[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1],
       [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1],
       [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]], dtype=uint8)
>>> np.array_equal(b, np.unpackbits(p, axis=0, count=b.shape[0]))
True
```

4.3.3 Output formatting

`binary_repr(num[, width])` Return the binary representation of the input number as a string.

NumPy `binary_repr (num, width=None)`
Return the binary representation of the input number as a string.

For negative numbers, if width is not given, a minus sign is added to the front. If width is given, the two's complement of the number is returned, with respect to that width.
In a two’s-complement system negative numbers are represented by the two’s complement of the absolute value. This is the most common method of representing signed integers on computers [1]. A N-bit two’s-complement system can represent every integer in the range $-2^{N-1}$ to $+2^{N-1}$ − 1.

### Parameters

**num**

[int] Only an integer decimal number can be used.

**width**

[int, optional] The length of the returned string if `num` is positive, or the length of the two’s complement if `num` is negative, provided that `width` is at least a sufficient number of bits for `num` to be represented in the designated form.

If the `width` value is insufficient, it will be ignored, and `num` will be returned in binary (`num > 0`) or two’s complement (`num < 0`) form with its width equal to the minimum number of bits needed to represent the number in the designated form. This behavior is deprecated and will later raise an error.

Deprecated since version 1.12.0.

### Returns

**bin**

[str] Binary representation of `num` or two's complement of `num`.

See also:

- `base_repr`
  Return a string representation of a number in the given base system.

- `bin`
  Python’s built-in binary representation generator of an integer.

### Notes

`binary_repr` is equivalent to using `base_repr` with base 2, but about 25x faster.

### References

[1]
Examples

```python
>>> np.binary_repr(3)
'11'
>>> np.binary_repr(-3)
'-11'
>>> np.binary_repr(3, width=4)
'0011'
```

The two's complement is returned when the input number is negative and width is specified:

```python
>>> np.binary_repr(-3, width=3)
'101'
>>> np.binary_repr(-3, width=5)
'11101'
```

4.4 String operations

The `numpy.char` module provides a set of vectorized string operations for arrays of type `numpy.str_` or `numpy.bytes_`. All of them are based on the string methods in the Python standard library.

4.4.1 String operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>add(x1, x2)</code></td>
<td>Return element-wise string concatenation for two arrays of str or unicode.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>multiply(a, i)</code></td>
<td>Return <code>(a * i)</code>, that is string multiple concatenation, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>mod(a, values)</code></td>
<td>Return <code>(a % i)</code>, that is pre-Python 2.6 string formatting (interpolation),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>element-wise for a pair of array_likes of str or unicode.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>capitalize(a)</code></td>
<td>Return a copy of <code>a</code> with only the first character of each element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>capitalized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>center(a, width[, fillchar])</code></td>
<td>Return a copy of <code>a</code> with its elements centered in a string of length <code>width</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>decode(a[, encoding, errors])</code></td>
<td>Calls <code>str.decode</code> element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>encode(a[, encoding, errors])</code></td>
<td>Calls <code>str.encode</code> element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>expandtabs(a[, tabsize])</code></td>
<td>Return a copy of each string element where all tab characters are replaced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>by one or more spaces.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>join(sep, seq)</code></td>
<td>Return a string which is the concatenation of the strings in the sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><code>seq</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ljust(a, width[, fillchar])</code></td>
<td>Return an array with the elements of <code>a</code> left-justified in a string of length <code>width</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>lower(a)</code></td>
<td>Return an array with the elements converted to lowercase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>lstrip(a[, chars])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>a</code>, return a copy with the leading characters removed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>partition(a, sep)</code></td>
<td>Partition each element in <code>a</code> around <code>sep</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>replace(a, old, new[, count])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>a</code>, return a copy of the string with all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>occurrences of substring <code>old</code> replaced by <code>new</code>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

continues on next page
### Table 21 – continued from previous page

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>rjust(a, width[, fillchar])</code></td>
<td>Return an array with the elements of <code>a</code> right-justified in a string of length <code>width</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rpartition(a, sep)</code></td>
<td>Partition (split) each element around the right-most separator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rsplit(a[, sep, maxsplit])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>a</code>, return a list of the words in the string, using <code>sep</code> as the delimiter string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rstrip(a[, chars])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>a</code>, return a copy with the trailing characters removed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>split(a[, sep, maxsplit])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>a</code>, return a list of the words in the string, using <code>sep</code> as the delimiter string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>splitlines(a[, keepends])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>a</code>, return a list of the lines in the element, breaking at line boundaries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>strip(a[, chars])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>a</code>, return a copy with the leading and trailing characters removed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>swapcase(a)</code></td>
<td>Return element-wise a copy of the string with uppercase characters converted to lowercase and vice versa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>title(a)</code></td>
<td>Return element-wise title cased version of string or unicode.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>translate(a, table[, deletechars])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>a</code>, return a copy of the string where all characters occurring in the optional argument <code>deletechars</code> are removed, and the remaining characters have been mapped through the given translation table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>upper(a)</code></td>
<td>Return an array with the elements converted to uppercase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>zfill(a, width)</code></td>
<td>Return the array with the elements converted to uppercase.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**char.add**(X1, X2)

Return element-wise string concatenation for two arrays of str or unicode.

Arrays X1 and X2 must have the same shape.

- **Parameters**
  - X1
    - [array_like of str or unicode] Input array.
  - X2
    - [array_like of str or unicode] Input array.

- **Returns**
  - add
    - [ndarray] Output array of `string` or `unicode`, depending on input types of the same shape as X1 and X2.

**char.multiply**(a, i)

Return (a * i), that is string multiple concatenation, element-wise.

Values in i of less than 0 are treated as 0 (which yields an empty string).

- **Parameters**
  - a
    - [array_like of str or unicode]
i
[array_like of ints]

Returns

out
[ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input types

char.mod(a, values)
Return (a % i), that is pre-Python 2.6 string formatting (interpolation), element-wise for a pair of array_likes of str or unicode.

Parameters

a
[array_like of str or unicode]

values
[array_like of values] These values will be element-wise interpolated into the string.

Returns

out
[ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input types

See also:

str.__mod__

char.capitalize(a)
Return a copy of a with only the first character of each element capitalized.

Calls str.capitalize element-wise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

a
[array_like of str or unicode] Input array of strings to capitalize.

Returns

out
[ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input types

See also:

str.capitalize
Examples

```python
>>> c = np.array(['a1b2', '1b2a', 'b2a1', '2a1b'], dtype='S4'); c
array(['a1b2', '1b2a', 'b2a1', '2a1b'], dtype='|S4')
>>> np.char.capitalize(c)
array(['A1b2', '1b2a', 'B2a1', '2a1b'], dtype='|S4')
```

`char.center(a, width, fillchar='')`

Return a copy of `a` with its elements centered in a string of length `width`.

Calls `str.center` element-wise.

**Parameters**

- `a` [array_like of str or unicode]
- `width` [int] The length of the resulting strings
- `fillchar` [str or unicode, optional] The padding character to use (default is space).

**Returns**

- `out` [ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input types

**See also:**

`str.center`

`char.decode(a, encoding=None, errors=None)`

Calls `str.decode` element-wise.

The set of available codecs comes from the Python standard library, and may be extended at runtime. For more information, see the `codecs` module.

**Parameters**

- `a` [array_like of str or unicode]
- `encoding` [str, optional] The name of an encoding
- `errors` [str, optional] Specifies how to handle encoding errors

**Returns**
out

[ndarray]

See also:

str.decode

Notes

The type of the result will depend on the encoding specified.

Examples

```python
>>> c = np.array(["aAaA", ' a ', 'abBabba'])
>>> c
array(['aAaA', ' a ', 'abBabba'], dtype='<U7')
>>> np.char.encode(c, encoding='cp037')
array(['\x81\xc1\x81\xc1', '@@\x81\xc1@@',
       '\x81\x82\xc2\xc1\x82\xc1\x82\xc2\x81'],
      dtype='|S7')
```

char.encode(a, encoding=None, errors=None)

Calls str.encode element-wise.

The set of available codecs comes from the Python standard library, and may be extended at runtime. For more information, see the codecs module.

Parameters

a

[array_like of str or unicode]

encoding

[str, optional] The name of an encoding

earnings

[str, optional] Specifies how to handle encoding errors

Returns

out

[ndarray]

See also:

str.encode
**Notes**

The type of the result will depend on the encoding specified.

`char.expandtabs(a, tabsize=8)`

Return a copy of each string element where all tab characters are replaced by one or more spaces. Calls `str.expandtabs` element-wise.

Return a copy of each string element where all tab characters are replaced by one or more spaces, depending on the current column and the given `tabsize`. The column number is reset to zero after each newline occurring in the string. This doesn’t understand other non-printing characters or escape sequences.

**Parameters**

`a`

[array_like of str or unicode] Input array

`tabsize`

[int, optional] Replace tabs with `tabsize` number of spaces. If not given defaults to 8 spaces.

**Returns**

`out`

[ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

**See also:**

`str.expandtabs`

`char.join(sep, seq)`

Return a string which is the concatenation of the strings in the sequence `seq`. Calls `str.join` element-wise.

**Parameters**

`sep`

[array_like of str or unicode]

`seq`

[array_like of str or unicode]

**Returns**

`out`

[ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input types

**See also:**

`str.join`
char.ljust(a, width, fillchar='')

Return an array with the elements of a left-justified in a string of length width.

Calls str.ljust element-wise.

Parameters

- a
  [array_like of str or unicode]

- width
  [int] The length of the resulting strings

- fillchar
  [str or unicode, optional] The character to use for padding

Returns

- out
  [ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

str.ljust

char.lower(a)

Return an array with the elements converted to lowercase.

Call str.lower element-wise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

- a
  [array_like, {str, unicode}] Input array.

Returns

- out
  [ndarray, {str, unicode}] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

str.lower
Examples

```python
>>> c = np.array(['A1B C', '1BCA', 'BCA1']); c
array(['A1B C', '1BCA', 'BCA1'], dtype='<U5')
>>> np.char.lower(c)
array(['a1b c', '1bca', 'bca1'], dtype='<U5')
```

`char.lstrip(a, chars=None)`

For each element in `a`, return a copy with the leading characters removed.

Calls `str.lstrip` element-wise.

**Parameters**

a

[array-like, {str, unicode}] Input array.

chars

[{str, unicode}, optional] The `chars` argument is a string specifying the set of characters to be removed. If omitted or None, the `chars` argument defaults to removing whitespace. The `chars` argument is not a prefix; rather, all combinations of its values are stripped.

**Returns**

out

[ndarray, {str, unicode}] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

`str.lstrip`

Examples

```python
>>> c = np.array(['aAaAaA', ' aA ', 'abBABba'])
>>> c
array(['aAaAaA', ' aA ', 'abBABba'], dtype='<U7')
```

The 'a' variable is unstripped from `c[1]` because whitespace leading.

```python
>>> np.char.lstrip(c, 'a')
array(['AaAaA', ' aA ', 'bBABba'], dtype='<U7')
```

```python
>>> np.char.lstrip(c, 'A') # leaves c unchanged
array(['aAaAaA', ' aA ', 'abBABba'], dtype='<U7')
```

```python
>>> (np.char.lstrip(c, '') == np.char.lstrip(c, None)).all()
... # XXX: is this a regression? This used to return True...
... # np.char.lstrip(c,'') does not modify c at all.
False
```

```python
>>> (np.char.lstrip(c, ' ')) == np.char.lstrip(c, None)).all()  # True
```

`char.partition(a, sep)`

Partition each element in `a` around `sep`.

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Calls `str.partition` element-wise.

For each element in `a`, split the element as the first occurrence of `sep`, and return 3 strings containing the part before the separator, the separator itself, and the part after the separator. If the separator is not found, return 3 strings containing the string itself, followed by two empty strings.

**Parameters**

- `a`  
  [array_like, {str, unicode}] Input array

- `sep`  
  [{str, unicode}] Separator to split each string element in `a`.

**Returns**

- `out`  
  [ndarray, {str, unicode}] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type. The output array will have an extra dimension with 3 elements per input element.

**See also:**

`str.partition`

`str.replace` *(a, old, new, count=None)*

For each element in `a`, return a copy of the string with all occurrences of substring `old` replaced by `new`. Calls `str.replace` element-wise.

**Parameters**

- `a`  
  [array-like of str or unicode]

- `old, new`  
  [str or unicode]

- `count`  
  [int, optional] If the optional argument `count` is given, only the first `count` occurrences are replaced.

**Returns**

- `out`  
  [ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

**See also:**

`str.replace`

`str.rjust` *(a, width, fillchar=' ')*

Return an array with the elements of `a` right-justified in a string of length `width`. Calls `str.rjust` element-wise.
Parameters

a
[array_like of str or unicode]

width
[int] The length of the resulting strings

fillchar
[str or unicode, optional] The character to use for padding

Returns

out
[ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

str.rjust

char.rpartition (a, sep)
Partition (split) each element around the right-most separator.
Calls str.rpartition element-wise.
For each element in a, split the element as the last occurrence of sep, and return 3 strings containing the part before the separator, the separator itself, and the part after the separator. If the separator is not found, return 3 strings containing the string itself, followed by two empty strings.

Parameters

a
[array_like of str or unicode] Input array

sep
[str or unicode] Right-most separator to split each element in array.

Returns

out
[ndarray] Output array of string or unicode, depending on input type. The output array will have an extra dimension with 3 elements per input element.

See also:

str.rpartition

char.rsplit (a, sep=\text{None}, maxsplit=\text{None})
For each element in a, return a list of the words in the string, using sep as the delimiter string.
Calls str.rsplit element-wise.
Except for splitting from the right, rsplit behaves like split.

Parameters
a
  [array_like of str or unicode]

sep
  [str or unicode, optional] If sep is not specified or None, any whitespace string is a separator.

maxsplit
  [int, optional] If maxsplit is given, at most maxsplit splits are done, the rightmost ones.

Returns

out
  [ndarray] Array of list objects

See also:

str.rsplit, split

char.rstrip(a, chars=None)
For each element in a, return a copy with the trailing characters removed.
Calls str.rstrip element-wise.

Parameters

a
  [array-like of str or unicode]

chars
  [str or unicode, optional] The chars argument is a string specifying the set of characters to be removed. If omitted or None, the chars argument defaults to removing whitespace. The chars argument is not a suffix; rather, all combinations of its values are stripped.

Returns

out
  [ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

str.rstrip

Examples

>>> c = np.array(['aAaAaA', 'abBABba'], dtype='S7'); c
array(['aAaAaA', 'abBABba'],
      dtype='|S7')
>>> np.char.rstrip(c, 'a')
array(['AaAaAa', 'abBABb'],
      dtype='|S7')
>>> np.char.rstrip(c, 'A')
array(['aAaAaA', 'bABba'],
      dtype='|S7')
(continues on next page)
char.split (a, sep=None, maxsplit=None)
    For each element in a, return a list of the words in the string, using sep as the delimiter string.
    Calls str.split element-wise.

Parameters

    a
      [array_like of str or unicode]

    sep
      [str or unicode, optional] If sep is not specified or None, any whitespace string is a separator.

    maxsplit
      [int, optional] If maxsplit is given, at most maxsplit splits are done.

Returns

    out
      [ndarray] Array of list objects

See also:

    str.split, rsplit

char.splitlines (a, keepends=None)
    For each element in a, return a list of the lines in the element, breaking at line boundaries.
    Calls str.splitlines element-wise.

Parameters

    a
      [array_like of str or unicode]

    keepends
      [bool, optional] Line breaks are not included in the resulting list unless keepends is given and true.

Returns

    out
      [ndarray] Array of list objects

See also:

    str.splitlines
char.strip(a, chars=None)

For each element in `a`, return a copy with the leading and trailing characters removed.

Calls `str.strip` element-wise.

Parameters

- `a`  
  [array-like of str or unicode]

- `chars`  
  [str or unicode, optional] The `chars` argument is a string specifying the set of characters to be removed. If omitted or None, the `chars` argument defaults to removing whitespace. The `chars` argument is not a prefix or suffix; rather, all combinations of its values are stripped.

Returns

- `out`  
  [ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

- `str.strip`

Examples

```python
>>> c = np.array(['aAaAaA', ' aA ', 'abBAbba'])
>>> c
array(['aAaAaA', ' aA ', 'abBAbba'], dtype='<U7')
>>> np.char.strip(c)
array(['aAaAaA', ' aA ', 'abBAbba'], dtype='<U7')
>>> np.char.strip(c, 'a') # 'a' unstripped from c[1] because whitespace leads
array(['aAaAaA', ' aA ', 'bBAbba'], dtype='<U7')
>>> np.char.strip(c, 'A') # 'A' unstripped from c[1] because (unprinted) ws trails
array(['aAaAaA', ' aA ', 'abBAbba'], dtype='<U7')
```

char.swapcase(a)

Return element-wise a copy of the string with uppercase characters converted to lowercase and vice versa.

Calls `str.swapcase` element-wise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

- `a`  
  [array_like, {str, unicode}] Input array.

Returns

- `out`  
  [ndarray, {str, unicode}] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:
**str.swapcase**

Examples

```python
>>> c=np.array(['a1B c', '1b Ca', 'b Ca1', 'cA1b'], 'S5'); c
array(['a1B c', '1b Ca', 'b Ca1', 'cA1b'],
      dtype='|S5')
>>> np.char.swapcase(c)
array(['A1b C', '1B cA', 'B cA1', 'Ca1B'],
      dtype='|S5')
```

**char.title**(a)

Return element-wise title cased version of string or unicode.

Title case words start with uppercase characters, all remaining cased characters are lowercase.

Calls **str.title** element-wise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

a

[array_like, {str, unicode}] Input array.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

**str.title**

Examples

```python
>>> c=np.array(['a1b c', '1b ca', 'b ca1', 'ca1b'], 'S5'); c
array(['a1b c', '1b ca', 'b ca1', 'ca1b'],
      dtype='|S5')
>>> np.char.title(c)
array(['A1B C', '1B Ca', 'B Ca1', 'Ca1B'],
      dtype='|S5')
```

**char.translate**(a, table, deletechars=None)

For each element in a, return a copy of the string where all characters occurring in the optional argument deletechars are removed, and the remaining characters have been mapped through the given translation table.

Calls **str.translate** element-wise.

Parameters

a

[array-like of str or unicode]

4.4. String operations
deletechars

Returns

out

[ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

str.translate

char.upper(a)

Return an array with the elements converted to uppercase.
Calls str.upper element-wise.
For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

a

[array_like, {str, unicode}] Input array.

Returns

out

[ndarray, {str, unicode}] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

str.upper

Examples

```python
>>> c = np.array(['a1b c', '1bca', 'bca1']); c
array(['a1b c', '1bca', 'bca1'], dtype='<U5')
>>> np.char.upper(c)
array(['A1B C', '1BCA', 'BCA1'], dtype='<U5')
```

char.zfill(a, width)

Return the numeric string left-filled with zeros.
Calls str.zfill element-wise.

Parameters

a

[array_like, {str, unicode}] Input array.
width

[int] Width of string to left-fill elements in a.

Returns

out

[ndarray, {str, unicode}] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

str.zfill

4.4.2 Comparison

Unlike the standard numpy comparison operators, the ones in the char module strip trailing whitespace characters before performing the comparison.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>equal(x1, x2)</td>
<td>Return (x1 == x2) element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not_equal(x1, x2)</td>
<td>Return (x1 != x2) element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>greater_equal(x1, x2)</td>
<td>Return (x1 &gt;= x2) element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less_equal(x1, x2)</td>
<td>Return (x1 &lt;= x2) element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>greater(x1, x2)</td>
<td>Return (x1 &gt; x2) element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less(x1, x2)</td>
<td>Return (x1 &lt; x2) element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compare_chararrays(a, b, cmp_op, rstrip)</td>
<td>Performs element-wise comparison of two string arrays using the comparison operator specified by cmp_op.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

char.equal(x1, x2)

Return (x1 == x2) element-wise.

Unlike numpy.equal, this comparison is performed by first stripping whitespace characters from the end of the string. This behavior is provided for backward-compatibility with numarray.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like of str or unicode] Input arrays of the same shape.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Output array of bools.

See also:

not_equal, greater_equal, less_equal, greater, less

char.not_equal(x1, x2)

Return (x1 != x2) element-wise.

Unlike numpy.not_equal, this comparison is performed by first stripping whitespace characters from the end of the string. This behavior is provided for backward-compatibility with numarray.
Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like of str or unicode] Input arrays of the same shape.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Output array of bools.

See also:

equal, greater_equal, less_equal, greater, less

char.greater_equal(x1, x2)
Return (x1 >= x2) element-wise.

Unlike numpy.greater_equal, this comparison is performed by first stripping whitespace characters from the end of the string. This behavior is provided for backward-compatibility with numarray.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like of str or unicode] Input arrays of the same shape.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Output array of bools.

See also:

equal, not_equal, less_equal, greater, less

char.less_equal(x1, x2)
Return (x1 <= x2) element-wise.

Unlike numpy.less_equal, this comparison is performed by first stripping whitespace characters from the end of the string. This behavior is provided for backward-compatibility with numarray.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like of str or unicode] Input arrays of the same shape.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Output array of bools.

See also:

equal, not_equal, greater_equal, greater, less
char.greater(x1, x2)
Return \((x1 > x2)\) element-wise.

Unlike \texttt{numpy.greater}, this comparison is performed by first stripping whitespace characters from the end of the string. This behavior is provided for backward-compatibility with numarray.

Parameters

\(x1, x2\)
[array_like of str or unicode] Input arrays of the same shape.

Returns

\(out\)
[ndarray] Output array of bools.

See also:
\texttt{equal, not_equal, greater_equal, less_equal, less}

char.less(x1, x2)
Return \((x1 < x2)\) element-wise.

Unlike \texttt{numpy.greater}, this comparison is performed by first stripping whitespace characters from the end of the string. This behavior is provided for backward-compatibility with numarray.

Parameters

\(x1, x2\)
[array_like of str or unicode] Input arrays of the same shape.

Returns

\(out\)
[ndarray] Output array of bools.

See also:
\texttt{equal, not_equal, greater_equal, less_equal, greater}

char.compare_chararrays(a, b, cmp_op, rstrip)
Performs element-wise comparison of two string arrays using the comparison operator specified by \texttt{cmp_op}.

Parameters

\(a, b\)
[array_like] Arrays to be compared.

\texttt{cmp_op}
[
{“<”, “<=”, “==”, “>=”, “>”, “!”}]
Type of comparison.

\texttt{rstrip}
[Boolean] If True, the spaces at the end of Strings are removed before the comparison.
Returns

out

[ndarray] The output array of type Boolean with the same shape as a and b.

Raises

ValueError

If cmp_op is not valid.

TypeError

If at least one of a or b is a non-string array

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array(['a', 'b', 'cde'])
>>> b = np.array(['a', 'a', 'dec'])
>>> np.compare_chararrays(a, b, '>', True)
array([False, True, False])
```

4.4.3 String information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>count(a, sub[, start, end])</td>
<td>Returns an array with the number of non-overlapping occurrences of substring sub in the range [start, end].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>endswith(a, suffix[, start, end])</td>
<td>Returns a boolean array which is True where the string element in a ends with suffix, otherwise False.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>find(a, sub[, start, end])</td>
<td>For each element, return the lowest index in the string where substring sub is found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>index(a, sub[, start, end])</td>
<td>Like find, but raises ValueError when the substring is not found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isalpha(a)</td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphabetic and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isalnum(a)</td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphanumeric and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isdecimal(a)</td>
<td>For each element, return True if there are only decimal characters in the element.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isdigit(a)</td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are digits and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>islower(a)</td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are lowercase and there is at least one cased character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isnumeric(a)</td>
<td>For each element, return True if there are only numeric characters in the element.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isspace(a)</td>
<td>Returns true for each element if there are only whitespace characters in the string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>istitle(a)</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if the element is a titlecased string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isupper(a)</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are uppercase and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rfind(a, sub[, start, end])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>a</code>, return the highest index in the string where substring <code>sub</code> is found, such that <code>sub</code> is contained within <code>[start, end]</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rindex(a, sub[, start, end])</code></td>
<td>Like <code>rfind</code>, but raises <code>ValueError</code> when the substring <code>sub</code> is not found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>startswith(a, prefix[, start, end])</code></td>
<td>Returns a boolean array which is <code>True</code> where the string element in <code>a</code> starts with <code>prefix</code>, otherwise <code>False</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>str_len(a)</code></td>
<td>Return <code>len(a)</code> element-wise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**char.count** *(a, sub=0, end=None)*

Returns an array with the number of non-overlapping occurrences of substring `sub` in the range `[start, end]`.

Calls `str.count` element-wise.

**Parameters**

- `a`  
  [array_like of str or unicode]
- `sub`  
  [str or unicode] The substring to search for.
- `start, end`  
  [int, optional] Optional arguments `start` and `end` are interpreted as slice notation to specify the range in which to count.

**Returns**

- `out`  
  [ndarray] Output array of ints.

**See also:**

- `str.count`

**Examples**

```python
>>> c = np.array(['AAaA', ' A ', 'abABba'])
>>> c
array(['AAaA', ' A ', 'abABba'], dtype='<U7')
>>> np.char.count(c, 'A')
array([[3, 1, 1]])
>>> np.char.count(c, 'aA')
array([[3, 1, 0]])
>>> np.char.count(c, 'A', start=1, end=4)
array([[2, 1, 1]])
```

(continues on next page)
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

>>> np.char.count(c, 'A', start=1, end=3)
array([1, 0, 0])

char.count(c, suffix, start=0, end=None)

For each element, return the lowest index in the string where substring suffix is found, such that suffix is contained in the range [start, end].

Parameters

- a
  - [array_like of str or unicode]
- suffix
  - [str]
- start, end
  - [int, optional] With optional start, test beginning at that position. With optional end, stop comparing at that position.

Returns

- out
  - [ndarray] Outputs an array of bools.

See also:

str.findall

Examples

>>> s = np.array(['foo', 'bar'])
>>> s[0] = 'foo'
>>> s[1] = 'bar'
>>> s
array(['foo', 'bar'], dtype='<U3')
>>> np.char.find(s, 'a')
array([False,  True])
>>> np.char.find(s, 'a', start=1, end=2)
array([False,  True])

char.find(a, sub, start=0, end=None)

For each element, return the lowest index in the string where substring sub is found.

Calls str.find element-wise.

For each element, return the lowest index in the string where substring sub is found, such that sub is contained in the range [start, end].

Parameters

- a
  - [array_like of str or unicode]
sub
  [str or unicode]
start, end
  [int, optional] Optional arguments start and end are interpreted as in slice notation.

Returns
out
  [ndarray or int] Output array of ints. Returns -1 if sub is not found.

See also:
str.find
char.index (a, sub=0, end=None)
  Like find, but raises ValueError when the substring is not found.
  Calls str.index element-wise.

Parameters
a
  [array_like of str or unicode]
sub
  [str or unicode]
start, end
  [int, optional]

Returns
out
  [ndarray] Output array of ints. Returns -1 if sub is not found.

See also:
find, str.find
char.isalpha (a)
  Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphabetic and there is at least one character, false otherwise.
  Calls str.isalpha element-wise.
  For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters
a
  [array_like of str or unicode]

Returns
out

[ndarray] Output array of bools

See also:

str.isalpha

char.isalnum(a)
Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphanumeric and there is at least one character, false otherwise.
Calls str.isalnum element-wise.
For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

a
array_like of str or unicode

Returns

out
[ndarray] Output array of str or unicode, depending on input type

See also:

str.isalnum

char.isdecimal(a)
For each element, return True if there are only decimal characters in the element.
Calls unicode.isdecimal element-wise.
Decimal characters include digit characters, and all characters that can be used to form decimal-radix numbers, e.g. U+0660, ARABIC-INDIC DIGIT ZERO.

Parameters

a
array_like, unicode] Input array.

Returns

out
[ndarray, bool] Array of bools identical in shape to a.

See also:

unicode.isdecimal
char.isdigit(a)
Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are digits and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

Calls str.isdigit element-wise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

a
[array_like of str or unicode]

Returns

out
[ndarray] Output array of bools

See also:

str.isdigit

char.islower(a)
Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are lowercase and there is at least one cased character, false otherwise.

Calls str.islower element-wise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

a
[array_like of str or unicode]

Returns

out
[ndarray] Output array of bools

See also:

str.islower

char.isnumeric(a)
For each element, return True if there are only numeric characters in the element.

Calls unicode.isnumeric element-wise.

Numeric characters include digit characters, and all characters that have the Unicode numeric value property, e.g. U+2155, VULGAR FRACTION ONE FIFTH.

Parameters

a
[array_like, unicode] Input array.

4.4. String operations
Returns

out

[ndarray, bool] Array of booleans of same shape as \( a \).

See also:

\texttt{unicode.isnumeric}

\texttt{char.isspace}(a)

Returns true for each element if there are only whitespace characters in the string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

Calls \texttt{str.isspace} element-wise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

\( a \)

[array_like of str or unicode]

Returns

out

[ndarray] Output array of bools

See also:

\texttt{str.isspace}

\texttt{char.istitle}(a)

Returns true for each element if the element is a titlecased string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

Call \texttt{str.istitle} element-wise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

\( a \)

[array_like of str or unicode]

Returns

out

[ndarray] Output array of bools

See also:

\texttt{str.istitle}
char.isupper(a)
Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are uppercase and there is at least one character, false otherwise.
Call str.isupper element-wise.
For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

Parameters

a
[array_like of str or unicode]

Returns

out
[ndarray] Output array of bools

See also:

str.isupper

char.rfind(a, sub=0, end=None)
For each element in a, return the highest index in the string where substring sub is found, such that sub is contained within [start, end].
Calls str.rfind element-wise.

Parameters

a
[array-like of str or unicode]
sub
[str or unicode]
start, end
[int, optional] Optional arguments start and end are interpreted as in slice notation.

Returns

out

See also:

str.rfind

char.rindex(a, sub=0, end=None)
Like rfind, but raises ValueError when the substring sub is not found.
Calls str.rindex element-wise.

Parameters

4.4. String operations

char.startswith(a, prefix, start=0, end=None)

Returns a boolean array which is True where the string element in a starts with prefix, otherwise False.

Calls str.startswith element-wise.

Parameters

- a
  - [array_like of str or unicode]
- prefix
  - [str]
- start, end
  - [int, optional] With optional start, test beginning at that position. With optional end, stop comparing at that position.

Returns

- out
  - [ndarray] Array of booleans

See also:

str.startswith

char.str_len(a)

Return len(a) element-wise.

Parameters

- a
  - [array_like of str or unicode]

Returns
out

[array] Output array of integers

See also:

builtins.len

### 4.4.4 Convenience class

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>array(obj[, itemsize, copy, unicode, order])</td>
<td>Create a chararray.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asarray(obj[, itemsize, unicode, order])</td>
<td>Convert the input to a chararray, copying the data only if necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chararray(shape[, itemsize, unicode, ...])</td>
<td>Provides a convenient view on arrays of string and unicode values.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

char.array (obj, itemsize=None, copy=True, unicode=None, order=None)
Create a chararray.

**Note:** This class is provided for numarray backward-compatibility. New code (not concerned with numarray compatibility) should use arrays of type string or unicode and use the free functions in numpy.char for fast vectorized string operations instead.

Versus a regular NumPy array of type str or unicode, this class adds the following functionality:

1) values automatically have whitespace removed from the end when indexed
2) comparison operators automatically remove whitespace from the end when comparing values
3) vectorized string operations are provided as methods (e.g. str.endswith) and infix operators (e.g. +, *, %)

**Parameters**

- **obj**
  [array of str or unicode-like]

- **itemsize**
  [int, optional] itemsize is the number of characters per scalar in the resulting array. If itemsize is None, and obj is an object array or a Python list, the itemsize will be automatically determined. If itemsize is provided and obj is of type str or unicode, then the obj string will be chunked into itemsize pieces.

- **copy**
  [bool, optional] If true (default), then the object is copied. Otherwise, a copy will only be made if __array__ returns a copy, if obj is a nested sequence, or if a copy is needed to satisfy any of the other requirements (itemsize, unicode, order, etc.).

- **unicode**
  [bool, optional] When true, the resulting chararray can contain Unicode characters, when false only 8-bit characters. If unicode is None and obj is one of the following:
  - a chararray,
• an ndarray of type str or unicode
• a Python str or unicode object,
then the unicode setting of the output array will be automatically determined.

order

[['C', 'F', 'A'], optional] Specify the order of the array. If order is ‘C’ (default), then the array will be in C-contiguous order (last-index varies the fastest). If order is ‘F’, then the returned array will be in Fortran-contiguous order (first-index varies the fastest). If order is ‘A’, then the returned array may be in any order (either C-, Fortran-contiguous, or even discontiguous).

char.asarray (obj, itemsize=None, unicode=None, order=None)
Convert the input to a chararray, copying the data only if necessary.

Versus a regular NumPy array of type str or unicode, this class adds the following functionality:
1) values automatically have whitespace removed from the end when indexed
2) comparison operators automatically remove whitespace from the end when comparing values
3) vectorized string operations are provided as methods (e.g. str.endswith) and infix operators (e.g. +, *，“%”)

Parameters

obj
[array of str or unicode-like]

itemsize
[int, optional] itemsize is the number of characters per scalar in the resulting array. If itemsize is None, and obj is an object array or a Python list, the itemsize will be automatically determined. If itemsize is provided and obj is of type str or unicode, then the obj string will be chunked into itemsize pieces.

unicode
[bool, optional] When true, the resulting chararray can contain Unicode characters, when false only 8-bit characters. If unicode is None and obj is one of the following:
• a chararray,
• an ndarray of type str or ‘unicode’
• a Python str or unicode object,
then the unicode setting of the output array will be automatically determined.

order

[['C', 'F'], optional] Specify the order of the array. If order is ‘C’ (default), then the array will be in C-contiguous order (last-index varies the fastest). If order is ‘F’, then the returned array will be in Fortran-contiguous order (first-index varies the fastest).

class numpy.char.chararray (shape, itemsize=1, unicode=False, buffer=None, offset=0, strides=None, order=None)
Provides a convenient view on arrays of string and unicode values.

Note: The chararray class exists for backwards compatibility with Numarray, it is not recommended for new development. Starting from numpy 1.4, if one needs arrays of strings, it is recommended to use arrays of dtype
object_, string_ or unicode_, and use the free functions in the `numpy.char` module for fast vectorized string operations.

Versus a regular NumPy array of type `str` or `unicode`, this class adds the following functionality:

1) values automatically have whitespace removed from the end when indexed
2) comparison operators automatically remove whitespace from the end when comparing values
3) vectorized string operations are provided as methods (e.g. `endswith`) and infix operators (e.g. "+", "*", "/")

Chararrays should be created using `numpy.char.array` or `numpy.char.asarray`, rather than this constructor directly.

This constructor creates the array, using `buffer` (with `offset` and `strides`) if it is not `None`. If `buffer` is `None`, then constructs a new array with `strides` in “C order”, unless both `len(shape) >= 2` and `order='F'`, in which case `strides` is in “Fortran order”.

**Parameters**

- `shape`:
  - [tuple] Shape of the array.

- `itemsize`:
  - [int, optional] Length of each array element, in number of characters. Default is 1.

- `unicode`:
  - [bool, optional] Are the array elements of type `unicode` (True) or `string` (False). Default is False.

- `buffer`:
  - [object exposing the buffer interface or str, optional] Memory address of the start of the array data. Default is `None`, in which case a new array is created.

- `offset`:
  - [int, optional] Fixed stride displacement from the beginning of an axis? Default is 0. Needs to be >=0.

- `strides`:
  - [array_like of ints, optional] Strides for the array (see `ndarray.strides` for full description). Default is `None`.

- `order`:
  - ['C', 'F'], optional] The order in which the array data is stored in memory: 'C' -> “row major” order (the default), 'F' -> “column major” (Fortran) order.
Examples

```python
>>> charar = np.chararray((3, 3))
>>> charar[:] = 'a'
>>> charar
chararray([[b'a', b'a', b'a'],
          [b'a', b'a', b'a'],
          [b'a', b'a', b'a']], dtype='|S1')

>>> charar = np.chararray((3, 3), itemsize=5)
>>> charar[:] = 'abc'
>>> charar
chararray([[b'abc', b'abc', b'abc'],
          [b'abc', b'abc', b'abc'],
          [b'abc', b'abc', b'abc']], dtype='|S5')
```

Attributes

- **T**
  The transposed array.

- **base**
  Base object if memory is from some other object.

- **ctypes**
  An object to simplify the interaction of the array with the ctypes module.

- **data**
  Python buffer object pointing to the start of the array’s data.

- **dtype**
  Data-type of the array’s elements.

- **flags**
  Information about the memory layout of the array.

- **flat**
  A 1-D iterator over the array.

- **imag**
  The imaginary part of the array.

- **itemsize**
  Length of one array element in bytes.

- **nbytes**
  Total bytes consumed by the elements of the array.

- **ndim**
  Number of array dimensions.

- **real**
  The real part of the array.
**shape**

Tuple of array dimensions.

**size**

Number of elements in the array.

**strides**

Tuple of bytes to step in each dimension when traversing an array.

## Methods

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<td><code>astype(dtype, order, casting, subok, copy)</code></td>
<td>Copy of the array, cast to a specified type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>argsort(axis, kind, order)</code></td>
<td>Returns the indices that would sort this array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>copy(order)</code></td>
<td>Return a copy of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>count(sub[, start, end])</code></td>
<td>Returns an array with the number of non-overlapping occurrences of substring <code>sub</code> in the range <code>[start, end]</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>decode([encoding, errors])</code></td>
<td>Calls <code>str.decode</code> element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dump(file)</code></td>
<td>Dump a pickle of the array to the specified file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dumps()</code></td>
<td>Returns the pickle of the array as a string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>encode([encoding, errors])</code></td>
<td>Calls <code>str.encode</code> element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>endwith(suffix[, start, end])</code></td>
<td>Returns a boolean array which is <code>True</code> where the string element in <code>self</code> ends with <code>suffix</code>, otherwise <code>False</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>expandtabs([tabsize])</code></td>
<td>Return a copy of each string element where all tab characters are replaced by one or more spaces.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>fill(value)</code></td>
<td>Fill the array with a scalar value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>find(sub[, start, end])</code></td>
<td>For each element, return the lowest index in the string where substring <code>sub</code> is found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>flatten(order)</code></td>
<td>Return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>getfield(dtype[, offset])</code></td>
<td>Returns a field of the given array as a certain type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>index(sub[, start, end])</code></td>
<td>Like <code>find</code>, but raises <code>ValueError</code> when the substring is not found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isalnum()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphanumeric and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isalpha()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphabetic and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isdecimal()</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return True if there are only decimal characters in the element.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isdigit()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are digits and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>islower()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are lowercase and there is at least one cased character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isnumeric()</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return True if there are only numeric characters in the element.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>isspace()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if there are only whitespace characters in the string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>istitle()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if the element is a title-cased string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isupper()</code></td>
<td>Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are uppercase and there is at least one character, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>item(*args)</code></td>
<td>Copy an element of an array to a standard Python scalar and return it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>join(seq)</code></td>
<td>Return a string which is the concatenation of the strings in the sequence <code>seq</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ljust(width[, fillchar])</code></td>
<td>Return an array with the elements of <code>self</code> left-justified in a string of length <code>width</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>lower()</code></td>
<td>Return an array with the elements of <code>self</code> converted to lowercase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>lstrip([chars])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a copy with the leading characters removed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nonzero()</code></td>
<td>Return the indices of the elements that are non-zero.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>put(indices, values[, mode])</code></td>
<td>Set <code>a.flat[n] = values[n]</code> for all <code>n</code> in indices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ravel(order) </code></td>
<td>Return a flattened array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>repeat(repeats[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Repeat elements of an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>replace(old, new[, count])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a copy of the string with all occurrences of substring <code>old</code> replaced by <code>new</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>reshape(shape[, order])</code></td>
<td>Returns an array containing the same data with a new shape.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>resize(new_shape[, refcheck])</code></td>
<td>Change shape and size of array in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rfind(sub[, start,end])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return the highest index in the string where substring <code>sub</code> is found, such that <code>sub</code> is contained within <code>[start, end]</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rindex(sub[, start,end])</code></td>
<td>Like <code>rfind</code>, but raises <code>ValueError</code> when the substring <code>sub</code> is not found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rjust(width[, fillchar])</code></td>
<td>Return an array with the elements of <code>self</code> right-justified in a string of length <code>width</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rsplit([sep,maxsplit])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a list of the words in the string, using <code>sep</code> as the delimiter string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rstrip([chars])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a copy with the trailing characters removed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>searchsorted(v[, side, sorter])</code></td>
<td>Find indices where elements of <code>v</code> should be inserted in <code>a</code> to maintain order.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>setfield(val, dtype[, offset])</code></td>
<td>Put a value into a specified place in a field defined by a data-type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>setflags([write, align, uic])</code></td>
<td>Set array flags WRITEABLE, ALIGNED, (WRITEBACKIFCOPY and UPDATEIFCOPY), respectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>sort([axis, kind, order])</code></td>
<td>Sort an array in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>split([sep, maxsplit])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a list of the words in the string, using <code>sep</code> as the delimiter string.</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>splitlines([keepends])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a list of the lines in the element, breaking at line boundaries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>squeeze([axis])</code></td>
<td>Remove axes of length one from <code>a</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>startswith(prefix[, start, end])</code></td>
<td>Returns a boolean array which is <code>True</code> where the string element in <code>self</code> starts with <code>prefix</code>, otherwise <code>False</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>strip([chars])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a copy with the leading and trailing characters removed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>swapaxes(axis1, axis2)</code></td>
<td>Return a view of the array with <code>axis1</code> and <code>axis2</code> interchanged.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>swapcase()</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a copy of the string with uppercase characters converted to lowercase and vice versa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>take(indices[, axis, out, mode])</code></td>
<td>Return an array formed from the elements of <code>a</code> at the given indices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>title()</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a titlecased version of the string: words start with uppercase characters, all remaining cased characters are lowercase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tolist()</code></td>
<td>Return the array as an <code>a.ndim</code>-levels deep nested list of Python scalars.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>translate(table[, deletechars])</code></td>
<td>For each element in <code>self</code>, return a copy of the string where all characters occurring in the optional argument <code>deletechars</code> are removed, and the remaining characters have been mapped through the given translation table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>transpose(*axes)</code></td>
<td>Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>upper()</code></td>
<td>Return an array with the elements of <code>self</code> converted to uppercase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>view([dtype[, type]])</code></td>
<td>New view of array with the same data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>zfill(width)</code></td>
<td>Return the numeric string left-filled with zeros in a string of length <code>width</code>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Method**

```
char.chararray.astype(dtype, order='K', casting='unsafe', subok=True, copy=True)
```

Copy of the array, cast to a specified type.

**Parameters**

- **dtype**
  
  [str or dtype] Typecode or data-type to which the array is cast.

- **order**
  
  [{‘C’, ‘F’, ‘A’, ‘K’}, optional] Controls the memory layout order of the result. ‘C’ means C order, ‘F’ means Fortran order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ order if all the arrays are Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ order otherwise, and ‘K’ means as close to the order the array elements appear in memory as possible. Default is ‘K’.

- **casting**
  
• ‘no’ means the data types should not be cast at all.
• ‘equiv’ means only byte-order changes are allowed.
• ‘safe’ means only casts which can preserve values are allowed.
• ‘same_kind’ means only safe casts or casts within a kind, like float64 to float32, are allowed.
• ‘unsafe’ means any data conversions may be done.

subok

[bool, optional] If True, then sub-classes will be passed-through (default), otherwise the returned array will be forced to be a base-class array.

copy

[bool, optional] By default, astype always returns a newly allocated array. If this is set to false, and the dtype, order, and subok requirements are satisfied, the input array is returned instead of a copy.

Returns

arr_t

[ndarray] Unless copy is False and the other conditions for returning the input array are satisfied (see description for copy input parameter), arr_t is a new array of the same shape as the input array, with dtype, order given by dtype, order.

Raises

ComplexWarning

When casting from complex to float or int. To avoid this, one should use a.real.astype(t).

Notes

Changed in version 1.17.0: Casting between a simple data type and a structured one is possible only for “unsafe” casting. Casting to multiple fields is allowed, but casting from multiple fields is not.

Changed in version 1.9.0: Casting from numeric to string types in ‘safe’ casting mode requires that the string dtype length is long enough to store the max integer/float value converted.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 2.5])
>>> x
array([1. , 2. , 2.5])

>>> x.astype(int)
array([1, 2, 2])
```

method

char.chararray.argsort (axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)

Returns the indices that would sort this array.

Refer to numpy.argsort for full documentation.
See also:

**numpy.argsort**

Equivalent function method

```
char.chararray.copy(order='C')
```

Return a copy of the array.

**Parameters**

**order**

[['C', 'F', 'A', 'K'], optional] Controls the memory layout of the copy. 'C' means C-order, 'F' means F-order, 'A' means 'F' if a is Fortran contiguous, 'C' otherwise. 'K' means match the layout of a as closely as possible. (Note that this function and **numpy.copy** are very similar but have different default values for their order= arguments, and this function always passes sub-classes through.)

See also:

**numpy.copy**

Similar function with different default behavior

**numpy.copyto**

**Notes**

This function is the preferred method for creating an array copy. The function **numpy.copy** is similar, but it defaults to using order 'K', and will not pass sub-classes through by default.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], order='F')

>>> y = x.copy()

>>> x.fill(0)

array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])

>>> x
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])

>>> y
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])

>>> y.flags['C_CONTIGUOUS']
True
```
char.chararray.count(sub, start=0, end=None)
Returns an array with the number of non-overlapping occurrences of substring sub in the range [start, end].

See also:

char.count

method

char.chararray.decode(encoding=None, errors=None)
Calls str.decode element-wise.

See also:

char.decode

method

char.chararray.dump(file)
Dump a pickle of the array to the specified file. The array can be read back with pickle.load or numpy.load.

Parameters

file
[str or Path] A string naming the dump file.

Changed in version 1.17.0: pathlib.Path objects are now accepted.

method

char.chararray.dumps()
Returns the pickle of the array as a string. pickle.loads or numpy.loads will convert the string back to an array.

Parameters

None

method

char.chararray.encode(encoding=None, errors=None)
Calls str.encode element-wise.

See also:

char.encode

method

char.chararray.endswith(suffix, start=0, end=None)
Returns a boolean array which is True where the string element in self ends with suffix, otherwise False.

See also:

char.endswith

method
char.chararray.**expandtabs**(tabsize=8)

Return a copy of each string element where all tab characters are replaced by one or more spaces.

**See also:**

*char.expandtabs*

method

char.chararray.**fill**(value)

Fill the array with a scalar value.

**Parameters**

value

[scalar] All elements of `a` will be assigned this value.

**Examples**

```python
generate examples code here
```

method

char.chararray.**find**(sub, start=0, end=None)

For each element, return the lowest index in the string where substring `sub` is found.

**See also:**

*char.find*

method

char.chararray.**flatten**(order='C')

Return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension.

**Parameters**

order

[\{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K', optional\}] ‘C’ means to flatten in row-major (C-style) order. ‘F’ means to flatten in column-major (Fortran-style) order. ‘A’ means to flatten in column-major order if `a` is Fortran contiguous in memory, row-major order otherwise. ‘K’ means to flatten `a` in the order the elements occur in memory. The default is ‘C’.

**Returns**

y

[ndarray] A copy of the input array, flattened to one dimension.
See also:

*ravel*

Return a flattened array.

*flat*

A 1-D flat iterator over the array.

**Examples**

```python
generate_asterisks(10)
```

method

**char.chararray.getfield**(*dtype*, *offset=0*)

Returns a field of the given array as a certain type.

A field is a view of the array data with a given data-type. The values in the view are determined by the given type and the offset into the current array in bytes. The offset needs to be such that the view dtype fits in the array dtype; for example, an array of dtype complex128 has 16-byte elements. If taking a view with a 32-bit integer (4 bytes), the offset needs to be between 0 and 12 bytes.

**Parameters**

* dtype
  
  [str or dtype] The data type of the view. The dtype size of the view can not be larger than that of the array itself.

* offset
  
  [int] Number of bytes to skip before beginning the element view.

**Examples**

```python
generate_asterisks(10)
```

By choosing an offset of 8 bytes we can select the complex part of the array for our view:

```python
generate_asterisks(10)
```

method
char.chararray.index(sub, start=0, end=None)

Like find, but raises ValueError when the substring is not found.

See also:

char.index

method

char.chararray.isalnum()

Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphanumeric and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

See also:

char.isalnum

method

char.chararray.isalpha()

Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are alphabetic and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

See also:

char.isalpha

method

char.chararray.isdecimal()

For each element in self, return True if there are only decimal characters in the element.

See also:

char.isdecimal

method

char.chararray.isdigit()

Returns true for each element if all characters in the string are digits and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

See also:

char.isdigit

method

char.chararray.islower()

Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are lowercase and there is at least one cased character, false otherwise.

See also:

char.islower

method
char.chararray.isnumeric()  
For each element in self, return True if there are only numeric characters in the element.

See also:

char.isnumeric

method

char.chararray.isspace()  
Returns true for each element if there are only whitespace characters in the string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

See also:

char.isspace

method

char.chararray.istitle()  
Returns true for each element if the element is a titlecased string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

See also:

char.istitle

method

char.chararray.isupper()  
Returns true for each element if all cased characters in the string are uppercase and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

See also:

char.isupper

method

char.chararray.item(*args)  
Copy an element of an array to a standard Python scalar and return it.

Parameters

*args

[Arguments (variable number and type)]

• none: in this case, the method only works for arrays with one element (a.size == 1), which element is copied into a standard Python scalar object and returned.

• int_type: this argument is interpreted as a flat index into the array, specifying which element to copy and return.

• tuple of int_types: functions as does a single int_type argument, except that the argument is interpreted as an nd-index into the array.

Returns
z

[Standard Python scalar object] A copy of the specified element of the array as a suitable Python scalar

Notes

When the data type of a is longdouble or clongdouble, item() returns a scalar array object because there is no available Python scalar that would not lose information. Void arrays return a buffer object for item(), unless fields are defined, in which case a tuple is returned.

item is very similar to a[arg], except, instead of an array scalar, a standard Python scalar is returned. This can be useful for speeding up access to elements of the array and doing arithmetic on elements of the array using Python's optimized math.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> x = np.random.randint(9, size=(3, 3))
>>> x
array([[2, 2, 6],
       [1, 3, 6],
       [1, 0, 1]])
>>> x.item(3)
1
>>> x.item(7)
0
>>> x.item((0, 1))
2
>>> x.item((2, 2))
1
```

method
c.chararray.join(seq)
Return a string which is the concatenation of the strings in the sequence seq.

See also:

`char.join`

method
c.chararray.ljust(width, fillchar=' ')
Return an array with the elements of self left-justified in a string of length width.

See also:

`char.ljust`

method
c.chararray.lower()
Return an array with the elements of self converted to lowercase.

See also:
**char.lower**

method

char.chararray.lstrip(chars=None)

For each element in self, return a copy with the leading characters removed.

See also:

**char.lstrip**

method

char.chararray.nonzero()

Return the indices of the elements that are non-zero.

Refer to numpy.nonzero for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.nonzero**

  equivalent function

method

char.chararray.put(indices, values, mode='raise')

Set a.flat[n] = values[n] for all n in indices.

Refer to numpy.put for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.put**

  equivalent function

method

char.chararray.ravel([order])

Return a flattened array.

Refer to numpy.ravel for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.ravel**

  equivalent function

**ndarray.flat**

  a flat iterator on the array.

method

char.chararray.repeat(repeats, axis=None)

Repeat elements of an array.

Refer to numpy.repeat for full documentation.

See also:
**numpy.repeat**

Equivalent function

**method**

```
char.chararray.replace(old, new, count=None)
```

For each element in self, return a copy of the string with all occurrences of substring old replaced by new.

**See also:**

```
char.replace
```

**method**

```
char.chararray.reshape(shape, order='C')
```

Returns an array containing the same data with a new shape.

Refer to numpy.reshape for full documentation.

**See also:**

```
numpy.reshape
```

Equivalent function

**Notes**

Unlike the free function numpy.reshape, this method on ndarray allows the elements of the shape parameter to be passed in as separate arguments. For example, a.reshape(10, 11) is equivalent to a.reshape((10, 11)).

**method**

```
char.chararray.resize(new_shape, refcheck=True)
```

Change shape and size of array in-place.

**Parameters**

- **new_shape**
  - [tuple of ints, or n ints] Shape of resized array.

- **refcheck**
  - [bool, optional] If False, reference count will not be checked. Default is True.

**Returns**

None

**Raises**

- **ValueError**
  - If a does not own its own data or references or views to it exist, and the data memory must be changed. PyPy only: will always raise if the data memory must be changed, since there is no reliable way to determine if references or views to it exist.
**SystemError**

If the *order* keyword argument is specified. This behaviour is a bug in NumPy.

See also:

*resize*

Return a new array with the specified shape.

**Notes**

This reallocates space for the data area if necessary.

Only contiguous arrays (data elements consecutive in memory) can be resized.

The purpose of the reference count check is to make sure you do not use this array as a buffer for another Python object and then reallocate the memory. However, reference counts can increase in other ways so if you are sure that you have not shared the memory for this array with another Python object, then you may safely set *refcheck* to False.

**Examples**

Shrinking an array: array is flattened (in the order that the data are stored in memory), resized, and reshaped:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], order='C')
>>> a.resize((2, 1))
array([[0], [1]])
```

```python
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]], order='F')
>>> a.resize((2, 1))
array([[0], [2]])
```

Enlarging an array: as above, but missing entries are filled with zeros:

```python
>>> b = np.array([[0, 1], [2, 3]])
>>> b.resize(2, 3)  # new_shape parameter doesn't have to be a tuple
>>> b
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 0, 0]])
```

Referencing an array prevents resizing...

```python
>>> c = a
>>> a.resize((1, 1))
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError: cannot resize an array that references or is referenced ...
```

Unless *refcheck* is False:
```python
>>> a.resize((1, 1), refcheck=False)
>>> a
array([[0]])
>>> c
array([[0]])
```

method

```python
char.chararray.rfind(sub, start=0, end=None)
```

For each element in `self`, return the highest index in the string where substring `sub` is found, such that `sub` is contained within `[start, end]`.

See also:

```python
char.rfind
```

method

```python
char.chararray.rindex(sub, start=0, end=None)
```

Like `rfind`, but raises `ValueError` when the substring `sub` is not found.

See also:

```python
char.rindex
```

method

```python
char.chararray.rjust(width, fillchar=' ')
```

Return an array with the elements of `self` right-justified in a string of length `width`.

See also:

```python
char.rjust
```

method

```python
char.chararray.rsplit(sep=None, maxsplit=None)
```

For each element in `self`, return a list of the words in the string, using `sep` as the delimiter string.

See also:

```python
char.rsplit
```

method

```python
char.chararray.rstrip(chars=None)
```

For each element in `self`, return a copy with the trailing characters removed.

See also:

```python
char.rstrip
```

method

```python
char.chararray.searchsorted(v, side='left', sorter=None)
```

Find indices where elements of `v` should be inserted in `a` to maintain order.

For full documentation, see `numpy.searchsorted`

See also:
**numpy.searchsorted**

Equivalent function

**method**

`char.chararray.setfield(val, dtype, offset=0)`

Put a value into a specified place in a field defined by a data-type.

Place `val` into `a`'s field defined by `dtype` and beginning `offset` bytes into the field.

**Parameters**

- `val`
  - [object] Value to be placed in field.

- `dtype`
  - [dtype object] Data-type of the field in which to place `val`.

- `offset`
  - [int, optional] The number of bytes into the field at which to place `val`.

**Returns**

None

**See also:**

`getfield`

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.eye(3)
>>> x.getfield(np.float64)
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
>>> x.setfield(3, np.int32)
>>> x.getfield(np.int32)
array([[3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3]], dtype=int32)
```
char.chararray.setflags (write=None, align=None, uic=None)

Set array flags WRITEABLE, ALIGNED, (WRITEBACKIFCOPY and UPDATEIFCOPY), respectively.

These Boolean-valued flags affect how numpy interprets the memory area used by a (see Notes below). The ALIGNED flag can only be set to True if the data is actually aligned according to the type. The WRITEBACKIFCOPY and (deprecated) UPDATEIFCOPY flags can never be set to True. The flag WRITEABLE can only be set to True if the array owns its own memory, or the ultimate owner of the memory exposes a writable buffer interface, or is a string. (The exception for string is made so that unpickling can be done without copying memory.)

Parameters

write

[bool, optional] Describes whether or not a can be written to.

align

[bool, optional] Describes whether or not a is aligned properly for its type.

uic

[bool, optional] Describes whether or not a is a copy of another “base” array.

Notes

Array flags provide information about how the memory area used for the array is to be interpreted. There are 7 Boolean flags in use, only four of which can be changed by the user: WRITEBACKIFCOPY, UPDATEIFCOPY, WRITEABLE, and ALIGNED.

WRITEABLE (W) the data area can be written to;

ALIGNED (A) the data and strides are aligned appropriately for the hardware (as determined by the compiler);

UPDATEIFCOPY (U) (deprecated), replaced by WRITEBACKIFCOPY;

WRITEBACKIFCOPY (X) this array is a copy of some other array (referenced by .base). When the C-API function PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy is called, the base array will be updated with the contents of this array.

All flags can be accessed using the single (upper case) letter as well as the full name.

Examples

```python
>>> y = np.array([[3, 1, 7],
    ...    [2, 0, 0],
    ...    [8, 5, 9]])
>>> y
array([[3, 1, 7],
    [2, 0, 0],
    [8, 5, 9]])
>>> y.flags
C_CONTIGUOUS : True
F_CONTIGUOUS : False
OWNDATA : True
WRITEABLE : True
ALIGNED : True
WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
```

(continues on next page)
```python
>>> y.setflags(write=0, align=0)
>>> y.flags
C_CONTIGUOUS : True
F_CONTIGUOUS : False
OWNDATA : True
WRITEABLE : False
ALIGNED : False
WRITEBACKIFCOPY : False
UPDATEIFCOPY : False
>>> y.setflags(uic=1)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: cannot set WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag to True
```

```python
method
cchar.chararray.sort (axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)
Sort an array in-place. Refer to numpy.sort for full documentation.

Parameters

axis
[int, optional] Axis along which to sort. Default is -1, which means sort along the last axis.

kind
['quicksort', 'mergesort', 'heapsort', 'stable'], optional] Sorting algorithm. The default is 'quicksort'. Note that both 'stable' and 'mergesort' use timsort under the covers and, in general, the actual implementation will vary with datatype. The 'mergesort' option is retained for backwards compatibility.

Changed in version 1.15.0: The 'stable' option was added.

order
[str or list of str, optional] When a is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not all fields need be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

See also:

numpy.sort
Return a sorted copy of an array.
numpy.argsort
Indirect sort.
numpy.lexsort
Indirect stable sort on multiple keys.
numpy.searchsorted
Find elements in sorted array.
```
**numpy.partition**

Partial sort.

**Notes**

See *numpy.sort* for notes on the different sorting algorithms.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 4], [3, 1]])
>>> a.sort(axis=1)
a  array([[1, 4],
        [3, 1]])
>>> a.sort(axis=0)
a  array([[1, 3],
        [1, 4]])
```

Use the *order* keyword to specify a field to use when sorting a structured array:

```python
>>> a = np.array([('a', 2), ('c', 1)], dtype=[('x', 'S1'), ('y', 'int')])
>>> a.sort(order='y')
a  array([(b'c', 1), (b'a', 2)],
          dtype=[('x', 'S1'), ('y', '<i8')])
```

**char.chararray.split** (sep=None, maxsplit=None)

For each element in *self*, return a list of the words in the string, using *sep* as the delimiter string.

See also:

**char.split**

method

**char.chararray.splitlines** (keepends=None)

For each element in *self*, return a list of the lines in the element, breaking at line boundaries.

See also:

**char.splitlines**

method

**char.chararray.squeeze** (axis=None)

Remove axes of length one from *a*.

Refer to *numpy.squeeze* for full documentation.

See also:

**numpy.squeeze**

equivalent function

---

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method

char.chararray.startwith(prefix, start=0, end=None)

Returns a boolean array which is True where the string element in self starts with prefix, otherwise False.

See also:

char.startwith

method

char.chararray.strip(chars=None)

For each element in self, return a copy with the leading and trailing characters removed.

See also:

char.strip

method

char.chararray.swapaxes(axis1, axis2)

Return a view of the array with axis1 and axis2 interchanged.

Refer to numpy.swapaxes for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.swapaxes equivalent function

method

char.chararray.swapcase()

For each element in self, return a copy of the string with uppercase characters converted to lowercase and vice versa.

See also:

char.swapcase

method

char.chararray.take(indices, axis=None, out=None, mode='raise')

Return an array formed from the elements of a at the given indices.

Refer to numpy.take for full documentation.

See also:

numpy.take equivalent function

method

char.chararray.title()

For each element in self, return a titlecased version of the string: words start with uppercase characters, all remaining cased characters are lowercase.

See also:
char.title

method

char.chararray.tofile (fid, sep=",", format='%s')
Write array to a file as text or binary (default).

Data is always written in 'C' order, independent of the order of a. The data produced by this method can be
recovered using the function fromfile().

Parameters

fid
[ file or str or Path] An open file object, or a string containing a filename.

Changed in version 1.17.0: pathlib.Path objects are now accepted.

sep
[str] Separator between array items for text output. If "" (empty), a binary file is written,
equivalent to file.write(a.tobytes()).

format
[str] Format string for text file output. Each entry in the array is formatted to text by first
converting it to the closest Python type, and then using "format" % item.

Notes

This is a convenience function for quick storage of array data. Information on endianness and precision is
lost, so this method is not a good choice for files intended to archive data or transport data between machines
with different endianness. Some of these problems can be overcome by outputting the data as text files, at the
expense of speed and file size.

When fid is a file object, array contents are directly written to the file, bypassing the file object's write
method. As a result, tofile cannot be used with files objects supporting compression (e.g., GzipFile) or file-
like objects that do not support fileno() (e.g., BytesIO).

method

char.chararray.tolist ()
Return the array as an a.ndim-levels deep nested list of Python scalars.

Return a copy of the array data as a (nested) Python list. Data items are converted to the nearest compatible
builtin Python type, via the item function.

If a.ndim is 0, then since the depth of the nested list is 0, it will not be a list at all, but a simple Python
scalar.

Parameters

none

Returns

y
[object, or list of object, or list of list of object, or …] The possibly nested list of array
elements.
Notes

The array may be recreated via \( a = \text{np.array}(a.\text{tolist}()) \), although this may sometimes lose precision.

Examples

For a 1D array, \( a.\text{tolist}() \) is almost the same as \( \text{list}(a) \), except that \( \text{tolist} \) changes numpy scalars to Python scalars:

```python
>>> a = np.uint32([1, 2])
>>> a_list = list(a)
>>> a_list
[1, 2]
>>> type(a_list[0])
<class 'numpy.uint32'>
>>> a_tolist = a.tolist()
>>> a_tolist
[1, 2]
>>> type(a_tolist[0])
<class 'int'>
```

Additionally, for a 2D array, \( \text{tolist} \) applies recursively:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> list(a)
[array([1, 2]), array([3, 4])]
>>> a.tolist()
[[1, 2], [3, 4]]
```

The base case for this recursion is a 0D array:

```python
>>> a = np.array(1)
>>> list(a)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
TypeError: iteration over a 0-d array
>>> a.tolist()
1
```

method

\( \text{char.chararray.tostring} \) (order='C')

A compatibility alias for \( \text{tobytes} \), with exactly the same behavior.

Despite its name, it returns \( \text{bytes} \) not \( \text{strs} \).

Deprecated since version 1.19.0.

method

\( \text{char.chararray.translate} \) (table, deletechars=None)

For each element in \( \text{self} \), return a copy of the string where all characters occurring in the optional argument \( \text{deletechars} \) are removed, and the remaining characters have been mapped through the given translation table.

See also:

\( \text{char.translate} \)
method

```
char.chararray.transpose(*axes)
```

Returns a view of the array with axes transposed.

For a 1-D array this has no effect, as a transposed vector is simply the same vector. To convert a 1-D array into a 2D column vector, an additional dimension must be added. `np.atleast2d(a).T` achieves this, as does `a[:, np.newaxis]`. For a 2-D array, this is a standard matrix transpose. For an n-D array, if axes are given, their order indicates how the axes are permuted (see Examples). If axes are not provided and `a.shape = (i[0], i[1], ... i[n-2], i[n-1])`, then `a.transpose().shape = (i[n-1], i[n-2], .. . i[1], i[0])`.

**Parameters**

axes

[None, tuple of ints, or n ints]

• None or no argument: reverses the order of the axes.

• tuple of ints: `i` in the `j`-th place in the tuple means `a`'s `i`-th axis becomes `a.transpose()`'s `j`-th axis.

• `n` ints: same as an `n`-tuple of the same ints (this form is intended simply as a “convenience” alternative to the tuple form)

**Returns**

out

[ndarray] View of `a`, with axes suitably permuted.

**See also:**

transpose

Equivalent function

```
ndarray.T
```

Array property returning the array transposed.

```
ndarray.reshape
```

Give a new shape to an array without changing its data.

**Examples**

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

**method**

`char.chararray.upper()`

Return an array with the elements of `self` converted to uppercase.

**See also:**

`char.upper`

**method**

`char.chararray.view([dtype[, type]])`

New view of array with the same data.

**Note:** Passing `None` for `dtype` is different from omitting the parameter, since the former invokes `dtype(None)` which is an alias for `dtype('float_')`.

**Parameters**

- **dtype**
  
  [data-type or ndarray sub-class, optional] Data-type descriptor of the returned view, e.g., `float32` or `int16`. Omitting it results in the view having the same data-type as `a`. This argument can also be specified as an `ndarray` sub-class, which then specifies the type of the returned object (this is equivalent to setting the `type` parameter).

- **type**
  
  [Python type, optional] Type of the returned view, e.g., `ndarray` or `matrix`. Again, omission of the parameter results in type preservation.

**Notes**

- `a.view()` is used two different ways:
  - `a.view(some_dtype)` or `a.view(dtype=some_dtype)` constructs a view of the array’s memory with a different data-type. This can cause a reinterpretation of the bytes of memory.
  - `a.view(ndarray_subclass)` or `a.view(type=ndarray_subclass)` just returns an instance of `ndarray_subclass` that looks at the same array (same shape, dtype, etc.) This does not cause a reinterpretation of the memory.

- For `a.view(some_dtype)`, if `some_dtype` has a different number of bytes per entry than the previous dtype (for example, converting a regular array to a structured array), then the behavior of the view cannot be predicted just from the superficial appearance of `a` (shown by `print(a)`). It also depends on exactly how `a` is stored in memory. Therefore if `a` is C-ordered versus fortran-ordered, versus defined as a slice or transpose, etc., the view may give different results.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[(1, 2)], dtype=[('a', np.int8), ('b', np.int8)])

Viewing array data using a different type and dtype:

```python
>>> y = x.view(dtype=np.int16, type=np.matrix)
```
```python
>>> matrix([[513]], dtype=int16)
```
```python
>>> print(type(y))
<class 'numpy.matrix'>
```

Creating a view on a structured array so it can be used in calculations

```python
>>> x = np.array([[(1, 2), (3, 4)], dtype=[('a', np.int8), ('b', np.int8)])
>>> xv = x.view(dtype=np.int8).reshape(-1, 2)
>>> xv
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]], dtype=int8)
>>> xv.mean(0)
array([2., 3.])
```

Making changes to the view changes the underlying array

```python
>>> xv[0,1] = 20
>>> x
array([[1, 20],
       [3, 4]], dtype=[('a', 'i1'), ('b', 'i1')])
```

Using a view to convert an array to a recarray:

```python
>>> z = x.view(np.recarray)
```
```python
>>> z.a
array([1, 3], dtype=int8)
```

Views share data:

```python
>>> x[0] = (9, 10)
>>> z[0]
(9, 10)
```

Views that change the dtype size (bytes per entry) should normally be avoided on arrays defined by slices, transposes, fortran-ordering, etc.:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 2, 3],[4, 5, 6]], dtype=np.int16)
>>> y = x[:, 0:2]
>>> y
array([[1, 2],
       [4, 5]], dtype=int16)
>>> y.view(dtype=[('width', np.int16), ('length', np.int16)])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
ValueError: To change to a dtype of a different size, the array must be C-
contiguous
>>> z = y.copy()
>>> z.view(dtype=[('width', np.int16), ('length', np.int16)])
array([[(1, 2),
       [4, 5]], dtype=[('width', '<i2'), ('length', '<i2')])
```

4.4. String operations 647
method

```python
char.chararray.zfill(width)
```

Return the numeric string left-filled with zeros in a string of length `width`.

See also:

```python
char.zfill
```

## 4.5 C-Types Foreign Function Interface (numpy.ctypeslib)

### `numpy.ctypeslib.as_array(obj, shape=None)`

Create a numpy array from a ctypes array or POINTER.

The shape parameter must be given if converting from a ctypes POINTER. The shape parameter is ignored if converting from a ctypes array.

### `numpy.ctypeslib.as_ctypes(obj)`

Create and return a ctypes object from a numpy array. Actually anything that exposes the `__array_interface__` is accepted.

### `numpy.ctypeslib.as_ctypes_type(dtype)`

Convert a dtype into a ctypes type.

**Parameters**

- `dtype`
  `[dtype] The dtype to convert`

**Returns**

- `ctype`
  A ctypes scalar, union, array, or struct

**Raises**

- `NotImplementedError`
  If the conversion is not possible

**Notes**

This function does not losslessly round-trip in either direction.

`np.dtype(as_ctypes_type(dt))` will:

- insert padding fields
- reorder fields to be sorted by offset
- discard field titles

`as_ctypes_type(np.dtype(ctype))` will:

- discard the class names of `ctypes.Structures` and `ctypes.Unions`
• convert single-element `ctypes.Union` into single-element `ctypes.Structure`

• insert padding fields

```
numpy.ctypeslib.load_library (libname, loader_path)
```

It is possible to load a library using `lib = ctypes.cdll[<full_path_name>]` # doctest: +SKIP

But there are cross-platform considerations, such as library file extensions, plus the fact Windows will just load the first library it finds with that name. NumPy supplies the `load_library` function as a convenience.

**Parameters**

**libname**

[Str] Name of the library, which can have ‘lib’ as a prefix, but without an extension.

**loader_path**

[Str] Where the library can be found.

**Returns**

`ctypes.cdll[libpath]`

[Library object] A ctypes library object

**Raises**

`OSError`

If there is no library with the expected extension, or the library is defective and cannot be loaded.

```
numpy.ctypeslib.ndpointer (dtype=None, ndim=None, shape=None, flags=None)
```

Array-checking restype/argtypes.

An `ndpointer` instance is used to describe an `ndarray` in restypes and argtypes specifications. This approach is more flexible than using, for example, `POINTER(c_double)`, since several restrictions can be specified, which are verified upon calling the ctypes function. These include data type, number of dimensions, shape and flags. If a given array does not satisfy the specified restrictions, a `TypeError` is raised.

**Parameters**

**dtype**


**ndim**

[int, optional] Number of array dimensions.

**shape**

[tuple of ints, optional] Array shape.

**flags**

[Str or tuple of str] Array flags; may be one or more of:

- C_CONTIGUOUS / C / CONTIGUOUS
- F_CONTIGUOUS / F / FORTRAN
- OWNDATA / O
• WRITEABLE / W
• ALIGNED / A
• WRITEBACKIFCOPY / X
• UPDATEIFCOPY / U

Returns

klass

[ndpointer type object] A type object, which is an _ndtptr instance containing dtype, ndim, shape and flags information.

Raises

TypeError

If a given array does not satisfy the specified restrictions.

Examples

```python
>>> clib.somefunc.argtypes = [np.ctypeslib.ndpointer(dtype=np.float64,
...                               ndim=1,
...                               flags='C_CONTIGUOUS')]
... >>> clib.somefunc(np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.float64))
...```

4.6 Datetime Support Functions

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<td>Convert an array of datetimes into an array of strings.</td>
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<td>datetime_data</td>
<td>Get information about the step size of a date or time type.</td>
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`numpy.datetime_as_string(arr[, unit, timezone, ...])`
Convert an array of datetimes into an array of strings.

Parameters

arr

[array_like of datetime64] The array of UTC timestamps to format.

unit

[stren] One of None, ‘auto’, or a datetime unit.

timezone

[{'naive', 'UTC', 'local'} or tzinfo] Timezone information to use when displaying the datetime. If ‘UTC’, end with a Z to indicate UTC time. If ‘local’, convert to the local timezone first, and suffix with a +### time zone offset. If a tzinfo object, then do as with ‘local’, but use the specified timezone.

casting
Casting to allow when changing between datetime units.

Returns

str_arr
[ ndarray ] An array of strings the same shape as arr.

Examples

```python
>>> import pytz
>>> d = np.arange('2002-10-27T04:30', 4*60, 60, dtype='M8[m]')
array(['2002-10-27T04:30', '2002-10-27T05:30', '2002-10-27T06:30',
   '2002-10-27T07:30'], dtype='datetime64[m]')
```

Setting the timezone to UTC shows the same information, but with a Z suffix

```python
>>> np.datetime_as_string(d, timezone='UTC')
   '2002-10-27T07:30Z'], dtype='<U35')
```

Note that we picked datetimes that cross a DST boundary. Passing in a pytz timezone object will print the appropriate offset

```python
>>> np.datetime_as_string(d, timezone=pytz.timezone('US/Eastern'))
array(['2002-10-27T00:30-0400', '2002-10-27T01:30-0400',
   '2002-10-27T01:30-0500', '2002-10-27T02:30-0500'], dtype='<U39')
```

Passing in a unit will change the precision

```python
>>> np.datetime_as_string(d, unit='h')
   dtype='<U32')
>>> np.datetime_as_string(d, unit='s')
array(['2002-10-27T04:30:00', '2002-10-27T05:30:00', '2002-10-27T06:30:00',
   '2002-10-27T07:30:00'], dtype='<U38')
```

‘casting’ can be used to specify whether precision can be changed

```python
>>> np.datetime_as_string(d, unit='h', casting='safe')
Traceback (most recent call last):
 ... TypeError: Cannot create a datetime string as units 'h' from a NumPy
datetime with units 'm' according to the rule 'safe'
```

**numpy.datetime_data** *(dtype, /)*

Get information about the step size of a date or time type.

The returned tuple can be passed as the second argument of **numpy.datetime64** and **numpy.timedelta64**.

Parameters

dtype

[ dtype ] The dtype object, which must be a **datetime64** or **timedelta64** type.

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Returns

unit

[str] The *datetime unit* on which this dtype is based.

count

[int] The number of base units in a step.

Examples

```python
>>> dt_25s = np.dtype('timedelta64[25s]')
>>> np.datetime_data(dt_25s)
('s', 25)
>>> np.array(10, dt_25s).astype('timedelta64[s]')
array(250, dtype='timedelta64[s]')
```

The result can be used to construct a datetime that uses the same units as a timedelta

```python
>>> np.datetime64('2010', np.datetime_data(dt_25s))
numpy.datetime64('2010-01-01T00:00:00','25s')
```

4.6.1 Business Day Functions

| **busdaycalendar**([weekmask, holidays]) | A business day calendar object that efficiently stores information defining valid days for the busday family of functions. |
| **is_busday**(dates[, weekmask, holidays, …]) | Calculates which of the given dates are valid days, and which are not. |
| **busday_offset**(dates, offsets[, roll, …]) | First adjusts the date to fall on a valid day according to the roll rule, then applies offsets to the given dates counted in valid days. |
| **busday_count**(begindates, enddates[, …]) | Counts the number of valid days between *begindates* and *enddates*, not including the day of *enddates*. |

**class** numpy.**busdaycalendar**(weekmask='1111100', holidays=None)

A business day calendar object that efficiently stores information defining valid days for the busday family of functions.

The default valid days are Monday through Friday (“business days”). A busdaycalendar object can be specified with any set of weekly valid days, plus an optional “holiday” dates that always will be invalid.

Once a busdaycalendar object is created, the weekmask and holidays cannot be modified.

New in version 1.7.0.

**Parameters**

weekmask

[str or array_like of bool, optional] A seven-element array indicating which of Monday through Sunday are valid days. May be specified as a length-seven list or array, like [1,1,1,1,0,0]; a length-seven string, like ‘1111100’; or a string like “Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri”, made up of 3-character abbreviations for weekdays, optionally separated by white space. Valid abbreviations
are: Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri Sat Sun

**holidays**

[array_like of datetime64[D], optional] An array of dates to consider as invalid dates, no matter which weekday they fall upon. Holiday dates may be specified in any order, and NaT (not-a-time) dates are ignored. This list is saved in a normalized form that is suited for fast calculations of valid days.

**Returns**

**out**

[busdaycalendar] A business day calendar object containing the specified weekmask and holidays values.

**See also:**

*is_busday*

Returns a boolean array indicating valid days.

*busday_offset*

Applies an offset counted in valid days.

*busday_count*

Counts how many valid days are in a half-open date range.

**Examples**

```python
>>> # Some important days in July
... bdd = np.busdaycalendar(
...     holidays=['2011-07-01', '2011-07-04', '2011-07-17'])
... # Default is Monday to Friday weekdays
... bdd.weekmask
array([[ True,  True,  True,  True,  True, False, False]])
... # Any holidays already on the weekend are removed
... bdd.holidays
array(['2011-07-01', '2011-07-04'], dtype='datetime64[D]')
```

**Attributes**

*Note: once a busdaycalendar object is created, you cannot modify the weekmask or holidays. The attributes return copies of internal data.*

**weekmask**

[(copy) seven-element array of bool] A copy of the seven-element boolean mask indicating valid days.

**holidays**

[(copy) sorted array of datetime64[D]] A copy of the holiday array indicating additional invalid days.
`numpy.is_busday` \((\text{dates}, \text{weekmask}='1111100', \text{holidays}=\text{None}, \text{busdaycal}=\text{None}, \text{out}=\text{None})\)

Calculates which of the given dates are valid days, and which are not.

New in version 1.7.0.

**Parameters**

- **dates**
  - `[array_like of datetime64[D]]` The array of dates to process.

- **weekmask**
  - `[str or array_like of bool, optional]` A seven-element array indicating which of Monday through Sunday are valid days. May be specified as a length-seven list or array, like `[1,1,1,1,1,0,0]`; a length-seven string, like ‘1111100’; or a string like “Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri”, made up of 3-character abbreviations for weekdays, optionally separated by white space. Valid abbreviations are: Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri Sat Sun.

- **holidays**
  - `[array_like of datetime64[D], optional]` An array of dates to consider as invalid dates. They may be specified in any order, and NaT (not-a-time) dates are ignored. This list is saved in a normalized form that is suited for fast calculations of valid days.

- **busdaycal**
  - `[busdaycalendar, optional]` A `busdaycalendar` object which specifies the valid days. If this parameter is provided, neither weekmask nor holidays may be provided.

- **out**
  - `[array of bool, optional]` If provided, this array is filled with the result.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - `[array of bool]` An array with the same shape as `dates`, containing True for each valid day, and False for each invalid day.

**See also:**

- `busdaycalendar`
  - An object that specifies a custom set of valid days.

- `busday_offset`
  - Applies an offset counted in valid days.

- `busday_count`
  - Counts how many valid days are in a half-open date range.
Examples

```python
>>> # The weekdays are Friday, Saturday, and Monday
... np.is_busday(['2011-07-01', '2011-07-02', '2011-07-18'],
...     holidays=['2011-07-01', '2011-07-04', '2011-07-17'])
array([False, False, True])
```

`numpy.busday_offset` (dates, offsets, roll=’raise’, weekmask=’1111100’, holidays=None, busdaycal=None, out=None)

First adjusts the date to fall on a valid day according to the roll rule, then applies offsets to the given dates counted in valid days.

New in version 1.7.0.

**Parameters**

- **dates**
  
  [array_like of datetime64[D]] The array of dates to process.

- **offsets**
  
  [array_like of int] The array of offsets, which is broadcast with dates.

- **roll**
  
  [{'raise', 'nat', 'forward', 'following', 'backward', 'preceding', 'modifiedfollowing', 'modified-preceding'}, optional] How to treat dates that do not fall on a valid day. The default is ‘raise’.
  
  - ‘raise’ means to raise an exception for an invalid day.
  - ‘nat’ means to return a NaT (not-a-time) for an invalid day.
  - ‘forward’ and ‘following’ mean to take the first valid day later in time.
  - ‘backward’ and ‘preceding’ mean to take the first valid day earlier in time.
  - ‘modifiedfollowing’ means to take the first valid day later in time unless it is across a Month boundary, in which case to take the first valid day earlier in time.
  - ‘modifiedpreceding’ means to take the first valid day earlier in time unless it is across a Month boundary, in which case to take the first valid day later in time.

- **weekmask**
  
  [str or array_like of bool, optional] A seven-element array indicating which of Monday through Sunday are valid days. May be specified as a length-seven list or array, like [1,1,1,1,0,0,0]; a length-seven string, like ‘1111100’; or a string like “Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri”, made up of 3-character abbreviations for weekdays, optionally separated by white space. Valid abbreviations are: Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri Sat Sun

- **holidays**
  
  [array_like of datetime64[D], optional] An array of dates to consider as invalid dates. They may be specified in any order, and NaT (not-a-time) dates are ignored. This list is saved in a normalized form that is suited for fast calculations of valid days.

- **busdaycal**
  
  [busdaycalendar, optional] A busdaycalendar object which specifies the valid days. If this parameter is provided, neither weekmask nor holidays may be provided.
out

[array of datetime64[D], optional] If provided, this array is filled with the result.

Returns

out

[array of datetime64[D]] An array with a shape from broadcasting dates and offsets
together, containing the dates with offsets applied.

See also:

`busdaycalendar`

An object that specifies a custom set of valid days.

`is_busday`

Returns a boolean array indicating valid days.

`busday_count`

Counts how many valid days are in a half-open date range.

Examples

```python
>>> # First business day in October 2011 (not accounting for holidays)
... np.busday_offset('2011-10', 0, roll='forward')
numpy.datetime64('2011-10-03')
>>> # Last business day in February 2012 (not accounting for holidays)
... np.busday_offset('2012-02', -1, roll='forward')
numpy.datetime64('2012-02-29')
>>> # Third Wednesday in January 2011
... np.busday_offset('2011-01', 2, roll='forward', weekmask='Wed')
numpy.datetime64('2011-01-19')
>>> # 2012 Mother’s Day in Canada and the U.S.
... np.busday_offset('2012-05', 1, roll='forward', weekmask='Sun')
numpy.datetime64('2012-05-13')
```

```python
>>> # First business day on or after a date
... np.busday_offset('2011-03-20', 0, roll='forward')
numpy.datetime64('2011-03-21')
>>> np.busday_offset('2011-03-22', 0, roll='forward')
numpy.datetime64('2011-03-22')
>>> # First business day after a date
... np.busday_offset('2011-03-20', 1, roll='backward')
numpy.datetime64('2011-03-21')
>>> np.busday_offset('2011-03-22', 1, roll='backward')
numpy.datetime64('2011-03-23')
```

`numpy.busday_count` (`begindates`, `enddates`, `weekmask='1111100'`, `holidays=[]`, `busdaycal=None`, `out=None`)

Counts the number of valid days between `begindates` and `enddates`, not including the day of `enddates`.

If `enddates` specifies a date value that is earlier than the corresponding `begindates` date value, the count will be negative.

New in version 1.7.0.
Parameters

begindates
[array_like of datetime64[D]] The array of the first dates for counting.

dendifedates
[array_like of datetime64[D]] The array of the end dates for counting, which are excluded from the count themselves.

weekmask
[str or array_like of bool, optional] A seven-element array indicating which of Monday through Sunday are valid days. May be specified as a length-seven list or array, like [1,1,1,1,1,0,0]; a length-seven string, like ‘1111100’; or a string like “Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri”, made up of 3-character abbreviations for weekdays, optionally separated by white space. Valid abbreviations are: Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri Sat Sun

holidays
[array_like of datetime64[D], optional] An array of dates to consider as invalid dates. They may be specified in any order, and NaT (not-a-time) dates are ignored. This list is saved in a normalized form that is suited for fast calculations of valid days.

busdaycal
[busdaycalendar, optional] A busdaycalendar object which specifies the valid days. If this parameter is provided, neither weekmask nor holidays may be provided.

out
[array of int, optional] If provided, this array is filled with the result.

Returns

out
[array of int] An array with a shape from broadcasting begindates and enddates together, containing the number of valid days between the begin and end dates.

See also:

busdaycalendar
An object that specifies a custom set of valid days.

is_busday
Returns a boolean array indicating valid days.

busday_offset
Applies an offset counted in valid days.
Examples

```python
>>> # Number of weekdays in January 2011
... np.busday_count('2011-01', '2011-02')
21
>>> # Number of weekdays in 2011
>>> np.busday_count('2011', '2012')
260
>>> # Number of Saturdays in 2011
... np.busday_count('2011', '2012', weekmask='Sat')
53
```

4.7 Data type routines

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<td>Returns True if cast between data types can occur according to the casting rule.</td>
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<td><code>promote_types</code></td>
<td>Returns the data type with the smallest size and smallest scalar kind to which both <code>type1</code> and <code>type2</code> may be safely cast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>min_scalar_type</code></td>
<td>For scalar <code>a</code>, returns the data type with the smallest size and smallest scalar kind which can hold its value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>result_type</code></td>
<td>Returns the type that results from applying the NumPy type promotion rules to the arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>common_type</code></td>
<td>Return a scalar type which is common to the input arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>obj2sctype</code></td>
<td>Return the scalar dttype or NumPy equivalent of Python type of an object.</td>
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</table>

`numpy.can_cast (from_, to, casting='safe')`

Returns True if cast between data types can occur according to the casting rule. If from is a scalar or array scalar, also returns True if the scalar value can be cast without overflow or truncation to an integer.

**Parameters**

- **from_**
  [dtype, dtype specifier, scalar, or array] Data type, scalar, or array to cast from.

- **to**
  [dtype or dtype specifier] Data type to cast to.

- **casting**
  - ‘no’ means the data types should not be cast at all.
  - ‘equiv’ means only byte-order changes are allowed.
  - ‘safe’ means only casts which can preserve values are allowed.
  - ‘same_kind’ means only safe casts or casts within a kind, like float64 to float32, are allowed.
  - ‘unsafe’ means any data conversions may be done.
Returns

out

[bool] True if cast can occur according to the casting rule.

See also:

dtype, result_type

Notes

Changed in version 1.17.0: Casting between a simple data type and a structured one is possible only for “unsafe” casting. Casting to multiple fields is allowed, but casting from multiple fields is not.

Changed in version 1.9.0: Casting from numeric to string types in ‘safe’ casting mode requires that the string dtype length is long enough to store the maximum integer/float value converted.

Examples

Basic examples

```python
>>> np.can_cast(np.int32, np.int64)
True
>>> np.can_cast(np.float64, complex)
True
>>> np.can_cast(complex, float)
False
```

```python
>>> np.can_cast('i8', 'f8')
True
>>> np.can_cast('i8', 'f4')
False
>>> np.can_cast('i4', 'S4')
False
```

Casting scalars

```python
>>> np.can_cast(100, 'i1')
True
>>> np.can_cast(150, 'i1')
False
>>> np.can_cast(150, 'u1')
True
```

```python
>>> np.can_cast(3.5e100, np.float32)
False
>>> np.can_cast(1000.0, np.float32)
True
```

Array scalar checks the value, array does not
>>> np.can_cast(np.array(1000.0), np.float32)
True
>>> np.can_cast(np.array([1000.0]), np.float32)
False

Using the casting rules

>>> np.can_cast('i8', 'i8', 'no')
True
>>> np.can_cast('i8', '>i8', 'no')
False

>>> np.can_cast('i8', '>i8', 'equiv')
True
>>> np.can_cast('i8', '>i8', 'equiv')
False

>>> np.can_cast('i8', '>i8', 'safe')
True
>>> np.can_cast('i8', '>i4', 'safe')
False

>>> np.can_cast('i8', '>i4', 'same_kind')
True
>>> np.can_cast('i8', '>u4', 'same_kind')
False

>>> np.can_cast('i8', '>u4', 'unsafe')
True

numpy.promote_types(type1, type2)

Returns the data type with the smallest size and smallest scalar kind to which both type1 and type2 may be safely cast. The returned data type is always in native byte order.

This function is symmetric, but rarely associative.

**Parameters**

- **type1**
  - [dtype or dtype specifier] First data type.

- **type2**
  - [dtype or dtype specifier] Second data type.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [dtype] The promoted data type.

**See also:**

- `result_type`, `dtype`, `can_cast`
Notes

New in version 1.6.0.

Starting in NumPy 1.9, promote_types function now returns a valid string length when given an integer or float dtype as one argument and a string dtype as another argument. Previously it always returned the input string dtype, even if it wasn’t long enough to store the max integer/float value converted to a string.

Examples

```python
>>> np.promote_types('f4', 'f8')
dtype('float64')
```

```python
>>> np.promote_types('i8', 'f4')
dtype('float64')
```

```python
>>> np.promote_types('>i8', '<c8')
dtype('complex128')
```

```python
>>> np.promote_types('i4', 'S8')
dtype('S11')
```

An example of a non-associative case:

```python
>>> p = np.promote_types
>>> p('S', p('i1', 'u1'))
dtype('S6')
```

```python
>>> p(p('S', 'i1'), 'u1')
dtype('S4')
```

numpy.min_scalar_type(a)

For scalar a, returns the data type with the smallest size and smallest scalar kind which can hold its value. For non-scalar array a, returns the vector's dtype unmodified.

Floating point values are not demoted to integers, and complex values are not demoted to floats.

Parameters

- a

  [scalar or array_like] The value whose minimal data type is to be found.

Returns

- out

  [dtype] The minimal data type.

See also:

- result_type, promote_types, dtype, can_cast
Notes

New in version 1.6.0.

Examples

```python
>>> np.min_scalar_type(10)
<type 'numpy.uint8'>

>>> np.min_scalar_type(-260)
<type 'numpy.int16'>

>>> np.min_scalar_type(3.1)
<type 'numpy.float16'>

>>> np.min_scalar_type(1e50)
<type 'numpy.float64'>

>>> np.min_scalar_type(np.arange(4,dtype='f8'))
<type 'numpy.float64'>
```

code

numpy.result_type(*arrays_and_dtypes)

Returns the type that results from applying the NumPy type promotion rules to the arguments.

Type promotion in NumPy works similarly to the rules in languages like C++, with some slight differences. When both scalars and arrays are used, the array’s type takes precedence and the actual value of the scalar is taken into account.

For example, calculating 3*a, where a is an array of 32-bit floats, intuitively should result in a 32-bit float output. If the 3 is a 32-bit integer, the NumPy rules indicate it can’t convert losslessly into a 32-bit float, so a 64-bit float should be the result type. By examining the value of the constant, ‘3’, we see that it fits in an 8-bit integer, which can be cast losslessly into the 32-bit float.

Parameters

arrays_and_dtypes

[list of arrays and dtypes] The operands of some operation whose result type is needed.

Returns

out

[dtype] The result type.

See also:

dtype, promote_types, min_scalar_type, can_cast
Notes

New in version 1.6.0.

The specific algorithm used is as follows.

Categories are determined by first checking which of boolean, integer (int/uint), or floating point (float/complex) the maximum kind of all the arrays and the scalars are.

If there are only scalars or the maximum category of the scalars is higher than the maximum category of the arrays, the data types are combined with `promote_types` to produce the return value.

Otherwise, `min_scalar_type` is called on each array, and the resulting data types are all combined with `promote_types` to produce the return value.

The set of int values is not a subset of the uint values for types with the same number of bits, something not reflected in `min_scalar_type`, but handled as a special case in `result_type`.

Examples

```python
>>> np.result_type(3, np.arange(7, dtype='i1'))
dtype('int8')

>>> np.result_type('i4', 'c8')
dtype('complex128')

>>> np.result_type(3.0, -2)
dtype('float64')
```

NumPy's `common_type(*arrays)`

Return a scalar type which is common to the input arrays.

The return type will always be an inexact (i.e. floating point) scalar type, even if all the arrays are integer arrays. If one of the inputs is an integer array, the minimum precision type that is returned is a 64-bit floating point `dtype`.

All input arrays except int64 and uint64 can be safely cast to the returned `dtype` without loss of information.

Parameters

- `array1, array2, ...`
  - [ndarrays] Input arrays.

Returns

- `out`
  - [data type code] Data type code.

See also:

- `dtype`, `mintypecode`
Examples

```python
>>> np.common_type(np.arange(2, dtype=np.float32))
<class 'numpy.float32'>
```

```python
>>> np.common_type(np.arange(2, dtype=np.float32), np.arange(2))
<class 'numpy.float64'>
```

```python
>>> np.common_type(np.arange(4), np.array([45, 6.j]), np.array([45.0]))
<class 'numpy.complex128'>
```

`numpy.obj2sctype(rep, default=None)`

Return the scalar dtype or NumPy equivalent of Python type of an object.

**Parameters**

- `rep`
  - [any] The object of which the type is returned.
- `default`
  - [any, optional] If given, this is returned for objects whose types cannot be determined. If not given, None is returned for those objects.

**Returns**

- `dtype`
  - [dtype or Python type] The data type of `rep`.

**See also:**

`sctype2char, issctype, issubsctype, issubdtype, maximum_sctype`

Examples

```python
>>> np.obj2sctype(np.int32)
<class 'numpy.int32'>
```

```python
>>> np.obj2sctype(np.array([1., 2.]))
<class 'numpy.float64'>
```

```python
>>> np.obj2sctype(np.array([1.j]))
<class 'numpy.complex128'>
```

```python
>>> np.obj2sctype(dict)
<class 'numpy.object_'>
```

```python
>>> np.obj2sctype('string')
```

```python
>>> np.obj2sctype(1, default=list)
<class 'list'>
```
4.7.1 Creating data types

**`dtype`**

### Attributes

**format_parser**(formats, names, titles[, …])

Class to convert formats, names, titles description to a `dtype`.

```python
class numpy.format_parser(formats, names, titles, aligned=False, byteorder=None):
    Class to convert formats, names, titles description to a dtype.

After constructing the format_parser object, the `dtype` attribute is the converted data-type: `dtype = format_parser(formats, names, titles).dtype`
```

**Parameters**

- **formats**
  - [str or list of str] The format description, either specified as a string with comma-separated format descriptions in the form 'f8, i4, a5', or a list of format description strings in the form ['f8', 'i4', 'a5'].

- **names**
  - [str or list/tuple of str] The field names, either specified as a comma-separated string in the form 'col1, col2, col3', or as a list or tuple of strings in the form ['col1', 'col2', 'col3']. An empty list can be used, in that case default field names ('f0', 'f1', ...) are used.

- **titles**
  - [sequence] Sequence of title strings. An empty list can be used to leave titles out.

- **aligned**
  - [bool, optional] If True, align the fields by padding as the C-compiler would. Default is False.

- **byteorder**
  - [str, optional] If specified, all the fields will be changed to the provided byte-order. Otherwise, the default byte-order is used. For all available string specifiers, see `dtype.newbyteorder`.

**See also:**

- `dtype`, `typename`, `sctype2char`

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.format_parser(['<f8', '<i4', '<a5'], ['col1', 'col2', 'col3'],
...                   ['T1', 'T2', 'T3']).dtype
dtype(((('T1', 'col1'), '<f8'), (('T2', 'col2'), '<i4'), (('T3', 'col3'), 'S5')))```

*names and/or titles can be empty lists. If *titles* is an empty list, titles will simply not appear. If *names* is empty, default field names will be used.*
```python
>>> np.format_parser([('f8', 'i4', 'a5'), ['col1', 'col2', 'col3'], ...
                      []], ['col1', 'f8'), ('col2', 'i4'), ('col3', '<S5')])
>>> np.format_parser([['<f8', '<i4', '<a5'], [], []], ['<f0', '<f8'), ('f1', '<i4'), ('f2', '<S5')])
```

**Attributes**

- **dtype**
  
  [dtype] The converted data-type.

### 4.7.2 Data type information

<table>
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<td>Machine limits for floating point types.</td>
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**class `numpy.finfo(dtype)`**

Machine limits for floating point types.

**Parameters**

- **dtype**
  
  [float, dtype, or instance] Kind of floating point data-type about which to get information.

**See also:**

- `MachAr`  
  The implementation of the tests that produce this information.

- `iinfo`  
  The equivalent for integer data types.

- `spacing`  
  The distance between a value and the nearest adjacent number

- `nextafter`  
  The next floating point value after x1 towards x2

**Notes**

For developers of NumPy: do not instantiate this at the module level. The initial calculation of these parameters is expensive and negatively impacts import times. These objects are cached, so calling `finfo()` repeatedly inside your functions is not a problem.

Note that `tiny` is not actually the smallest positive representable value in a NumPy floating point type. As in the IEEE-754 standard [1], NumPy floating point types make use of subnormal numbers to fill the gap between 0 and `tiny`. However, subnormal numbers may have significantly reduced precision [2].
References

[1], [2]

Attributes

bits

[int] The number of bits occupied by the type.

eps

[float] The difference between 1.0 and the next smallest representable float larger than 1.0. For example, for 64-bit binary floats in the IEEE-754 standard, \( \varepsilon = 2^{-52} \), approximately 2.22e-16.

epsneg

[float] The difference between 1.0 and the next smallest representable float less than 1.0. For example, for 64-bit binary floats in the IEEE-754 standard, \( \varepsilon_{\text{neg}} = 2^{-53} \), approximately 1.11e-16.

iexp

[int] The number of bits in the exponent portion of the floating point representation.

machar

[MachAr] The object which calculated these parameters and holds more detailed information.

machep

[int] The exponent that yields \( \varepsilon \).

max

[floating point number of the appropriate type] The largest representable number.

maxexp

[int] The smallest positive power of the base (2) that causes overflow.

min

[floating point number of the appropriate type] The smallest representable number, typically \(-\max\).

minexp

[int] The most negative power of the base (2) consistent with there being no leading 0's in the mantissa.

negep

[int] The exponent that yields \( \varepsilon_{\text{neg}} \).

nexp

[int] The number of bits in the exponent including its sign and bias.

nmant

[int] The number of bits in the mantissa.

precision

[int] The approximate number of decimal digits to which this kind of float is precise.
resolution

[floating point number of the appropriate type] The approximate decimal resolution of this type, i.e., \(10^{-\text{precision}}\).

tiny

[Float] The smallest positive floating point number with full precision (see Notes).

class numpy.iinfo(type)

Machine limits for integer types.

Parameters

int_type

[integer type, dtype, or instance] The kind of integer data type to get information about.

See also:

finfo

The equivalent for floating point data types.

Examples

With types:

```python
>>> ii16 = np.iinfo(np.int16)
>>> ii16.min
-32768
>>> ii16.max
32767
>>> ii32 = np.iinfo(np.int32)
>>> ii32.min
-2147483648
>>> ii32.max
2147483647
```

With instances:

```python
>>> ii32 = np.iinfo(np.int32(10))
>>> ii32.min
-2147483648
>>> ii32.max
2147483647
```

Attributes

bits

[int] The number of bits occupied by the type.

min


max

[int] Maximum value of given dtype.
class numpy.MachAr(float_conv=<class 'float'>, int_conv=<class 'int'>, float_to_float=<class 'float'>, float_to_str=<function MachAr.<lambda>>, title='Python floating point number')

Diagnosing machine parameters.

Parameters

float_conv

[function, optional] Function that converts an integer or integer array to a float or float array. Default is float.

int_conv

[function, optional] Function that converts a float or float array to an integer or integer array. Default is int.

float_to_float

[function, optional] Function that converts a float array to float. Default is float. Note that this does not seem to do anything useful in the current implementation.

float_to_str

[function, optional] Function that converts a single float to a string. Default is lambda v:'%24.16e' %v.

title

[str, optional] Title that is printed in the string representation of MachAr.

See also:

finfo

Machine limits for floating point types.

iinfo

Machine limits for integer types.

References

[1]

Attributes

ibeta

[int] Radix in which numbers are represented.

it

[int] Number of base-ibeta digits in the floating point mantissa M.

machep

[int] Exponent of the smallest (most negative) power of ibeta that, added to 1.0, gives something different from 1.0

eps

[float] Floating-point number beta**machep (floating point precision)
negep

[int] Exponent of the smallest power of $ibeta$ that, subtracted from 1.0, gives something different from 1.0.

epsneg

[float] Floating-point number $beta^{negep}$.

iexp

[int] Number of bits in the exponent (including its sign and bias).

minexp

[int] Smallest (most negative) power of $ibeta$ consistent with there being no leading zeros in the mantissa.

xmin

[float] Floating-point number $beta^{minexp}$ (the smallest [in magnitude] positive floating point number with full precision).

maxexp

[int] Smallest (positive) power of $ibeta$ that causes overflow.

xmax

[float] $(1-epsneg) \times beta^{maxexp}$ (the largest [in magnitude] usable floating value).

irnd

[int] In range(6), information on what kind of rounding is done in addition, and on how underflow is handled.

ngrd

[int] Number of ‘guard digits’ used when truncating the product of two mantissas to fit the representation.

epsilon

[float] Same as $eps$.

tiny

[float] Same as $xmin$.

huge

[float] Same as $xmax$.

precision

[float] $- \text{int}(-\log10(eps))$

resolution

[float] $10^{-(\text{precision})}$
4.7.3 Data type testing

<table>
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<th>Function</th>
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<td><code>issctype(rep)</code></td>
<td>Determines whether the given object represents a scalar data-type.</td>
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<td><code>issubdtype(arg1, arg2)</code></td>
<td>Returns True if first argument is a typecode lower/equal in type hierarchy.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>issubsctype(arg1, arg2)</code></td>
<td>Determine if the first argument is a subclass of the second argument.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>issubclass_(arg1, arg2)</code></td>
<td>Determine if a class is a subclass of a second class.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>find_common_type(array_types, scalar_types)</code></td>
<td>Determine common type following standard coercion rules.</td>
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**numpy.issctype(rep)**

Determines whether the given object represents a scalar data-type.

Parameters

rep

[any] If `rep` is an instance of a scalar dtype, True is returned. If not, False is returned.

Returns

out

[bool] Boolean result of check whether `rep` is a scalar dtype.

See also:

`issubsctype`, `issubdtype`, `obj2sctype`, `sctype2char`

Examples

```python
>>> np.issctype(np.int32)
True
>>> np.issctype(list)
False
>>> np.issctype(1.1)
False
```

Strings are also a scalar type:

```python
>>> np.issctype(np.dtype('str'))
True
```

**numpy.issubdtype(arg1, arg2)**

Returns True if first argument is a typecode lower/equal in type hierarchy.

This is like the builtin `issubclass`, but for dtypes.

Parameters

arg1, arg2

[dtype_like] `dtype` or object coercible to one
Returns

out

[bool]

See also:

*Scalars*

Overview of the numpy type hierarchy.

`issubsctype, issubclass_`

Examples

`issubdtype` can be used to check the type of arrays:

```python
>>> ints = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.int32)
>>> np.issubdtype(ints.dtype, np.integer)
True
>>> np.issubdtype(ints.dtype, np.floating)
False
```

```python
>>> floats = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.float32)
>>> np.issubdtype(floats.dtype, np.integer)
False
>>> np.issubdtype(floats.dtype, np.floating)
True
```

Similar types of different sizes are not subtypes of each other:

```python
>>> np.issubdtype(np.float64, np.float32)
False
>>> np.issubdtype(np.float32, np.float64)
False
```

but both are subtypes of `floating`:

```python
>>> np.issubdtype(np.float64, np.floating)
True
>>> np.issubdtype(np.float32, np.floating)
True
```

For convenience, dtype-like objects are allowed too:

```python
>>> np.issubdtype('S1', np.string_)
True
>>> np.issubdtype('i4', np.signedinteger)
True
```

`numpy.issubsctype(arg1, arg2)`

Determine if the first argument is a subclass of the second argument.

Parameters
arg1, arg2
[dtype or dtype specifier] Data-types.

Returns
out
[bool] The result.

See also:

issctype, issubdtype, obj2sctype

Examples

```python
>>> np.issubdtype('S8', str)
False
>>> np.issubdtype(np.array([1]), int)
True
>>> np.issubdtype(np.array([1]), float)
False
```

numpy.issubclass_(arg1, arg2)
Determine if a class is a subclass of a second class.

issubclass_ is equivalent to the Python built-in issubclass, except that it returns False instead of raising a TypeError if one of the arguments is not a class.

Parameters

arg1
[class] Input class. True is returned if arg1 is a subclass of arg2.

arg2
[class or tuple of classes.] Input class. If a tuple of classes, True is returned if arg1 is a subclass of any of the tuple elements.

Returns

out
[bool] Whether arg1 is a subclass of arg2 or not.

See also:

issubsctype, issubdtype, issctype

4.7. Data type routines
Examples

```python
>>> np.issubclass_(np.int32, int)
False
>>> np.issubclass_(np.int32, float)
False
>>> np.issubclass_(np.float64, float)
True
```

**numpy.find_common_type** *(array_types, scalar_types)*

Determine common type following standard coercion rules.

**Parameters**

- **array_types**
  - [sequence] A list of dtypes or dtype convertible objects representing arrays.

- **scalar_types**
  - [sequence] A list of dtypes or dtype convertible objects representing scalars.

**Returns**

- **datatype**
  - [dtype] The common data type, which is the maximum of array_types ignoring scalar_types, unless the maximum of scalar_types is of a different kind (dtype.kind). If the kind is not understood, then None is returned.

**See also:**

- `dtype`, `common_type`, `can_cast`, `mintypename`

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.find_common_type([], [np.int64, np.float32, complex])
dtype('complex128')
>>> np.find_common_type([np.int64, np.float32], [])
dtype('float64')
```

The standard casting rules ensure that a scalar cannot up-cast an array unless the scalar is of a fundamentally different kind of data (i.e. under a different hierarchy in the data type hierarchy) then the array:

```python
>>> np.find_common_type([np.float32], [np.int64, np.float64])
dtype('float32')
```

Complex is of a different type, so it up-casts the float in the array_types argument:

```python
>>> np.find_common_type([np.float32], [complex])
dtype('complex128')
```

Type specifier strings are convertible to dtypes and can therefore be used instead of dtypes:

```python
>>> np.find_common_type(['f4', 'f4', 'i4'], ['c8'])
dtype('complex128')
```
4.7.4 Miscellaneous

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Function</th>
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<td><code>typename(char)</code></td>
<td>Return a description for the given data type code.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>sctype2char(sctype)</code></td>
<td>Return the string representation of a scalar dtype.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>mintypecode(typechars[, typeset, default])</code></td>
<td>Return the character for the minimum-size type to which given types can be safely cast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>maximum_sctype(t)</code></td>
<td>Return the scalar type of highest precision of the same kind as the input.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
typename(char)
    Return a description for the given data type code.

Parameters

char
    [str] Data type code.

Returns

out
    [str] Description of the input data type code.

See also:

dtype, typecodes
```

Examples

```python
>>> typechars = ['S', 'B', 'D', 'G', 'F', 'I', 'H', 'L', 'O', 'Q', 'S', 'U', 'V', 'b', 'd', 'g', 'f', 'i', 'h', 'l', 'q']
>>> for typechar in typechars:
...     print(typechar, ':', np.typename(typechar))
...    S1 : character
    ? : bool
    B : unsigned char
    D : complex double precision
    G : complex long double precision
    F : complex single precision
    I : unsigned integer
    H : unsigned short
    L : unsigned long integer
    O : object
    Q : unsigned long long integer
    S : string
    U : unicode
    V : void
    b : signed char
    d : double precision
    g : long precision
    f : single precision
    i : integer
```

(continues on next page)
numpy.sctype2char(sctype)

Return the string representation of a scalar dtype.

Parameters

sctype
[scalar dtype or object] If a scalar dtype, the corresponding string character is returned. If an object, sctype2char tries to infer its scalar type and then return the corresponding string character.

Returns

typechar
[str] The string character corresponding to the scalar type.

Raises

ValueError
If sctype is an object for which the type cannot be inferred.

See also:

obj2sctype, issctype, issubsctype, mintypecode

Examples

```python
>>> for sctype in [np.int32, np.double, np.complex_, np.string_, np.ndarray]:
...     print(np.sctype2char(sctype))
l # may vary
d
D
S
O
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([1., 2-1.j])
>>> np.sctype2char(x)
'D'
>>> np.sctype2char(list)
'O'
```

numpy.mintypecode(typechars, typeset='GDFgdf', default='d')

Return the character for the minimum-size type to which given types can be safely cast.

The returned type character must represent the smallest size dtype such that an array of the returned type can handle the data from an array of all types in typechars (or if typechars is an array, then its dtype.char).

Parameters
typechars
[ list of str or array_like ] If a list of strings, each string should represent a dtype. If array_like, the character representation of the array dtype is used.

typeset
[ str or list of str, optional ] The set of characters that the returned character is chosen from. The default set is 'GDFgdf'.

default
[ str, optional ] The default character, this is returned if none of the characters in typechars matches a character in typeset.

Returns

typechar
[ str ] The character representing the minimum-size type that was found.

See also:
dtype, sctype2char, maximum_sctype

Examples

```python
>>> np.mintypecode(['d', 'f', 'S'])
'd'
>>> x = np.array([1.1, 2-3.j])
>>> np.mintypecode(x)
'D'
>>> np.mintypecode('abceh', default='G')
'G'
```

numpy.maximum_sctype (t)
Return the scalar type of highest precision of the same kind as the input.

Parameters

t
[ dtype or dtype specifier ] The input data type. This can be a dtype object or an object that is convertible to a dtype.

Returns

out
[ dtype ] The highest precision data type of the same kind (dtype.kind) as t.

See also:
obj2sctype, mintypecode, sctype2char
dtype
Examples

```python
>>> np.maximum_sctype(int)
<class 'numpy.int64'>
>>> np.maximum_sctype(np.uint8)
<class 'numpy.uint64'>
>>> np.maximum_sctype(complex)
<class 'numpy.complex128'> # may vary

>>> np.maximum_sctype(str)
<class 'numpy.str_'>
>>> np.maximum_sctype('i2')
<class 'numpy.int64'>
>>> np.maximum_sctype('f4')
<class 'numpy.float128'> # may vary
```

4.8 Optionally SciPy-accelerated routines (numpy.dual)

Deprecated since version 1.20.

This module is deprecated. Instead of importing functions from numpy.dual, the functions should be imported directly from NumPy or SciPy.

Aliases for functions which may be accelerated by SciPy.

SciPy can be built to use accelerated or otherwise improved libraries for FFTs, linear algebra, and special functions. This module allows developers to transparently support these accelerated functions when SciPy is available but still support users who have only installed NumPy.

4.8.1 Linear algebra

- `cholesky(a)`  
  Cholesky decomposition.
- `det(a)`  
  Compute the determinant of an array.
- `eig(a)`  
  Compute the eigenvalues and right eigenvectors of a square array.
- `eigh(a[, UPLO])`  
  Return the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a complex Hermitian (conjugate symmetric) or a real symmetric matrix.
- `eigvals(a)`  
  Compute the eigenvalues of a general matrix.
- `eigvalsh(a[, UPLO])`  
  Compute the eigenvalues of a complex Hermitian or real symmetric matrix.
- `inv(a)`  
  Compute the (multiplicative) inverse of a matrix.
- `lstsq(a, b[, rcond])`  
  Return the least-squares solution to a linear matrix equation.
- `norm(x[, ord, axis, keepdims])`  
  Matrix or vector norm.
- `pinv(a[, rcond, hermitian])`  
  Compute the (Moore-Penrose) pseudo-inverse of a matrix.
- `solve(a, b)`  
  Solve a linear matrix equation, or system of linear scalar equations.
Table 33 – continued from previous page

\[ \text{svd}(a[, \text{full_matrices}, \text{compute_uv}, \text{hermitian}]) \] Singular Value Decomposition.

4.8.2 FFT

\[ \text{fft}(a[, n, \text{axis}, \text{norm}]) \] Compute the one-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform.
\[ \text{fft2}(a[, s, \text{axes}, \text{norm}]) \] Compute the 2-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform.
\[ \text{fftn}(a[, s, \text{axes}, \text{norm}]) \] Compute the N-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform.
\[ \text{ifft}(a[, n, \text{axis}, \text{norm}]) \] Compute the one-dimensional inverse discrete Fourier Transform.
\[ \text{ifft2}(a[, s, \text{axes}, \text{norm}]) \] Compute the 2-dimensional inverse discrete Fourier Transform.
\[ \text{ifftn}(a[, s, \text{axes}, \text{norm}]) \] Compute the N-dimensional inverse discrete Fourier Transform.

4.8.3 Other

\[ i0(x) \] Modified Bessel function of the first kind, order 0.

4.9 Mathematical functions with automatic domain (\texttt{numpy.emath})

**Note:** \texttt{numpy.emath} is a preferred alias for \texttt{numpy.lib.scimath}, available after \texttt{numpy} is imported.

Wrapper functions to more user-friendly calling of certain math functions whose output data-type is different than the input data-type in certain domains of the input.

For example, for functions like \texttt{log} with branch cuts, the versions in this module provide the mathematically valid answers in the complex plane:

```python
>>> import math
>>> from numpy.lib import scimath
>>> scimath.log(-math.exp(1)) == (1+1j*math.pi)
True
```

Similarly, \texttt{sqrt}, other base logarithms, \texttt{power} and trig functions are correctly handled. See their respective docstrings for specific examples.
4.9.1 Functions

- `sqrt(x)`: Compute the square root of x.
- `log(x)`: Compute the natural logarithm of x.
- `log2(x)`: Compute the logarithm base 2 of x.
- `logn(n,x)`: Take log base n of x.
- `log10(x)`: Compute the logarithm base 10 of x.
- `power(x,p)`: Return x to the power p, (x**p).
- `arccos(x)`: Compute the inverse cosine of x.
- `arcsin(x)`: Compute the inverse sine of x.
- `arctanh(x)`: Compute the inverse hyperbolic tangent of x.

**lib.scimath.sqrt(x)**

Compute the square root of x.

For negative input elements, a complex value is returned (unlike `numpy.sqrt` which returns NaN).

**Parameters**

- **x**
  
  [array_like] The input value(s).

**Returns**

- **out**
  
  [ndarray or scalar] The square root of x. If x was a scalar, so is out, otherwise an array is returned.

**See also:**

- `numpy.sqrt`

**Examples**

For real, non-negative inputs this works just like `numpy.sqrt`:

```python
>>> np.lib.scimath.sqrt(1)
1.0
>>> np.lib.scimath.sqrt([1, 4])
array([1., 2.])
```

But it automatically handles negative inputs:

```python
>>> np.lib.scimath.sqrt(-1)
1j
>>> np.lib.scimath.sqrt([-1,4])
array([0.+1.j, 2.+0.j])
```

**lib.scimath.log(x)**

Compute the natural logarithm of x.

Return the "principal value" (for a description of this, see `numpy.log`) of \( \log_e(x) \). For real \( x > 0 \), this is a real number (\( \log(0) \) returns -\( \infty \) and \( \log(np.inf) \) returns \( \infty \)). Otherwise, the complex principle value is returned.
Parameters

\( x \)  
[array_like] The value(s) whose log is (are) required.

Returns

\( out \)  
[ndarray or scalar] The log of the \( x \) value(s). If \( x \) was a scalar, so is \( out \), otherwise an array is returned.

See also:

numpy.log

Notes

For a \( \log() \) that returns NaN when real \( x < 0 \), use \( \text{numpy.log} \) (note, however, that otherwise \( \text{numpy.log} \) and this \( \log \) are identical, i.e., both return \(-\inf\) for \( x = 0 \), \( \inf \) for \( x = \inf \), and, notably, the complex principle value if \( x.\text{imag} \neq 0 \)).

Examples

```python
>>> np.emath.log(np.exp(1))
1.0
```

Negative arguments are handled "correctly" (recall that \( \exp(\log(x)) = x \) does not hold for real \( x < 0 \)):

```python
>>> np.emath.log(-np.exp(1)) == (1 + np.pi * 1j)
True
```

lib.scimath.log2(\( x \))  
Compute the logarithm base 2 of \( x \).

Return the "principal value" (for a description of this, see \( \text{numpy.log2} \) of \( \log_2(x) \)). For real \( x > 0 \), this is a real number (\( \log_2(0) \) returns \(-\inf\) and \( \log_2(\inf) \) returns \( \inf \)). Otherwise, the complex principle value is returned.

Parameters

\( x \)  
[array_like] The value(s) whose log base 2 is (are) required.

Returns

\( out \)  
[ndarray or scalar] The log base 2 of the \( x \) value(s). If \( x \) was a scalar, so is \( out \), otherwise an array is returned.

See also:

numpy.log2

4.9. Mathematical functions with automatic domain (numpy.emath)
Notes

For a log2() that returns NaN when real \( x < 0 \), use \texttt{numpy.log2} (note, however, that otherwise \texttt{numpy.log2} and this \texttt{log2} are identical, i.e., both return \(-\infty\) for \( x = 0 \), \( \infty \) for \( x = \infty \), and, notably, the complex principle value if \( x.\text{imag} \neq 0 \)).

Examples

We set the printing precision so the example can be auto-tested:

```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(precision=4)
```

```python
>>> np.emath.log2(8)
3.0
>>> np.emath.log2([-4, -8, 8])
array([2.+4.5324j, 3.+4.5324j, 3.+0.j])
```

\texttt{lib.scimath.logn}(n, x)

Take log base \( n \) of \( x \).

If \( x \) contains negative inputs, the answer is computed and returned in the complex domain.

Parameters

\( n \)

[array_like] The integer base(s) in which the log is taken.

\( x \)

[array_like] The value(s) whose log base \( n \) is (are) required.

Returns

\( out \)

[ndarray or scalar] The log base \( n \) of the \( x \) value(s). If \( x \) was a scalar, so is \( out \), otherwise an array is returned.

Examples

```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(precision=4)
```

```python
>>> np.lib.scimath.logn(2, [4, 8])
array([2., 3.])
>>> np.lib.scimath.logn(2, [-4, -8, 8])
array([2.+4.5324j, 3.+4.5324j, 3.+0.j])
```

\texttt{lib.scimath.log10}(x)

Compute the logarithm base 10 of \( x \).

Return the “principal value” (for a description of this, see \texttt{numpy.log10}) of \( \log_{10}(x) \). For real \( x > 0 \), this is a real number (\( \log_{10}(0) \) returns \(-\infty\) and \( \log_{10}(\text{np.inf}) \) returns \( \text{inf} \)). Otherwise, the complex principle value is returned.

Parameters
x

[array_like or scalar] The value(s) whose log base 10 is (are) required.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] The log base 10 of the x value(s). If x was a scalar, so is out, otherwise an array object is returned.

See also:

numpy.log10

Notes

For a log10() that returns NAN when real x < 0, use numpy.log10 (note, however, that otherwise numpy.log10 and this log10 are identical, i.e., both return -inf for x = 0, inf for x = inf, and, notably, the complex principle value if x.imag != 0).

Examples

(We set the printing precision so the example can be auto-tested)

```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(precision=4)

>>> np.emath.log10(10**1)
1.0

>>> np.emath.log10([-10**1, -10**2, 10**2])
array([1.+1.3644j, 2.+1.3644j, 2.+0.j])
```

lib.scimath.power(x, p)

Return x to the power p, (x**p).

If x contains negative values, the output is converted to the complex domain.

Parameters

x

[array_like] The input value(s).

p

[array_like of ints] The power(s) to which x is raised. If x contains multiple values, p has to either be a scalar, or contain the same number of values as x. In the latter case, the result is x[0]**p[0], x[1]**p[1], ....

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] The result of x**p. If x and p are scalars, so is out, otherwise an array is returned.
See also:

`numpy.power`

Examples

```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(precision=4)

>>> np.lib.scimath.power([2, 4], 2)
array([ 4, 16])
>>> np.lib.scimath.power([2, 4], -2)
array([0.25 , 0.0625])
>>> np.lib.scimath.power([-2, 4], 2)
array([ 4.-0.j, 16.+0.j])
```

`lib.scimath.arccos(x)`

Compute the inverse cosine of `x`.

Return the “principal value” (for a description of this, see `numpy.arccos`) of the inverse cosine of `x`. For real `x` such that `abs(x) <= 1`, this is a real number in the closed interval `[0, π]`. Otherwise, the complex principle value is returned.

Parameters

- `x`  
  [array_like or scalar] The value(s) whose arccos is (are) required.

Returns

- `out`  
  [ndarray or scalar] The inverse cosine(s) of the `x` value(s). If `x` was a scalar, so is `out`, otherwise an array object is returned.

See also:

`numpy.arccos`

Notes

For an arccos() that returns `NAN` when real `x` is not in the interval `[-1, 1]`, use `numpy.arccos`.

Examples

```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(precision=4)

>>> np.emath.arccos(1)  # a scalar is returned
0.0

>>> np.emath.arccos([1,2])
array([0.-0.j , 0.-1.317j])
```
lib.scimath.arcsin(x)
Compute the inverse sine of x.

Return the “principal value” (for a description of this, see numpy.arcsin) of the inverse sine of x. For real x such that abs(x) <= 1, this is a real number in the closed interval [-π/2, π/2]. Otherwise, the complex principle value is returned.

Parameters

x
[array_like or scalar] The value(s) whose arcsin is (are) required.

Returns

out
[ndarray or scalar] The inverse sine(s) of the x value(s). If x was a scalar, so is out, otherwise an array object is returned.

See also:

numpy.arcsin

Notes

For an arcsin() that returns NAN when real x is not in the interval [-1, 1], use numpy.arcsin.

Examples

```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(precision=4)

>>> np.emath.arcsin(0)
0.0

>>> np.emath.arcsin([0,1])
array([0. , 1.5708])
```

lib.scimath.arctanh(x)
Compute the inverse hyperbolic tangent of x.

Return the “principal value” (for a description of this, see numpy.arctanh) of arctanh(x). For real x such that abs(x) < 1, this is a real number. If abs(x) > 1, or if x is complex, the result is complex. Finally, x = 1 returns “inf” and x=-1 returns -inf.

Parameters

x
[array_like] The value(s) whose arctanh is (are) required.

Returns
out

[ndarray or scalar] The inverse hyperbolic tangent(s) of the x value(s). If x was a scalar so is out, otherwise an array is returned.

See also:

numpy.arctanh

Notes

For an arctanh() that returns NaN when real x is not in the interval (-1, 1), use numpy.arctanh (this latter, however, does return +/-inf for x = +/-1).

Examples

```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(precision=4)

>>> from numpy.testing import suppress_warnings
>>> with suppress_warnings() as sup:
...     sup.filter(RuntimeWarning)
...     np.emath.arctanh(np.eye(2))
array([[inf, 0.],
       [ 0., inf]])
>>> np.emath.arctanh([lj])
array([0.+0.7854j])
```

4.10 Floating point error handling

4.10.1 Setting and getting error handling

```
seterr([all, divide, over, under, invalid]) Set how floating-point errors are handled.
geterr() Get the current way of handling floating-point errors.
seterrcall(func) Set the floating-point error callback function or log object.
geterrcall() Return the current callback function used on floating-point errors.
errstate(**kwargs) Context manager for floating-point error handling.
```

numpy.geterr ()

Get the current way of handling floating-point errors.

Returns

res

[dict] A dictionary with keys “divide”, “over”, “under”, and “invalid”, whose values are from the strings “ignore”, “print”, “log”, “warn”, “raise”, and “call”. The keys represent possible floating-point exceptions, and the values define how these exceptions are handled.

See also:
**geterrcall, seterr, seterrcall**

**Notes**

For complete documentation of the types of floating-point exceptions and treatment options, see `seterr`.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.geterr()
{'divide': 'warn', 'over': 'warn', 'under': 'ignore', 'invalid': 'warn'}
>>> np.arange(3.) / np.arange(3.)
array([nan, 1., 1.])
>>> oldsettings = np.seterr(all='warn', over='raise')
>>> np.geterr()
{'divide': 'warn', 'over': 'raise', 'under': 'warn', 'invalid': 'warn'}
>>> np.arange(3.) / np.arange(3.)
array([nan, 1., 1.])
```

`numpy.geterrcall()`

Return the current callback function used on floating-point errors.

- **Returns**
  - `errobj`

    [callable, log instance or None] The current error handler. If no handler was set through `seterrcall`, None is returned.

**See also:**

`seterrcall, seterr, geterr`

**Notes**

For complete documentation of the types of floating-point exceptions and treatment options, see `seterr`.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.geterrcall()  # we did not yet set a handler, returns None
>>> oldsettings = np.seterr(all='call')
>>> def err_handler(type, flag):
...     print("Floating point error (\$s), with flag \$s" % (type, flag))
>>> oldhandler = np.seterrcall(err_handler)
>>> np.array([1, 2, 3]) / 0.0
Floating point error (divide by zero), with flag 1
array([inf, inf, inf])
```
class numpy.errstate(**kwargs)

Context manager for floating-point error handling.

Using an instance of `errstate` as a context manager allows statements in that context to execute with a known error handling behavior. Upon entering the context the error handling is set with `seterr` and `seterrcall`, and upon exiting it is reset to what it was before.

Changed in version 1.17.0: `errstate` is also usable as a function decorator, saving a level of indentation if an entire function is wrapped. See `contextlib.ContextDecorator` for more information.

Parameters

kwargs

[[[divide, over, under, invalid]]] Keyword arguments. The valid keywords are the possible floating-point exceptions. Each keyword should have a string value that defines the treatment for the particular error. Possible values are {'ignore', 'warn', 'raise', 'call', 'print', 'log'}.

See also:

`seterr`, `geterr`, `seterrcall`, `geterrcall`

Notes

For complete documentation of the types of floating-point exceptions and treatment options, see `seterr`.

Examples

```python
>>> olderr = np.seterr(all='ignore')  # Set error handling to known state.

>>> np.arange(3) / 0.
array([nan, inf, inf])

>>> with np.errstate(divide='warn'):
...    np.arange(3) / 0.
array([nan, inf, inf])

>>> np.sqrt(-1)
nan

>>> with np.errstate(invalid='raise'):
...    np.sqrt(-1)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 2, in <module>
FloatingPointError: invalid value encountered in sqrt
```

Outside the context the error handling behavior has not changed:

```python
>>> np.geterr()
{'divide': 'ignore', 'over': 'ignore', 'under': 'ignore', 'invalid': 'ignore'}
```
Methods

__call__(func)  Call self as a function.

method

errstate.__call__(func)  Call self as a function.

4.10.2 Internal functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>geterrobj()</td>
<td>Return the current object that defines floating-point error handling.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**numpy.seterrobj(errobj)**

Set the object that defines floating-point error handling.

The error object contains all information that defines the error handling behavior in NumPy. *seterrobj* is used internally by the other functions that set error handling behavior (*seterr, seterrcall*).

**Parameters**

errobj

[list] The error object, a list containing three elements: [internal numpy buffer size, error mask, error callback function].

The error mask is a single integer that holds the treatment information on all four floating point errors. The information for each error type is contained in three bits of the integer. If we print it in base 8, we can see what treatment is set for “invalid”, “under”, “over”, and “divide” (in that order). The printed string can be interpreted with

- 0 : ‘ignore’
- 1 : ‘warn’
- 2 : ‘raise’
- 3 : ‘call’
- 4 : ‘print’
- 5 : ‘log’

**See also:**

*geterrobj, seterr, geterr, seterrcall, geterrcall, getbufsize, setbufsize*
Notes

For complete documentation of the types of floating-point exceptions and treatment options, see `seterr`.

Examples

```python
>>> old_errobj = np.geterrobj()  # first get the defaults
>>> old_errobj
[8192, 521, None]

>>> def err_handler(type, flag):
...     print("Floating point error \$s, with flag \$s" % (type, flag))
...
>>> new_errobj = [20000, 12, err_handler]
>>> np.seterrobj(new_errobj)
>>> np.base_repr(12, 8)  # int for divide=4 ('print') and over=1 ('warn')
'14'
>>> np.geterr()
{'over': 'warn', 'divide': 'print', 'invalid': 'ignore', 'under': 'ignore'}
>>> np.geterrcall() is err_handler
True
```

`numpy.geterrobj()`

Return the current object that defines floating-point error handling.

The error object contains all information that defines the error handling behavior in NumPy. `geterrobj` is used internally by the other functions that get and set error handling behavior (`geterr`, `seterr`, `geterrcall`, `seterrcall`).

Returns

`errobj`

[list] The error object, a list containing three elements: [internal numpy buffer size, error mask, error callback function].

The error mask is a single integer that holds the treatment information on all four floating point errors. The information for each error type is contained in three bits of the integer. If we print it in base 8, we can see what treatment is set for “invalid”, “under”, “over”, and “divide” (in that order). The printed string can be interpreted with

- 0: ‘ignore’
- 1: ‘warn’
- 2: ‘raise’
- 3: ‘call’
- 4: ‘print’
- 5: ‘log’

See also:

`seterrobj`, `seterr`, `geterr`, `geterrcall`, `seterrcall`

`getbufsize`, `setbufsize`
Notes

For complete documentation of the types of floating-point exceptions and treatment options, see `seterr`.

Examples

```python
>>> np.geterrobj()  # first get the defaults
[8192, 521, None]

>>> def err_handler(type, flag):
...     print("Floating point error (%s), with flag %s" % (type, flag))
...
>>> old_bufsize = np.setbufsize(20000)
>>> old_err = np.seterr(divide='raise')
>>> old_handler = np.seterrcall(err_handler)
>>> np.geterrobj()
[8192, 521, <function err_handler at 0x91dcaac>]

>>> old_err = np.seterr(all='ignore')
>>> np.base_repr(np.geterrobj()[1], 8)
'0'
>>> old_err = np.seterr(divide='warn', over='log', under='call',
     invalid='print')
>>> np.base_repr(np.geterrobj()[1], 8)
'4351'
```

4.11 Discrete Fourier Transform (numpy.fft)

The SciPy module `scipy.fft` is a more comprehensive superset of `numpy.fft`, which includes only a basic set of routines.

4.11.1 Standard FFTs

```plaintext
fft(a[, n, axis, norm])  Compute the one-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform.

ifft(a[, n, axis, norm])  Compute the one-dimensional inverse discrete Fourier Transform.

fft2(a[, s, axes, norm])  Compute the 2-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform.

ifft2(a[, s, axes, norm])  Compute the 2-dimensional inverse discrete Fourier Transform.

fftn(a[, s, axes, norm])  Compute the N-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform.

ifftn(a[, s, axes, norm])  Compute the N-dimensional inverse discrete Fourier Transform.
```

`fft` (a, n=None, axis=-1, norm=None)

- `fft` computes the one-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) with the efficient Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) algorithm [CT].
Parameters

\(a\)
[array_like] Input array, can be complex.

\(n\)
[int, optional] Length of the transformed axis of the output. If \(n\) is smaller than the length of the input, the input is cropped. If it is larger, the input is padded with zeros. If \(n\) is not given, the length of the input along the axis specified by \(axis\) is used.

\(axis\)
[int, optional] Axis over which to compute the FFT. If not given, the last axis is used.

\(norm\)
Normalization mode (see \texttt{numpy.fft}). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.

New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

Returns

\(out\)
[complex ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axis indicated by \(axis\), or the last one if \(axis\) is not specified.

Raises

\(\text{IndexError}\)
If \(axis\) is not a valid axis of \(a\).

See also:

\texttt{numpy.fft}
for definition of the DFT and conventions used.

\texttt{ifft}
The inverse of \texttt{fft}.

\texttt{fft2}
The two-dimensional FFT.

\texttt{fftn}
The \(n\)-dimensional FFT.

\texttt{rfftn}
The \(n\)-dimensional FFT of real input.

\texttt{fftfreq}
Frequency bins for given FFT parameters.
Notes

FFT (Fast Fourier Transform) refers to a way the discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) can be calculated efficiently, by using symmetries in the calculated terms. The symmetry is highest when \( n \) is a power of 2, and the transform is therefore most efficient for these sizes.

The DFT is defined, with the conventions used in this implementation, in the documentation for the `numpy.fft` module.

References

[CT]

Examples

```python
>>> np.fft.fft(np.exp(2j * np.pi * np.arange(8) / 8))
array([-2.33486982e-16+1.14423775e-17j, 8.00000000e+00-1.25557246e-15j,
       2.33486982e-16+2.33486982e-16j, 0.00000000e+00+1.22464680e-16j,
      -1.14423775e-17+2.33486982e-16j, 0.00000000e+00+5.20784380e-16j,
       1.14423775e-17+1.14423775e-17j, 0.00000000e+00+1.22464680e-16j])
```

In this example, real input has an FFT which is Hermitian, i.e., symmetric in the real part and anti-symmetric in the imaginary part, as described in the `numpy.fft` documentation:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> t = np.arange(256)
>>> sp = np.fft.fft(np.sin(t))
>>> freq = np.fft.fftfreq(t.shape[-1])
>>> plt.plot(freq, sp.real, freq, sp.imag)
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>, <matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.show()
```

`fft`  
Compute the one-dimensional inverse discrete Fourier Transform.
This function computes the inverse of the one-dimensional \( n \)-point discrete Fourier transform computed by \texttt{fft}. In other words, \texttt{ifft(fft(a)) == a} to within numerical accuracy. For a general description of the algorithm and definitions, see \texttt{numpy.fft}.

The input should be ordered in the same way as is returned by \texttt{fft}, i.e.,

- \( a[0] \) should contain the zero frequency term,
- \( a[1:n/2] \) should contain the positive-frequency terms,
- \( a[n/2 + 1:] \) should contain the negative-frequency terms, in increasing order starting from the most negative frequency.

For an even number of input points, \( a[n/2] \) represents the sum of the values at the positive and negative Nyquist frequencies, as the two are aliased together. See \texttt{numpy.fft} for details.

**Parameters**

- \( a \) [array_like] Input array, can be complex.
- \( n \) [int, optional] Length of the transformed axis of the output. If \( n \) is smaller than the length of the input, the input is cropped. If it is larger, the input is padded with zeros. If \( n \) is not given, the length of the input along the axis specified by \( axis \) is used. See notes about padding issues.
- \( axis \) [int, optional] Axis over which to compute the inverse DFT. If not given, the last axis is used.
- \( norm \) [{"backward", "ortho", "forward"}, optional] New in version 1.10.0. Normalization mode (see \texttt{numpy.fft}). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor. New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

**Returns**

- \( out \) [complex ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axis indicated by \( axis \), or the last one if \( axis \) is not specified.

**Raises**

- \texttt{IndexError} If \( axis \) is not a valid axis of \( a \).

**See also:**

- \texttt{numpy.fft} An introduction, with definitions and general explanations.
- \texttt{fft} The one-dimensional (forward) FFT, of which \texttt{ifft} is the inverse
**ifft2**

The two-dimensional inverse FFT.

**ifftn**

The n-dimensional inverse FFT.

**Notes**

If the input parameter \( n \) is larger than the size of the input, the input is padded by appending zeros at the end. Even though this is the common approach, it might lead to surprising results. If a different padding is desired, it must be performed before calling \( \text{ifft} \).

**Examples**

```python
g = np.array([0, 4, 0, 0])
g # may vary
```

Create and plot a band-limited signal with random phases:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> t = np.arange(400)
>>> n = np.zeros((400,), dtype=complex)
>>> n[40:60] = np.exp(1j*np.random.uniform(0, 2*np.pi, (20,)))
>>> s = np.fft.ifft(n)
>>> plt.plot(t, s.real, label='real')
<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>
>>> plt.plot(t, s.imag, '--', label='imaginary')
<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>
>>> plt.legend()
<matplotlib.legend.Legend object at 0x...>
>>> plt.show()
```

![Plot of a band-limited signal with random phases](image)

**fft**.**fft2** \((a, s=\text{None}, axes=(-2, -1), \text{norm=\text{None}})\)

Compute the 2-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform.
This function computes the $n$-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform over any axes in an $M$-dimensional array by means of the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). By default, the transform is computed over the last two axes of the input array, i.e., a 2-dimensional FFT.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  [array_like] Input array, can be complex

- **s**
  [sequence of ints, optional] Shape (length of each transformed axis) of the output ($s[0]$ refers to axis 0, $s[1]$ to axis 1, etc.). This corresponds to $n$ for $\text{fft}(x, n)$. Along each axis, if the given shape is smaller than that of the input, the input is cropped. If it is larger, the input is padded with zeros. If $s$ is not given, the shape of the input along the axes specified by $\text{axes}$ is used.

- **axes**
  [sequence of ints, optional] Axes over which to compute the FFT. If not given, the last two axes are used. A repeated index in $\text{axes}$ means the transform over that axis is performed multiple times. A one-element sequence means that a one-dimensional FFT is performed.

- **norm**
  Normalization mode (see $\text{numpy.fft}$). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.

New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

**Returns**

- **out**
  [complex ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axes indicated by $\text{axes}$, or the last two axes if $\text{axes}$ is not given.

**Raises**

- **ValueError**
  If $s$ and $\text{axes}$ have different length, or $\text{axes}$ not given and len($s$) != 2.

- **IndexError**
  If an element of $\text{axes}$ is larger than the number of axes of $a$.

**See also:**

- **numpy.fft**
  Overall view of discrete Fourier transforms, with definitions and conventions used.

- **ifft2**
  The inverse two-dimensional FFT.

- **fft**
  The one-dimensional FFT.
**fftn**

The n-dimensional FFT.

**fftshift**

Shifts zero-frequency terms to the center of the array. For two-dimensional input, swaps first and third quadrants, and second and fourth quadrants.

**Notes**

`fft2` is just `fftn` with a different default for `axes`.

The output, analogously to `fft`, contains the term for zero frequency in the low-order corner of the transformed axes, the positive frequency terms in the first half of these axes, the term for the Nyquist frequency in the middle of the axes and the negative frequency terms in the second half of the axes, in order of decreasingly negative frequency.

See `fftn` for details and a plotting example, and `numpy.fft` for definitions and conventions used.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.mgrid[:5, :5][0]
>>> np.fft.fft2(a)
array([[ 50. +0.j , 0. +0.j , 0. +0.j , # may vary
0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ],
[-12.5+17.20477401j, 0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ,
0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ],
[-12.5 +4.0614962j , 0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ,
0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ],
[-12.5 -4.0614962j , 0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ,
0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ],
[-12.5-17.20477401j, 0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ,
0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ]])
```

```python
fft . ifft2 (a, s=None, axes=(- 2, - 1), norm=None)
```

Compute the 2-dimensional inverse discrete Fourier Transform.

This function computes the inverse of the 2-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform over any number of axes in an M-dimensional array by means of the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). In other words, `ifft2 (`fft2 (`a`)` ) == a to within numerical accuracy. By default, the inverse transform is computed over the last two axes of the input array.

The input, analogously to `ifft`, should be ordered in the same way as is returned by `fft2`, i.e. it should have the term for zero frequency in the low-order corner of the two axes, the positive frequency terms in the first half of these axes, the term for the Nyquist frequency in the middle of the axes and the negative frequency terms in the second half of both axes, in order of decreasingly negative frequency.

**Parameters**

- `a`
  
  [array_like] Input array, can be complex.

- `s`
  
  [sequence of ints, optional] Shape (length of each axis) of the output (`s`[0] refers to axis 0, `s`[1] to axis 1, etc.). This corresponds to `n` for `ifft (`x`, `n`). Along each axis, if the given shape is smaller than that of the input, the input is cropped. If it is larger, the input is padded
with zeros. If \( s \) is not given, the shape of the input along the axes specified by \( \text{axes} \) is used. See notes for issue on \texttt{iftt} zero padding.

### axes

[sequence of ints, optional] Axes over which to compute the FFT. If not given, the last two axes are used. A repeated index in \( \text{axes} \) means the transform over that axis is performed multiple times. A one-element sequence means that a one-dimensional FFT is performed.

### norm

Normalization mode (see \texttt{numpy.fft}). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.

New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

### Returns

**out**

[complex ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axes indicated by \( \text{axes} \), or the last two axes if \( \text{axes} \) is not given.

### Raises

**ValueError**

If \( s \) and \( \text{axes} \) have different length, or \( \text{axes} \) not given and \( \text{len}(s) \neq 2 \).

**IndexError**

If an element of \( \text{axes} \) is larger than the number of axes of \( a \).

### See also:

\texttt{numpy.fft}

Overall view of discrete Fourier transforms, with definitions and conventions used.

\texttt{fft2}

The forward 2-dimensional FFT, of which \texttt{iftt2} is the inverse.

\texttt{ifftn}

The inverse of the \( n \)-dimensional FFT.

\texttt{fft}

The one-dimensional FFT.

\texttt{iftt}

The one-dimensional inverse FFT.
Notes

`ifft2` is just `ifftn` with a different default for `axes`.

See `ifftn` for details and a plotting example, and `numpy.fft` for definition and conventions used.

Zero-padding, analogously with `ifft`, is performed by appending zeros to the input along the specified dimension. Although this is the common approach, it might lead to surprising results. If another form of zero padding is desired, it must be performed before `ifft2` is called.

Examples

```python
>>> a = 4 * np.eye(4)
>>> np.fft.ifft2(a)
array([[1.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 1.+0.j],
       [0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 1.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+0.j, 1.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j]])
```

`fft.fftn`(a,s=None, axes=None, norm=None)

Compute the N-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform.

This function computes the N-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform over any number of axes in an M-dimensional array by means of the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT).

Parameters

a

[array_like] Input array, can be complex.

s

[sequence of ints, optional] Shape (length of each transformed axis) of the output (s[0] refers to axis 0, s[1] to axis 1, etc.). This corresponds to n for `fft(x, n)`. Along any axis, if the given shape is smaller than that of the input, the input is cropped. If it is larger, the input is padded with zeros. If s is not given, the shape of the input along the axes specified by axes is used.

axes

[sequence of ints, optional] Axes over which to compute the FFT. If not given, the last `len(s)` axes are used, or all axes if s is also not specified. Repeated indices in axes mean that the transform over that axis is performed multiple times.

norm

["backward", "ortho", "forward"], optional] New in version 1.10.0.

Normalization mode (see `numpy.fft`). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.

New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

Returns

out

[complex ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axes indicated by axes, or by a combination of s and a, as explained in the parameters section above.
Raises

ValueError
If `s` and `axes` have different length.

IndexError
If an element of `axes` is larger than than the number of axes of `a`.

See also:

numpy.fft
Overall view of discrete Fourier transforms, with definitions and conventions used.

ifftn
The inverse of `fftn`, the inverse n-dimensional FFT.

fft
The one-dimensional FFT, with definitions and conventions used.

rfftn
The n-dimensional FFT of real input.

fft2
The two-dimensional FFT.

fftshift
Shifts zero-frequency terms to centre of array

Notes

The output, analogously to `fft`, contains the term for zero frequency in the low-order corner of all axes, the positive frequency terms in the first half of all axes, the term for the Nyquist frequency in the middle of all axes and the negative frequency terms in the second half of all axes, in order of decreasingly negative frequency.

See `numpy.fft` for details, definitions and conventions used.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.mgrid[:3, :3, :3][0]
>>> np.fft.fftn(a, axes=(1, 2))
array([[ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j],  # may vary
       [ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j],
       [ 9.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j],
       [ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j],
       [ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j],
       [18.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j],
       [ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j],
       [ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j]]))
>>> np.fft.fftn(a, (2, 2), axes=(0, 1))
array([[ 2.+0.j,  2.+0.j,  2.+0.j],  # may vary
       [ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j]],
       [ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j],
       [ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j]])
```
(continues on next page)
.. _fft:iffn:

.. _fft:iffn:

.. _fft:iffn:

.. _fft:iffn:

fft.**iffn**(a, s=None, axes=None, norm=None)

Compute the N-dimensional inverse discrete Fourier Transform.

This function computes the inverse of the N-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform over any number of axes in an M-dimensional array by means of the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). In other words, \(\text{ifftn} (\text{fftn}(a)) = a\) to within numerical accuracy. For a description of the definitions and conventions used, see :func:`numpy.fft`.

The input, analogously to :func:`ifft`, should be ordered in the same way as is returned by :func:`fftn`, i.e. it should have the term for zero frequency in all axes in the low-order corner, the positive frequency terms in the first half of all axes, the term for the Nyquist frequency in the middle of all axes and the negative frequency terms in the second half of all axes, in order of decreasingly negative frequency.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [array_like] Input array, can be complex.

- **s**
  
  [sequence of ints, optional] Shape (length of each transformed axis) of the output (\(s[0]\) refers to axis 0, \(s[1]\) to axis 1, etc.). This corresponds to \(n\) for :func:`ifft (x, n)`. Along any axis, if the given shape is smaller than that of the input, the input is cropped. If it is larger, the input is padded with zeros. If \(s\) is not given, the shape of the input along the axes specified by \(axes\) is used. See notes for issue on :func:`ifft` zero padding.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

axes
[sequence of ints, optional] Axes over which to compute the IFFT. If not given, the last
len(s) axes are used, or all axes if s is also not specified. Repeated indices in axes means
that the inverse transform over that axis is performed multiple times.
norm
Normalization mode (see numpy.fft). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of
the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.
New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.
Returns
out
[complex ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axes indicated
by axes, or by a combination of s or a, as explained in the parameters section above.
Raises
ValueError
If s and axes have different length.
IndexError
If an element of axes is larger than than the number of axes of a.
See also:
numpy.fft
Overall view of discrete Fourier transforms, with definitions and conventions used.
fftn
The forward n-dimensional FFT, of which ifftn is the inverse.
ifft
The one-dimensional inverse FFT.
ifft2
The two-dimensional inverse FFT.
ifftshift
Undoes fftshift, shifts zero-frequency terms to beginning of array.

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Notes

See `numpy.fft` for definitions and conventions used.

Zero-padding, analogously with `ifft`, is performed by appending zeros to the input along the specified dimension. Although this is the common approach, it might lead to surprising results. If another form of zero padding is desired, it must be performed before `ifftn` is called.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.eye(4)
>>> np.fft.ifftn(np.fft.fftn(a, axes=(0,)), axes=(1,))
array([[1.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+0.j, 1.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 1.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 1.+0.j]])
```

Create and plot an image with band-limited frequency content:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> n = np.zeros((200,200), dtype=complex)
>>> n[60:80, 20:40] = np.exp(1j*np.random.uniform(0, 2*np.pi, (20, 20)))
>>> im = np.fft.ifftn(n).real
>>> plt.imshow(im)
<matplotlib.image.AxesImage object at 0x...>
>>> plt.show()
```

![Image of a plotted image with band-limited frequency content]
4.11.2 Real FFTs

**rfft***(a[, n, axis, norm]*) Computes the one-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform for real input.

**irfft***(a[, n, axis, norm]*) Computes the inverse of **rfft**.

**rfft2***(a[, s, axes, norm]*) Computes the 2-dimensional FFT of a real array.

**irfft2***(a[, s, axes, norm]*) Computes the inverse of **rfft2**.

**rfftn***(a[, s, axes, norm]*) Compute the N-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform for real input.

**irfftn***(a[, s, axes, norm]*) Computes the inverse of **rfftn**.

**fft***(a, n=None, axis=-1, norm=None)*

Compute the one-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform for real input. This function computes the one-dimensional \( n \)-point discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) of a real-valued array by means of an efficient algorithm called the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT).

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [array_like] Input array

- **n**
  
  [int, optional] Number of points along transformation axis in the input to use. If \( n \) is smaller than the length of the input, the input is cropped. If it is larger, the input is padded with zeros. If \( n \) is not given, the length of the input along the axis specified by \( \text{axis} \) is used.

- **axis**
  
  [int, optional] Axis over which to compute the FFT. If not given, the last axis is used.

- **norm**
  
  ['backward', 'ortho', 'forward', optional] New in version 1.10.0. Normalization mode (see `numpy.fft`). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor. New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

**Returns**

- **out**
  
  [complex ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axis indicated by \( \text{axis} \), or the last one if \( \text{axis} \) is not specified. If \( n \) is even, the length of the transformed axis is \( (n/2)+1 \). If \( n \) is odd, the length is \( (n+1)/2 \).

**Raises**

- **IndexError**
  
  If \( \text{axis} \) is not a valid axis of \( a \).

**See also:**
**NumPy.fft**

For definition of the DFT and conventions used.

**irfft**

The inverse of *rfft*.

**fft**

The one-dimensional FFT of general (complex) input.

**fftn**

The *n*-dimensional FFT.

**rfftn**

The *n*-dimensional FFT of real input.

**Notes**

When the DFT is computed for purely real input, the output is Hermitian-symmetric, i.e. the negative frequency terms are just the complex conjugates of the corresponding positive-frequency terms, and the negative-frequency terms are therefore redundant. This function does not compute the negative frequency terms, and the length of the transformed axis of the output is therefore \( n//2 + 1 \).

When \( A = \text{rfft}(a) \) and \( fs \) is the sampling frequency, \( A[0] \) contains the zero-frequency term \( 0*fs \), which is real due to Hermitian symmetry.

If \( n \) is even, \( A[-1] \) contains the term representing both positive and negative Nyquist frequency \( (+fs/2 \text{ and } -fs/2) \), and must also be purely real. If \( n \) is odd, there is no term at \( fs/2 \); \( A[-1] \) contains the largest positive frequency \( (fs/2*(n-1)/n) \), and is complex in the general case.

If the input \( a \) contains an imaginary part, it is silently discarded.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.fft.fft([0, 1, 0, 0])
array([ 1.+0.j, 0.-1.j, -1.+0.j, 0.+1.j]) # may vary
>>> np.fft.rfft([0, 1, 0, 0])
array([ 1.+0.j, 0.-1.j, -1.+0.j]) # may vary
```

Notice how the final element of the *fft* output is the complex conjugate of the second element, for real input. For *rfft*, this symmetry is exploited to compute only the non-negative frequency terms.

fft . irfft (a, n=None, axis=-1, norm=None)

Computes the inverse of *rfft*.

This function computes the inverse of the one-dimensional *n*-point discrete Fourier Transform of real input computed by *rfft*. In other words, \( \text{irfft}(\text{rfft}(a), \text{len}(a)) == a \) to within numerical accuracy. (See Notes below for why \( \text{len}(a) \) is necessary here.)

The input is expected to be in the form returned by *rfft*, i.e. the real zero-frequency term followed by the complex positive frequency terms in order of increasing frequency. Since the discrete Fourier Transform of real input is Hermitian-symmetric, the negative frequency terms are taken to be the complex conjugates of the corresponding positive frequency terms.

**Parameters**
a

[array_like] The input array.

n

[int, optional] Length of the transformed axis of the output. For n output points, n/2+1 input points are necessary. If the input is longer than this, it is cropped. If it is shorter than this, it is padded with zeros. If n is not given, it is taken to be 2*(m-1) where m is the length of the input along the axis specified by axis.

axis

[int, optional] Axis over which to compute the inverse FFT. If not given, the last axis is used.

norm

[{“backward”, “ortho”, “forward”}, optional] New in version 1.10.0. Normalization mode (see numpy.fft). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.

New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

Returns

out

[ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axis indicated by axis, or the last one if axis is not specified. The length of the transformed axis is n, or, if n is not given, 2*(m-1) where m is the length of the transformed axis of the input. To get an odd number of output points, n must be specified.

Raises

IndexError

If axis is not a valid axis of a.

See also:
	numpy.fft

For definition of the DFT and conventions used.

rfft

The one-dimensional FFT of real input, of which irfft is inverse.

fft

The one-dimensional FFT.

irfft2

The inverse of the two-dimensional FFT of real input.

irfftn

The inverse of the n-dimensional FFT of real input.
Notes

Returns the real valued $n$-point inverse discrete Fourier transform of $a$, where $a$ contains the non-negative frequency terms of a Hermitian-symmetric sequence. $n$ is the length of the result, not the input.

If you specify an $n$ such that $a$ must be zero-padded or truncated, the extra/removed values will be added/removed at high frequencies. One can thus resample a series to $m$ points via Fourier interpolation by: $a\_resamp = \text{irfft(rfft(a), m)}$.

The correct interpretation of the hermitian input depends on the length of the original data, as given by $n$. This is because each input shape could correspond to either an odd or even length signal. By default, \text{irfft} assumes an even output length which puts the last entry at the Nyquist frequency; aliasing with its symmetric counterpart. By Hermitian symmetry, the value is thus treated as purely real. To avoid losing information, the correct length of the real input must be given.

Examples

```python
>>> np.fft.irfft([1, -1j, -1, 1j])
array([0.+0.j, 1.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 0.+0.j]) # may vary
>>> np.fft.irfft([1, -1j, -1])
array([0., 1., 0., 0.])
```

Notice how the last term in the input to the ordinary \text{ifft} is the complex conjugate of the second term, and the output has zero imaginary part everywhere. When calling \text{irfft}, the negative frequencies are not specified, and the output array is purely real.

\text{fft.rfft2}(a, s=None, axes=(-2, -1), norm=None)

Compute the 2-dimensional FFT of a real array.

**Parameters**

- $a$
  - [array] Input array, taken to be real.

- $s$
  - [sequence of ints, optional] Shape of the FFT.

- $axes$
  - [sequence of ints, optional] Axes over which to compute the FFT.

- $norm$
  
  Normalization mode (see \text{numpy.fft}). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.

  New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

**Returns**

- $out$
  - [ndarray] The result of the real 2-D FFT.

See also:
**rfftn**

Compute the N-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform for real input.

**Notes**

This is really just `rfftn` with different default behavior. For more details see `rfftn`.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.mgrid[:5, :5][0]
>>> np.fft.rfft2(a)
array([[ 50. +0.j , 0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ],
       [-12.5+17.20477401j, 0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ],
       [-12.5 +4.0614962j , 0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ],
       [-12.5 -4.0614962j , 0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ],
       [-12.5-17.20477401j, 0. +0.j , 0. +0.j ]])
```

**fft.irfft2** *(a, s=None, axes=(- 2, - 1), norm=None)*

Computes the inverse of `rfft2`.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] The input array

- **s**
  - [sequence of ints, optional] Shape of the real output to the inverse FFT.

- **axes**
  - [sequence of ints, optional] The axes over which to compute the inverse fft. Default is the last two axes.

- **norm**

  Normalization mode (see `numpy.fft`). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.

  New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray] The result of the inverse real 2-D FFT.

**See also:**

- `rfftn`
  - The forward two-dimensional FFT of real input, of which `irfft2` is the inverse.

- `rfft`
  - The one-dimensional FFT for real input.
**irfft**

The inverse of the one-dimensional FFT of real input.

**irfftn**

Compute the inverse of the N-dimensional FFT of real input.

**Notes**

This is really `irfftn` with different defaults. For more details see `irfftn`.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.mgrid[:5, :5][0]
>>> A = np.fft.rfft2(a)
>>> np.fft.irfft2(A, s=a.shape)
array([[0., 0., 0., 0., 0.],
       [1., 1., 1., 1., 1.],
       [2., 2., 2., 2., 2.],
       [3., 3., 3., 3., 3.],
       [4., 4., 4., 4., 4.]])
```

**fft.rfftn**

Compute the N-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform for real input.

This function computes the N-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform over any number of axes in an M-dimensional real array by means of the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). By default, all axes are transformed, with the real transform performed over the last axis, while the remaining transforms are complex.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [array_like] Input array, taken to be real.

- **s**
  
  [sequence of ints, optional] Shape (length along each transformed axis) to use from the input. (s[0] refers to axis 0, s[1] to axis 1, etc.). The final element of s corresponds to n for rfft(x, n), while for the remaining axes, it corresponds to n for fft(x, n). Along any axis, if the given shape is smaller than that of the input, the input is cropped. If it is larger, the input is padded with zeros. If s is not given, the shape of the input along the axes specified by axes is used.

- **axes**
  
  [sequence of ints, optional] Axes over which to compute the FFT. If not given, the last len(s) axes are used, or all axes if s is also not specified.

- **norm**
  
  
  Normalization mode (see `numpy.fft`). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.
  
  New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

**Returns**
out

[complex ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axes indicated by \texttt{axes}, or by a combination of \texttt{s} and \texttt{a}, as explained in the parameters section above. The length of the last axis transformed will be \( \lfloor s[-1]/2 \rfloor + 1 \), while the remaining transformed axes will have lengths according to \( s \), or unchanged from the input.

Raises

\textbf{ValueError}
If \( s \) and \( \texttt{axes} \) have different length.

\textbf{IndexError}
If an element of \( \texttt{axes} \) is larger than than the number of axes of \( a \).

\textbf{See also:}

\texttt{irfftn}
The inverse of \texttt{rfftn}, i.e. the inverse of the n-dimensional FFT of real input.

\texttt{fft}
The one-dimensional FFT, with definitions and conventions used.

\texttt{rfft}
The one-dimensional FFT of real input.

\texttt{fftn}
The n-dimensional FFT.

\texttt{rfft2}
The two-dimensional FFT of real input.

\textbf{Notes}
The transform for real input is performed over the last transformation axis, as by \texttt{rfft}, then the transform over the remaining axes is performed as by \texttt{fftn}. The order of the output is as for \texttt{rfft} for the final transformation axis, and as for \texttt{fftn} for the remaining transformation axes.

See \texttt{fft} for details, definitions and conventions used.

\textbf{Examples}

```python
>>> a = np.ones((2, 2, 2))
>>> np.fft.rfftn(a)
array([[[8.+0.j, 0.+0.j], # may vary
        [0.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
        [0.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
        [0.+0.j, 0.+0.j]]],
       [0.+0.j, 0.+0.j]]
```
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

```python
>>> np.fft.rfftn(a, axes=(2, 0))
anarray([[[4.+0.j, 0.+0.j], # may vary
          [4.+0.j, 0.+0.j]],
         [[0.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
          [0.+0.j, 0.+0.j]]])
```

```python
fft.irfftn(a, s=None, axes=None, norm=None)
```

Computes the inverse of `rfftn`.

This function computes the inverse of the N-dimensional discrete Fourier Transform for real input over any number of axes in an M-dimensional array by means of the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). In other words, `irfftn(rfftn(a), a.shape) == a` to within numerical accuracy. (The `a.shape` is necessary like `len(a)` is for `irfft`, and for the same reason.)

The input should be ordered in the same way as is returned by `rfftn`, i.e. as for `irfft` for the final transformation axis, and as for `ifftn` along all the other axes.

**Parameters**

- `a`
  - [array_like] Input array.

- `s`
  - [sequence of ints, optional] Shape (length of each transformed axis) of the output (`s[0]` refers to axis 0, `s[1]` to axis 1, etc.). `s` is also the number of input points used along this axis, except for the last axis, where `s[-1]/2+1` points of the input are used. Along any axis, if the shape indicated by `s` is smaller than that of the input, the input is cropped. If it is larger, the input is padded with zeros. If `s` is not given, the shape of the input along the axes specified by `axes` is used. Except for the last axis which is taken to be `2*(m-1)` where `m` is the length of the input along that axis.

- `axes`
  - [sequence of ints, optional] Axes over which to compute the inverse FFT. If not given, the last `len(s)` axes are used, or all axes if `s` is also not specified. Repeated indices in `axes` means that the inverse transform over that axis is performed multiple times.

- `norm`
  - [“backward”, “ortho”, “forward”], optional] Normalization mode (see `numpy.fft`). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.

**Returns**

- `out`
  - [ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axes indicated by `axes`, or by a combination of `s` or `a`, as explained in the parameters section above. The length of each transformed axis is as given by the corresponding element of `s`, or the length of the input in every axis except for the last one if `s` is not given. In the final transformed axis the length of the output when `s` is not given is `2*(m-1)` where `m` is the length of the final transformed axis of the input. To get an odd number of output points in the final axis, `s` must be specified.

**Raises**
**ValueError**

If $s$ and $axes$ have different length.

**IndexError**

If an element of $axes$ is larger than than the number of axes of $a$.

See also:

- **rfftn**
  
  The forward n-dimensional FFT of real input, of which **ifftn** is the inverse.

- **fft**
  
  The one-dimensional FFT, with definitions and conventions used.

- **irfft**
  
  The inverse of the one-dimensional FFT of real input.

- **irfft2**
  
  The inverse of the two-dimensional FFT of real input.

**Notes**

See **fft** for definitions and conventions used.

See **rfft** for definitions and conventions used for real input.

The correct interpretation of the hermitian input depends on the shape of the original data, as given by $s$. This is because each input shape could correspond to either an odd or even length signal. By default, **irfftn** assumes an even output length which puts the last entry at the Nyquist frequency; aliasing with its symmetric counterpart. When performing the final complex to real transform, the last value is thus treated as purely real. To avoid losing information, the correct shape of the real input **must** be given.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((3, 2, 2))
>>> a[0, 0, 0] = 3 * 2 * 2
>>> np.fft.irfftn(a)
array([[[1., 1.],
        [1., 1.]],
        [[1., 1.],
        [1., 1.]],
        [[[1., 1.],
          [1., 1.]]])
```
4.11.3 Hermitian FFTs

<table>
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<th>hfft(a[, n, axis, norm])</th>
<th>Compute the FFT of a signal that has Hermitian symmetry, i.e., a real spectrum.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ihfft(a[, n, axis, norm])</td>
<td>Compute the inverse FFT of a signal that has Hermitian symmetry.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**hfft**

```python
hfft(a[, n, axis, norm])
```

Compute the FFT of a signal that has Hermitian symmetry, i.e., a real spectrum.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] The input array.
- **n**
  - [int, optional] Length of the transformed axis of the output. For \( n \) output points, \( \frac{n}{2} + 1 \) input points are necessary. If the input is longer than this, it is cropped. If it is shorter than this, it is padded with zeros. If \( n \) is not given, it is taken to be \( 2 \times (m-1) \) where \( m \) is the length of the input along the axis specified by \( axis \).
- **axis**
  - [int, optional] Axis over which to compute the FFT. If not given, the last axis is used.
- **norm**
    - Normalization mode (see `numpy.fft`). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.
    - New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axis indicated by \( axis \), or the last one if \( axis \) is not specified. The length of the transformed axis is \( n \), or, if \( n \) is not given, \( 2 \times m - 2 \) where \( m \) is the length of the transformed axis of the input. To get an odd number of output points, \( n \) must be specified, for instance as \( 2 \times m - 1 \) in the typical case,

**Raises**

- **IndexError**
  - If \( axis \) is not a valid axis of \( a \).

**See also:**

- **rfft**
  - Compute the one-dimensional FFT for real input.

- **ihfft**
  - The inverse of `hfft`.
Notes

`hfft/ihfft` are a pair analogous to `rfft/irfft`, but for the opposite case: here the signal has Hermitian symmetry in the time domain and is real in the frequency domain. So here it’s `hfft` for which you must supply the length of the result if it is to be odd.

- even: `ihfft(hfft(a, 2*len(a) - 2)) = a`, within roundoff error,
- odd: `ihfft(hfft(a, 2*len(a) - 1)) = a`, within roundoff error.

The correct interpretation of the hermitian input depends on the length of the original data, as given by \( n \). This is because each input shape could correspond to either an odd or even length signal. By default, `hfft` assumes an even output length which puts the last entry at the Nyquist frequency; aliasing with its symmetric counterpart. By Hermitian symmetry, the value is thus treated as purely real. To avoid losing information, the shape of the full signal must be given.

Examples

```python
>>> signal = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4, 3, 2])
>>> np.fft.fft(signal)
array([15.+0.j, -4.+0.j, 0.+0.j, -1.-0.j, 0.+0.j, -4.+0.j])  # may vary
>>> np.fft.hfft(signal[:4])  # Input first half of signal
array([15., -4., 0., -1., 0., -4.])
>>> np.fft.hfft(signal, 6)  # Input entire signal and truncate
array([15., -4., 0., -1., 0., -4.])

>>> signal = np.array([[1, 1.j], [-1.j, 2]])
>>> np.fft.fft(signal)
array([[ 1., 1.j], [-1., -1.j]])
>>> freq_spectrum = np.fft.hfft(signal)
>>> freq_spectrum
array([[ 1., 1.j],
       [-2., -2.j]])
```

`fft.ihfft(a, n=None, axis=-1, norm=None)`

Compute the inverse FFT of a signal that has Hermitian symmetry.

Parameters

- `a`
  
  [array_like] Input array.

- `n`
  
  [int, optional] Length of the inverse FFT, the number of points along transformation axis in the input to use. If \( n \) is smaller than the length of the input, the input is cropped. If it is larger, the input is padded with zeros. If \( n \) is not given, the length of the input along the axis specified by `axis` is used.

- `axis`
  
  [int, optional] Axis over which to compute the inverse FFT. If not given, the last axis is used.

- `norm`
  
Normalization mode (see :py:func:`numpy.fft`). Default is “backward”. Indicates which direction of the forward/backward pair of transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor.

New in version 1.20.0: The “backward”, “forward” values were added.

**Returns**

```
out

[complex ndarray] The truncated or zero-padded input, transformed along the axis indicated by `axis`, or the last one if `axis` is not specified. The length of the transformed axis is \(n//2 + 1\).
```

**See also:**

```
hfft, irfft
```

**Notes**

```
hfft/ihfft are a pair analogous to rfft/irfft, but for the opposite case: here the signal has Hermitian symmetry in the time domain and is real in the frequency domain. So here it's hfft for which you must supply the length of the result if it is to be odd:
```

- even: \(ihfft(hfft(a, 2*\text{len}(a) - 2)) == a\), within roundoff error,
- odd: \(ihfft(hfft(a, 2*\text{len}(a) - 1)) == a\), within roundoff error.

**Examples**

```
>>> spectrum = np.array([ 15, -4,  0, -1,  0, -4])
>>> np.fft.ifft(spectrum)
array([ 1.0,  2.0,  3.0,  4.0,  3.0,  2.0]) # may vary
>>> np.fft.fft(spectrum)
array([ 1.0,  2.0,  3.0,  4.0]) # may vary
```

4.11.4 Helper routines

```
fft.freq(n[, d])
  Return the Discrete Fourier Transform sample frequencies.

rfft.freq(n[, d])
  Return the Discrete Fourier Transform sample frequencies (for usage with rfft, irfft).

fftshift(x[, axes])
  Shift the zero-frequency component to the center of the spectrum.

ifftshift(x[, axes])
  The inverse of fftshift.
```

```
fft.freq(n, d=1.0)
  Return the Discrete Fourier Transform sample frequencies.
  
  The returned float array \(f\) contains the frequency bin centers in cycles per unit of the sample spacing (with zero at the start). For instance, if the sample spacing is in seconds, then the frequency unit is cycles/second.
  
  Given a window length \(n\) and a sample spacing \(d\):
```
f = [0, 1, ..., n/2-1, -n/2, ..., -1] / (d*n)  \text{ if } n \text{ is even}

f = [0, 1, ..., (n-1)/2, -(n-1)/2, ..., -1] / (d*n)  \text{ if } n \text{ is odd}

### Parameters

- **n**
  - [int] Window length.

- **d**
  - [scalar, optional] Sample spacing (inverse of the sampling rate). Defaults to 1.

### Returns

- **f**
  - [ndarray] Array of length $n$ containing the sample frequencies.

### Examples

```python
>>> signal = np.array([-2, 8, 6, 4, 1, 0, 3, 5], dtype=float)
>>> fourier = np.fft.fft(signal)
>>> n = signal.size
>>> timestep = 0.1
>>> freq = np.fft.fftfreq(n, d=timestep)
>>> freq
array([ 0. , 1.25, 2.5 , ..., -3.75, -2.5 , -1.25])
```

**fft.rfftfreq(n, d=1.0)**

Return the Discrete Fourier Transform sample frequencies (for usage with rfft, irfft).

The returned float array $f$ contains the frequency bin centers in cycles per unit of the sample spacing (with zero at the start). For instance, if the sample spacing is in seconds, then the frequency unit is cycles/second.

Given a window length $n$ and a sample spacing $d$:

```python
f = [0, 1, ..., n/2-1, n/2] / (d*n)  \text{ if } n \text{ is even}

f = [0, 1, ..., (n-1)/2-1, (n-1)/2] / (d*n)  \text{ if } n \text{ is odd}
```

Unlike `fftfreq` (but like `scipy.fftpack.rfftfreq`) the Nyquist frequency component is considered to be positive.

### Parameters

- **n**
  - [int] Window length.

- **d**
  - [scalar, optional] Sample spacing (inverse of the sampling rate). Defaults to 1.

### Returns

- **f**
  - [ndarray] Array of length $n/2 + 1$ containing the sample frequencies.
Examples

```python
>>> signal = np.array([-2, 8, 6, 4, 1, 0, 3, 5, -3, 4], dtype=float)
>>> fourier = np.fft.rfft(signal)
>>> n = signal.size
>>> sample_rate = 100
>>> freq = np.fft.fftfreq(n, d=1./sample_rate)
>>> freq
array([-0.5, 0.5, 1.5, ..., -39.5, -38.5, -37.5])
>>> freq
array([-0.49999999, 0.49999999, 1.49999999, ..., -39.49999999, -38.49999999, 20.49999999])
```

**fftshift** *(x, axes=None)*

Shift the zero-frequency component to the center of the spectrum.

This function swaps half-spaces for all axes listed (defaults to all). Note that \( y[0] \) is the Nyquist component only if \( \text{len}(x) \) is even.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  
  [array_like] Input array.

- **axes**
  
  [int or shape tuple, optional] Axes over which to shift. Default is None, which shifts all axes.

**Returns**

- **y**
  
  [ndarray] The shifted array.

**See also:**

**ifftshift**

The inverse of **fftshift**.

Examples

```python
>>> freqs = np.fft.fftfreq(10, 0.1)
>>> freqs
array([-4.99999999, -3.99999999, -2.99999999, ..., 0.99999999, 1.99999999, 2.99999999])
>>> np.fft.fftshift(freqs)
array([-5., -4., -3., -2., -1., 0., 1., 2., 3., 4.])
```

Shift the zero-frequency component only along the second axis:

```python
>>> freqs = np.fft.fftfreq(9, d=1./9).reshape(3, 3)
>>> freqs
array([[0., 1., 2.],
       [3., 4., -4.],
       [-3., -2., -1.]])
>>> np.fft.fftshift(freqs, axes=(1,))
```

(continues on next page)
fft.\texttt{ifftshift}(x, axes=\texttt{None})

The inverse of \texttt{fftshift}. Although identical for even-length $x$, the functions differ by one sample for odd-length $x$.

**Parameters**

- $x$  
  [array_like] Input array.
- axes  
  [int or shape tuple, optional] Axes over which to calculate. Defaults to \texttt{None}, which shifts all axes.

**Returns**

- $y$  
  [ndarray] The shifted array.

**See also:**

\texttt{fftshift}

Shift zero-frequency component to the center of the spectrum.

**Examples**

```python
>>> freqs = np.fft.fftfreq(9, d=1./9).reshape(3, 3)
>>> freqs
array([[ 0.,  1.,  2.],
       [ 3.,  4., -4.],
       [-3., -2., -1.]])
>>> np.fft.ifftshift(np.fft.fftshift(freqs))
array([[ 0.,  1.,  2.],
       [ 3.,  4., -4.],
       [-3., -2., -1.]])
```

### 4.11.5 Background information

Fourier analysis is fundamentally a method for expressing a function as a sum of periodic components, and for recovering the function from those components. When both the function and its Fourier transform are replaced with discretized counterparts, it is called the discrete Fourier transform (DFT). The DFT has become a mainstay of numerical computing in part because of a very fast algorithm for computing it, called the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT), which was known to Gauss (1805) and was brought to light in its current form by Cooley and Tukey \cite{CT}. Press et al. \cite{NR} provide an accessible introduction to Fourier analysis and its applications.

Because the discrete Fourier transform separates its input into components that contribute at discrete frequencies, it has a great number of applications in digital signal processing, e.g., for filtering, and in this context the discretized input to
the transform is customarily referred to as a signal, which exists in the time domain. The output is called a spectrum or transform and exists in the frequency domain.

4.11.6 Implementation details

There are many ways to define the DFT, varying in the sign of the exponent, normalization, etc. In this implementation, the DFT is defined as

\[ A_k = \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} a_m \exp \left\{ -2\pi i \frac{mk}{n} \right\} \quad k = 0, \ldots, n - 1. \]

The DFT is in general defined for complex inputs and outputs, and a single-frequency component at linear frequency \( f \) is represented by a complex exponential \( a_m = \exp \{2\pi i f m \Delta t\} \), where \( \Delta t \) is the sampling interval.

The values in the result follow so-called “standard” order: If \( A = \text{fft}(a, n) \), then \( A[0] \) contains the zero-frequency term (the sum of the signal), which is always purely real for real inputs. Then \( A[1:n/2] \) contains the positive-frequency terms, and \( A[n/2+1:] \) contains the negative-frequency terms, in order of decreasingly negative frequency. For an even number of input points, \( A[n/2] \) represents both positive and negative Nyquist frequency, and is also purely real for real input. For an odd number of input points, \( A[(n-1)/2] \) contains the largest positive frequency, while \( A[(n+1)/2] \) contains the largest negative frequency. The routine \( \text{np.fft.fftfreq}(n) \) returns an array giving the frequencies of corresponding elements in the output. The routine \( \text{np.fft.fftshift}(A) \) shifts transforms and their frequencies to put the zero-frequency components in the middle, and \( \text{np.fft.ifftshift}(A) \) undoes that shift.

When the input \( a \) is a time-domain signal and \( A = \text{fft}(a) \), \( \text{np.abs}(A) \) is its amplitude spectrum and \( \text{np.abs}(A)^2 \) is its power spectrum. The phase spectrum is obtained by \( \text{np.angle}(A) \).

The inverse DFT is defined as

\[ a_m = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} A_k \exp \left\{ 2\pi i \frac{mk}{n} \right\} \quad m = 0, \ldots, n - 1. \]

It differs from the forward transform by the sign of the exponential argument and the default normalization by \( 1/n \).

4.11.7 Type Promotion

\texttt{numpy.fft} promotes float32 and complex64 arrays to float64 and complex128 arrays respectively. For an FFT implementation that does not promote input arrays, see \texttt{scipy.fftpack}.

4.11.8 Normalization

The argument \texttt{norm} indicates which direction of the pair of direct/inverse transforms is scaled and with what normalization factor. The default normalization ("backward") has the direct (forward) transforms unscaled and the inverse (backward) transforms scaled by \( 1/n \). It is possible to obtain unitary transforms by setting the keyword argument \texttt{norm} to "ortho" so that both direct and inverse transforms are scaled by \( 1/\sqrt{n} \). Finally, setting the keyword argument \texttt{norm} to "forward" has the direct transforms scaled by \( 1/n \) and the inverse transforms unscaled (i.e. exactly opposite to the default "backward"). \texttt{None} is an alias of the default option "backward" for backward compatibility.
4.11.9 Real and Hermitian transforms

When the input is purely real, its transform is Hermitian, i.e., the component at frequency $f_k$ is the complex conjugate of the component at frequency $-f_k$, which means that for real inputs there is no information in the negative frequency components that is not already available from the positive frequency components. The family of $rfft$ functions is designed to operate on real inputs, and exploits this symmetry by computing only the positive frequency components, up to and including the Nyquist frequency. Thus, $n$ input points produce $n/2+1$ complex output points. The inverses of this family assumes the same symmetry of its input, and for an output of $n$ points uses $n/2+1$ input points.

Correspondingly, when the spectrum is purely real, the signal is Hermitian. The $bfft$ family of functions exploits this symmetry by using $n/2+1$ complex points in the input (time) domain for $n$ real points in the frequency domain.

In higher dimensions, FFTs are used, e.g., for image analysis and filtering. The computational efficiency of the FFT means that it can also be a faster way to compute large convolutions, using the property that a convolution in the time domain is equivalent to a point-by-point multiplication in the frequency domain.

4.11.10 Higher dimensions

In two dimensions, the DFT is defined as

$$A_{kl} = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} a_{mn} \exp \left\{ -2\pi i \left( \frac{mk}{M} + \frac{nl}{N} \right) \right\} \quad k = 0, \ldots, M-1; \quad l = 0, \ldots, N-1,$$

which extends in the obvious way to higher dimensions, and the inverses in higher dimensions also extend in the same way.

4.11.11 References

4.11.12 Examples

For examples, see the various functions.

4.12 Functional programming

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```python
numpy.apply_along_axis(func1d, axis, arr, *args, ...)  
Apply a function to 1-D slices along the given axis.
```

Execute `func1d(a, *args, **kwargs)` where `func1d` operates on 1-D arrays and `a` is a 1-D slice of `arr` along `axis`.

This is equivalent to (but faster than) the following use of `ndindex` and `s_`, which sets each of `ii`, `jj`, and `kk` to a tuple of indices:

```python
Ni, Nk = a.shape[:axis], a.shape[axis+1:]
```

(continues on next page)
for ii in ndindex(Ni):
    for kk in ndindex(Nk):
        f = func1d(arr[ii + s_[:,] + kk])
        Nj = f.shape
        for jj in ndindex(Nj):
            out[ii + jj + kk] = f[jj]

Equivalently, eliminating the inner loop, this can be expressed as:

Ni, Nk = a.shape[:axis], a.shape[axis+1:]
for ii in ndindex(Ni):
    for kk in ndindex(Nk):
        out[ii + s_[:...], + kk] = func1d(arr[ii + s_[:], + kk])

Parameters

func1d

[function (M,) -> (Nj...)] This function should accept 1-D arrays. It is applied to 1-D slices of arr along the specified axis.

axis

[integer] Axis along which arr is sliced.

arr

[ndarray (Ni..., M, Nk...)] Input array.

args

[any] Additional arguments to func1d.

kwargs

[any] Additional named arguments to func1d.

New in version 1.9.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray (Ni..., Nj..., Nk...)] The output array. The shape of out is identical to the shape of arr, except along the axis dimension. This axis is removed, and replaced with new dimensions equal to the shape of the return value of func1d. So if func1d returns a scalar out will have one fewer dimensions than arr.

See also:

apply_over_axes

Apply a function repeatedly over multiple axes.
Examples

```python
>>> def my_func(a):
...     """Average first and last element of a 1-D array"""
...     return (a[0] + a[-1]) * 0.5
>>> b = np.array([[1,2,3], [4,5,6], [7,8,9]])
>>> np.apply_along_axis(my_func, 0, b)
array([4., 5., 6.])
>>> np.apply_along_axis(my_func, 1, b)
array([2., 5., 8.])
```

For a function that returns a 1D array, the number of dimensions in `outarr` is the same as `arr`.

```python
>>> b = np.array([[8,1,7], [4,3,9], [5,2,6]])
>>> np.apply_along_axis(sorted, 1, b)
array([[3, 4, 9],
       [2, 5, 6]])
```

For a function that returns a higher dimensional array, those dimensions are inserted in place of the `axis` dimension.

```python
>>> b = np.array([[1,2,3], [4,5,6], [7,8,9]])
>>> np.apply_along_axis(np.diag, -1, b)
array([[[1, 0, 0],
        [0, 2, 0],
        [0, 0, 3]],
       [[[4, 0, 0],
         [0, 5, 0],
         [0, 0, 6]],
       [[[7, 0, 0],
         [0, 8, 0],
         [0, 0, 9]]]])
```

NumPy's `apply_over_axes(func, a, axes)`

Apply a function repeatedly over multiple axes.

`func` is called as `res = func(a, axis)`, where `axis` is the first element of `axes`. The result `res` of the function call must have either the same dimensions as `a` or one less dimension. If `res` has one less dimension than `a`, a dimension is inserted before `axis`. The call to `func` is then repeated for each axis in `axes`, with `res` as the first argument.

**Parameters**

- `func`
  - [function] This function must take two arguments, `func(a, axis)`.

- `a`
  - [array_like] Input array.

- `axes`
  - [array_like] Axes over which `func` is applied; the elements must be integers.

**Returns**

`apply_over_axis`
[ndarray] The output array. The number of dimensions is the same as \( a \), but the shape can be different. This depends on whether \( func \) changes the shape of its output with respect to its input.

**See also:**

*apply_along_axis*

Apply a function to 1-D slices of an array along the given axis.

**Notes**

This function is equivalent to tuple axis arguments to reorderable ufuncs with keepdims=True. Tuple axis arguments to ufuncs have been available since version 1.7.0.

**Examples**

```python
code
>>> a = np.arange(24).reshape(2,3,4)
>>> a
array([[[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11]],
       [[12, 13, 14, 15],
        [16, 17, 18, 19],
        [20, 21, 22, 23]]])
```

Sum over axes 0 and 2. The result has same number of dimensions as the original array:

```python
code
>>> np.apply_over_axes(np.sum, a, [0,2])
array([[60],
       [92],
       [124]])
```

Tuple axis arguments to ufuncs are equivalent:

```python
code
>>> np.sum(a, axis=(0,2), keepdims=True)
array([[60],
       [92],
       [124]])
```

**class** numpy.vectorize (pyfunc=None, otypes=None, doc=None, excluded=None, cache=False, signature=None)

Generalized function class.

Define a vectorized function which takes a nested sequence of objects or numpy arrays as inputs and returns a single numpy array or a tuple of numpy arrays. The vectorized function evaluates \( pyfunc \) over successive tuples of the input arrays like the python map function, except it uses the broadcasting rules of numpy.

The data type of the output of \( vectorized \) is determined by calling the function with the first element of the input. This can be avoided by specifying the \( otypes \) argument.

**Parameters**

*pyfunc*

[callable] A python function or method.
otypes

[str or list of dtypes, optional] The output data type. It must be specified as either a string of
typecode characters or a list of data type specifiers. There should be one data type specifier
for each output.

doc

[str, optional] The docstring for the function. If None, the docstring will be the pyfunc.
__doc__.

excluded

[set, optional] Set of strings or integers representing the positional or keyword arguments for
which the function will not be vectorized. These will be passed directly to pyfunc unmodified.

New in version 1.7.0.

cache

[bool, optional] If True, then cache the first function call that determines the number of outputs
if otypes is not provided.

New in version 1.7.0.

signature

[string, optional] Generalized universal function signature, e.g., (m, n), (n) -> (m) for vec-
torized matrix-vector multiplication. If provided, pyfunc will be called with (and expected
to return) arrays with shapes given by the size of corresponding core dimensions. By default,
pyfunc is assumed to take scalars as input and output.

New in version 1.12.0.

Returns

vectorized

[callable] Vectorized function.

See also:

frompyfunc

Takes an arbitrary Python function and returns a ufunc

Notes

The vectorize function is provided primarily for convenience, not for performance. The implementation is
essentially a for loop.

If otypes is not specified, then a call to the function with the first argument will be used to determine the number
of outputs. The results of this call will be cached if cache is True to prevent calling the function twice. However,
to implement the cache, the original function must be wrapped which will slow down subsequent calls, so only do
this if your function is expensive.

The new keyword argument interface and excluded argument support further degrades performance.
References

[1]

Examples

```python
>>> def myfunc(a, b):
...   "Return a-b if a>b, otherwise return a+b"
...   if a > b:
...     return a - b
...   else:
...     return a + b

>>> vfunc = np.vectorize(myfunc)
>>> vfunc([1, 2, 3, 4], 2)
array([3, 4, 1, 2])

The docstring is taken from the input function to `vectorize` unless it is specified:

```python
>>> vfunc.__doc__
'Return a-b if a>b, otherwise return a+b'
>>> vfunc = np.vectorize(myfunc, doc='Vectorized `myfunc`')
>>> vfunc.__doc__
'Vectorized `myfunc`'
```

The output type is determined by evaluating the first element of the input, unless it is specified:

```python
>>> out = vfunc([1, 2, 3, 4], 2)
>>> type(out[0])
<class 'numpy.int64'>
>>> vfunc = np.vectorize(myfunc, otypes=[float])
>>> out = vfunc([1, 2, 3, 4], 2)
>>> type(out[0])
<class 'numpy.float64'>
```

The `excluded` argument can be used to prevent vectorizing over certain arguments. This can be useful for array-like arguments of a fixed length such as the coefficients for a polynomial as in `polyval`:

```python
>>> def mypolyval(p, x):
...   _p = list(p)
...   res = _p.pop(0)
...   while _p:
...     res = res*x + _p.pop(0)
...   return res
>>> vpolyval = np.vectorize(mypolyval, excluded=['p'])
>>> vpolyval(p=[[1, 2, 3], x=[0, 1]])
array([3, 6])
```

Positional arguments may also be excluded by specifying their position:

```python
>>> vpolyval.excluded.add(0)
>>> vpolyval([1, 2, 3], x=[0, 1])
array([3, 6])
```

The `signature` argument allows for vectorizing functions that act on non-scalar arrays of fixed length. For example, you can use it for a vectorized calculation of Pearson correlation coefficient and its p-value:

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```python
>>> import scipy.stats
>>> pearsonr = np.vectorize(scipy.stats.pearsonr,
...     signature='(n),(n)->(),()')
>>> pearsonr([[0, 1, 2, 3]], [[1, 2, 3, 4], [4, 3, 2, 1]])
(array([ 1., -1.]), array([ 0., 0.]))
```

Or for a vectorized convolution:

```python
>>> convolve = np.vectorize(np.convolve, signature='(n),(m)->(k)')
>>> convolve(np.eye(4), [1, 2, 1])
array([[1., 2., 1., 0., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 2., 1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1., 2., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 0., 1., 2., 1.]])
```

**Methods**

```
__call__(*args, **kwargs)
```
Return arrays with the results of `pyfunc` broadcast (vectorized) over `args` and `kwargs` not in `excluded`.

```
method
vectorize.__call__(*args, **kwargs)
```
Return arrays with the results of `pyfunc` broadcast (vectorized) over `args` and `kwargs` not in `excluded`.

```
numpy.frompyfunc(func, nin, nout, *[identity])
```
Takes an arbitrary Python function and returns a NumPy ufunc.

Can be used, for example, to add broadcasting to a built-in Python function (see Examples section).

**Parameters**

- `func`

- `nin`
  [int] The number of input arguments.

- `nout`
  [int] The number of objects returned by `func`.

- `identity`
  [object, optional] The value to use for the `identity` attribute of the resulting object. If specified, this is equivalent to setting the underlying C `identity` field to `PyUFunc_IdentityValue`. If omitted, the `identity` is set to `PyUFunc_None`. Note that this is _not_ equivalent to setting the `identity` to `None`, which implies the operation is reorderable.

**Returns**

- `out`
  [ufunc] Returns a NumPy universal function (ufunc) object.
See also:

vectorize

Evaluates pyfunc over input arrays using broadcasting rules of numpy.

Notes

The returned ufunc always returns PyObject arrays.

Examples

Use frompyfunc to add broadcasting to the Python function oct:

```python
def frompyfunc(oct, 1, 1):
    return lambda x: oct(x)

oct_array = np.frompyfunc(oct, 1, 1)
arr = np.array((10, 30, 100))
print(oct_array(arr))
```

`numpy.piecewise(x, condlist, funclist, *args, **kw)`

Evaluate a piecewise-defined function.

Given a set of conditions and corresponding functions, evaluate each function on the input data wherever its condition is true.

Parameters

- `x`
  
  [ndarray or scalar] The input domain.

- `condlist`
  
  [list of bool arrays or bool scalars] Each boolean array corresponds to a function in `funclist`. Wherever `condlist[i]` is True, `funclist[i](x)` is used as the output value.

  Each boolean array in `condlist` selects a piece of `x`, and should therefore be of the same shape as `x`.

  The length of `condlist` must correspond to that of `funclist`. If one extra function is given, i.e. if `len(funclist) == len(condlist) + 1`, then that extra function is the default value, used wherever all conditions are false.

- `funclist`
  
  [list of callables, f(x,*args,**kw), or scalars] Each function is evaluated over `x` wherever its corresponding condition is True. It should take a 1d array as input and give an 1d array or a scalar value as output. If, instead of a callable, a scalar is provided then a constant function (lambda x: scalar) is assumed.

- `args`
  
  [tuple, optional] Any further arguments given to `piecewise` are passed to the functions upon execution, i.e., if called `piecewise(..., ..., 1, 'a')`, then each function is called as `f(x, 1, 'a')`.

4.12. Functional programming
kw

[dict, optional] Keyword arguments used in calling `piecewise` are passed to the functions upon execution, i.e., if called `piecewise(..., ..., alpha=1)`, then each function is called as `f(x, alpha=1)`.

Returns

out

[ndarray] The output is the same shape and type as `x` and is found by calling the functions in `funclist` on the appropriate portions of `x`, as defined by the boolean arrays in `condlist`. Portions not covered by any condition have a default value of 0.

See also:

`choose`, `select`, `where`

Notes

This is similar to `choose` or `select`, except that functions are evaluated on elements of `x` that satisfy the corresponding condition from `condlist`.

The result is:

```
|---
|funclist[0](x[condlist[0]])
out = |funclist[1](x[condlist[1]])
    |...
    |funclist[n2](x[condlist[n2]])
|---
```

Examples

Define the sigma function, which is -1 for `x < 0` and +1 for `x >= 0`.

```python
>>> x = np.linspace(-2.5, 2.5, 6)
>>> np.piecewise(x, [x < 0, x >= 0], [-1, 1])
array([-1., -1., -1.,  1.,  1.,  1.])
```

Define the absolute value, which is `-x` for `x < 0` and `x` for `x >= 0`.

```python
>>> np.piecewise(x, [x < 0, x >= 0], [lambda x: -x, lambda x: x])
array([2.5, 1.5, 0.5, 0.5, 1.5, 2.5])
```

Apply the same function to a scalar value.

```python
>>> y = -2
>>> np.piecewise(y, [y < 0, y >= 0], [lambda x: -x, lambda x: x])
array(2)
```
4.13 NumPy-specific help functions

4.13.1 Finding help

```python
lookfor(what[, module, import_modules, …]) Do a keyword search on docstrings.
```

`numpy.lookfor (what, module=None, import_modules=True, regenerate=False, output=None)`

Do a keyword search on docstrings.

A list of objects that matched the search is displayed, sorted by relevance. All given keywords need to be found in the docstring for it to be returned as a result, but the order does not matter.

**Parameters**

- **what**
  
  [str] String containing words to look for.

- **module**
  
  [str or list, optional] Name of module(s) whose docstrings to go through.

- **import_modules**
  
  [bool, optional] Whether to import sub-modules in packages. Default is True.

- **regenerate**
  
  [bool, optional] Whether to re-generate the docstring cache. Default is False.

- **output**
  
  [file-like, optional] File-like object to write the output to. If omitted, use a pager.

**See also:**

`source`, `info`

**Notes**

Relevance is determined only roughly, by checking if the keywords occur in the function name, at the start of a docstring, etc.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.lookfor('binary representation')
Search results for 'binary representation'
----------------------------
numpy.binary_repr
   Return the binary representation of the input number as a string.
numpy.core.setup_common.long_double_representation
   Given a binary dump as given by GNU od -b, look for long double
numpy.base_repr
   Return a string representation of a number in the given base system.
...```
4.13.2 Reading help

numpy.info (object=None, maxwidth=76, output=<_io.TextIOWrapper name='<stdout>' mode='w'
    encoding='utf-8', toplevel='numpy')

Get help information for a function, class, or module.

Parameters

object

[object or str, optional] Input object or name to get information about. If object is a numpy
object, its docstring is given. If it is a string, available modules are searched for matching
objects. If None, information about info itself is returned.

maxwidth

[int, optional] Printing width.

output

[file like object, optional] File like object that the output is written to, default is stdout. The
object has to be opened in 'w' or 'a' mode.

toplevel

[ex, optional] Start search at this level.

See also:

source, lookfor

Notes

When used interactively with an object, np.info(obj) is equivalent to help(obj) on the Python prompt or
obj? on the IPython prompt.

Examples

```python
>>> np.info(np.polyval)
polyval(p, x)
    Evaluate the polynomial p at x.
...
```

When using a string for object it is possible to get multiple results.

```python
>>> np.info('fft')
    *** Found in numpy ***
Core FFT routines
...
    *** Found in numpy.fft ***
fft(a, n=None, axis=-1)
...
```

(continues on next page)
numpy.source (object, output=<_io.TextIOWrapper name='<stdout>' mode='w' encoding='utf-8'>)

Print or write to a file the source code for a NumPy object.

The source code is only returned for objects written in Python. Many functions and classes are defined in C and will therefore not return useful information.

Parameters

- **object**
  [numpy object] Input object. This can be any object (function, class, module, …).

- **output**
  [file object, optional] If output not supplied then source code is printed to screen (sys.stdout). File object must be created with either write 'w' or append 'a' modes.

See also:

- **lookfor**, **info**

Examples

```python
>>> np.source(np.interp)
In file: /usr/lib/python2.6/dist-packages/numpy/lib/function_base.py
def interp(x, xp, fp, left=None, right=None):
    """... (full docstring printed)""
    if isinstance(x, (float, int, number)):
        return compiled_interp([x], xp, fp, left, right).item()
    else:
        return compiled_interp(x, xp, fp, left, right)
```

The source code is only returned for objects written in Python.

```python
>>> np.source(np.array)
Not available for this object.
```

4.14 Indexing routines

See also:

- **Indexing**

4.14.1 Generating index arrays

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<td>Converts a flat index or array of flat indices into a tuple of coordinate arrays.</td>
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<td>Return the indices to access the main diagonal of an n-dimensional array.</td>
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<td>Return the indices to access (n, n) arrays, given a masking function.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tril_indices(n[, k, m])</code></td>
<td>Return the indices for the lower-triangle of an (n, m) array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tril_indices_from(arr[, k])</code></td>
<td>Return the indices for the lower-triangle of arr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>triu_indices(n[, k, m])</code></td>
<td>Return the indices for the upper-triangle of an (n, m) array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>triu_indices_from(arr[, k])</code></td>
<td>Return the indices for the upper-triangle of arr.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```
numpy.c_ = <numpy.lib.index_tricks.CClass object>
```

Translates slice objects to concatenation along the second axis.

This is short-hand for `np.r_['-1,2,0', index expression]`, which is useful because of its common occurrence. In particular, arrays will be stacked along their last axis after being upgraded to at least 2-D with 1’s post-pended to the shape (column vectors made out of 1-D arrays).

See also:

* `column_stack`
  Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.

* `r_
  For more detailed documentation.
Examples

```python
>>> np.c_[np.array([[1, 2, 3]]), np.array([[4, 5, 6]])
array([[1, 4],
       [2, 5],
       [3, 6]])
```

```python
>>> np.c_[np.array([[1, 2, 3]]), 0, 0, np.array([[4, 5, 6]])
array([[1, 2, 3, ..., 4, 5, 6]])
```

```python
numpy._ = <numpy.lib.index_tricks.RClass object>
```

Translates slice objects to concatenation along the first axis.

This is a simple way to build up arrays quickly. There are two use cases.

1. If the index expression contains comma separated arrays, then stack them along their first axis.
2. If the index expression contains slice notation or scalars then create a 1-D array with a range indicated by the slice notation.

If slice notation is used, the syntax `start:stop:step` is equivalent to `np.arange(start, stop, step)` inside of the brackets. However, if `step` is an imaginary number (i.e. 100j) then its integer portion is interpreted as a number-of-points desired and the start and stop are inclusive. In other words `start:stop:stepj` is interpreted as `np.linspace(start, stop, step, endpoint=1)` inside of the brackets. After expansion of slice notation, all comma separated sequences are concatenated together.

Optional character strings placed as the first element of the index expression can be used to change the output. The strings ‘r’ or ‘c’ result in matrix output. If the result is 1-D and ‘r’ is specified a 1 x N (row) matrix is produced. If the result is 1-D and ‘c’ is specified, then a N x 1 (column) matrix is produced. If the result is 2-D then both provide the same matrix result.

A string integer specifies which axis to stack multiple comma separated arrays along. A string of two comma-separated integers allows indication of the minimum number of dimensions to force each entry into as the second integer (the axis to concatenate along is still the first integer).

A string with three comma-separated integers allows specification of the axis to concatenate along, the minimum number of dimensions to force the entries to, and which axis should contain the start of the arrays which are less than the specified number of dimensions. In other words the third integer allows you to specify where the 1’s should be placed in the shape of the arrays that have their shapes upgraded. By default, they are placed in the front of the shape tuple. The third argument allows you to specify where the start of the array should be instead. Thus, a third argument of ‘0’ would place the 1’s at the end of the array shape. Negative integers specify where in the new shape tuple the last dimension of upgraded arrays should be placed, so the default is ‘-1’.

Parameters

Not a function, so takes no parameters

Returns

A concatenated ndarray or matrix.

See also:

`concatenate`

Join a sequence of arrays along an existing axis.

`c_`

Translates slice objects to concatenation along the second axis.
Examples

```python
>>> np.r_[np.array([1,2,3]), 0, 0, np.array([4,5,6])
array([1, 2, 3, ... , 4, 5, 6])
>>> np.r_[-1:1:6], [0]*3, 5, 6
array([-1., -0.6, -0.2, 0.2, 0.6, 1., 0., 0., 0., 5., 6.])
```

String integers specify the axis to concatenate along or the minimum number of dimensions to force entries into.

```python
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1, 2], [3, 4, 5]])
>>> np.r_[-1, a, a]  # concatenate along last axis
array([[0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5, 3, 4, 5]])
>>> np.r_['0,2', [1,2,3], [4,5,6]]  # concatenate along first axis, dim>=2
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
```

Using ‘r’ or ‘c’ as a first string argument creates a matrix.

```python
>>> np.r_['r', [1,2,3], [4,5,6]]
matrix([[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]])
```

```
numpy.s_ = <numpy.lib.index_tricks/IndexExpression object>
A nicer way to build up index tuples for arrays.
```

Note: Use one of the two predefined instances `index_exp` or `s_` rather than directly using `IndexExpression`.

For any index combination, including slicing and axis insertion, `a[indices]` is the same as `a[np.index_exp[indices]]` for any array `a`. However, `np.index_exp[indices]` can be used anywhere in Python code and returns a tuple of slice objects that can be used in the construction of complex index expressions.

Parameters

- `maketuple` (bool) If True, always returns a tuple.

See also:

- `index_exp`

Predefined instance that always returns a tuple: `index_exp = IndexExpression(maketuple=True).`
Predefined instance without tuple conversion: \( s_\) = `IndexExpression(maketuple=False)`.

**Notes**

You can do all this with `slice()` plus a few special objects, but there's a lot to remember and this version is simpler because it uses the standard array indexing syntax.

**Examples**

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{np.s_[2::2]} \\
&\text{slice(2, None, 2)} \\
&\text{np.index_exp[2::2]} \\
&(\text{slice(2, None, 2),}) \\
&\text{np.array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])[np.s_[2::2]]} \\
&\text{array([2, 4])}
\end{align*}
\]

`numpy.nonzero(a)`
Return the indices of the elements that are non-zero.

Returns a tuple of arrays, one for each dimension of \( a \), containing the indices of the non-zero elements in that dimension. The values in \( a \) are always tested and returned in row-major, C-style order.

To group the indices by element, rather than dimension, use `argwhere`, which returns a row for each non-zero element.

**Note:** When called on a zero-d array or scalar, `nonzero(a)` is treated as `nonzero(atleast_1d(a))`. Deprecated since version 1.17.0: Use `atleast_1d` explicitly if this behavior is deliberate.

**Parameters**

\( a \)
[array_like] Input array.

**Returns**

`tuple_of_arrays`
[tuple] Indices of elements that are non-zero.

**See also:**

`flatnonzero`
Return indices that are non-zero in the flattened version of the input array.

`ndarray.nonzero`
Equivalent ndarray method.
**count_nonzero**

Counts the number of non-zero elements in the input array.

**Notes**

While the nonzero values can be obtained with \( a[\text{nonzero}(a)] \), it is recommended to use \( x[\text{x. astype(bool)}] \) or \( x[\text{x. != 0}] \) instead, which will correctly handle 0-d arrays.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.array([[3, 0, 0], [0, 4, 0], [5, 6, 0]])
>>> x
array([[3, 0, 0],
       [0, 4, 0],
       [5, 6, 0]])
>>> np.nonzero(x)
(array([0, 1, 2, 2]), array([0, 1, 0, 1]))

>>> x[np.nonzero(x)]
array([3, 4, 5, 6])
```

A common use for `nonzero` is to find the indices of an array, where a condition is True. Given an array \( a \), the condition \( a > 3 \) is a boolean array and since False is interpreted as 0, np.nonzero(a > 3) yields the indices of the \( a \) where the condition is true.

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]])
>>> a > 3
array([[False, False, True],
       [ True, True, True],
       [ True, True, True]])
>>> np.nonzero(a > 3)
(array([1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2]), array([0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2]))
```

Using this result to index \( a \) is equivalent to using the mask directly:

```python
>>> a[np.nonzero(a > 3)]
array([4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
```

`nonzero` can also be called as a method of the array.

```python
>>> (a > 3).nonzero()
(array([1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2]), array([0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2]))
```

`numpy.where(condition, x, y)`

Return elements chosen from \( x \) or \( y \) depending on \( condition \).
Note: When only condition is provided, this function is a shorthand for np.asarray(condition). Using nonzero directly should be preferred, as it behaves correctly for subclasses. The rest of this documentation covers only the case where all three arguments are provided.

Parameters

condition

[array_like, bool] Where True, yield x, otherwise yield y.

x, y

[array_like] Values from which to choose. x, y and condition need to be broadcastable to some shape.

Returns

out

[ndarray] An array with elements from x where condition is True, and elements from y elsewhere.

See also:

choose

nonzero

The function that is called when x and y are omitted

Notes

If all the arrays are 1-D, where is equivalent to:

```python
[xv if c else yv
 for c, xv, yv in zip(condition, x, y)]
```

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(10)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
>>> np.where(a < 5, a, 10*a)
array([ 0,  1,  2,  3,  4, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90])
```

This can be used on multidimensional arrays too:

```python
>>> np.where([[True, False], [True, True]],
          [[1, 2], [3, 4]],
          [[9, 8], [7, 6]])
array([[1, 8],
       [3, 4]])
```

The shapes of x, y, and the condition are broadcast together:
```python
>>> x, y = np.ogrid[:3, :4]
>>> np.where(x < y, x, 10 + y)  # both x and 10+y are broadcast
array([[10, 0, 0, 0],
       [10, 11, 1, 1],
       [10, 11, 12, 2]])

>>> a = np.array([[0, 1, 2],
                 [0, 2, 4],
                 [0, 3, 6]])
>>> np.where(a < 4, a, -1)  # -1 is broadcast
array([[ 0,  1,  2],
       [ 0,  2, -1],
       [ 0,  3, -1]])
```

NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

numpy.indices(dimensions, dtype=<class 'int'>, sparse=False)

Return an array representing the indices of a grid.

Compute an array where the subarrays contain index values 0, 1, … varying only along the corresponding axis.

Parameters

- **dimensions**
  - [sequence of ints] The shape of the grid.

- **dtype**
  - [dtype, optional] Data type of the result.

- **sparse**
  - [boolean, optional] Return a sparse representation of the grid instead of a dense representation. Default is False.

  New in version 1.17.

Returns

- **grid**
  - [one ndarray or tuple of ndarrays]

  If sparse is False:

  Returns one array of grid indices, grid.shape = (len(dimensions),) + tuple(dimensions).

  If sparse is True:

  Returns a tuple of arrays, with grid[i].shape = (1, ..., 1, dimensions[i], 1, ..., 1) with dimensions[i] in the ith place

See also:

* mgrid, ogrid, meshgrid
Notes

The output shape in the dense case is obtained by prepending the number of dimensions in front of the tuple of dimensions, i.e. if `dimensions` is a tuple \((r_0, \ldots, r_{N-1})\) of length \(N\), the output shape is \((N, r_0, \ldots, r_{N-1})\).

The subarrays `grid[k]` contains the N-D array of indices along the \(k\)-th axis. Explicitly:

```
grid[k, i0, i1, ..., iN-1] = ik
```

Examples

```python
grid = np.indices((2, 3))
grid.shape
(2, 2, 3)
grid[0]  # row indices
array([[0, 0, 0],
        [1, 1, 1]])
grid[1]  # column indices
array([[0, 1, 2],
        [0, 1, 2]])
```

The indices can be used as an index into an array.

```python
x = np.arange(20).reshape(5, 4)
row, col = np.indices((2, 3))
x[row, col]
array([[0, 1, 2, 3],
        [4, 5, 6, 7]])
```

Note that it would be more straightforward in the above example to extract the required elements directly with `x[:2, :3]`.

If sparse is set to True, the grid will be returned in a sparse representation.

```python
i, j = np.indices((2, 3), sparse=True)
i.shape
(2, 1)
j.shape
(1, 3)
i  # row indices
array([[0],
        [1]])
j  # column indices
array([[0, 1, 2]])
```

`numpy.ix_(*args)`

Construct an open mesh from multiple sequences.

This function takes \(N\) 1-D sequences and returns \(N\) outputs with \(N\) dimensions each, such that the shape is 1 in all but one dimension and the dimension with the non-unit shape value cycles through all \(N\) dimensions.

Using `ix_` one can quickly construct index arrays that will index the cross product. `a[np.ix_(([1,3],[2, 5])]` returns the array `[[a[1,2] a[1,5]], [a[3,2] a[3,5]]].`
args

[1-D sequences] Each sequence should be of integer or boolean type. Boolean sequences will be interpreted as boolean masks for the corresponding dimension (equivalent to passing in `np.nonzero(boolean_sequence)`).

Returns

out

[tuple of ndarrays] N arrays with N dimensions each, with N the number of input sequences. Together these arrays form an open mesh.

See also:

`ogrid`, `mgrid`, `meshgrid`

Examples

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

```python
>>> ixgrid = np.ix_([True, True], [2, 4])
>>> a[ixgrid]
array([[2, 4],
       [7, 9]])
>>> ixgrid = np.ix_([True, True], [False, False, True, False, True])
>>> a[ixgrid]
array([[2, 4],
       [7, 9]])
```

```
numpy.ravel_multi_index (multi_index, dims, mode='raise', order='C')
```

Converts a tuple of index arrays into an array of flat indices, applying boundary modes to the multi-index.

Parameters

multi_index

[tuple of array_like] A tuple of integer arrays, one array for each dimension.

dims

[tuple of ints] The shape of array into which the indices from `multi_index` apply.

mode
[{'raise', 'wrap', 'clip'}, optional] Specifies how out-of-bounds indices are handled. Can specify either one mode or a tuple of modes, one mode per index.

- **'raise'** – raise an error (default)
- **'wrap'** – wrap around
- **'clip'** – clip to the range

In ‘clip’ mode, a negative index which would normally wrap will clip to 0 instead.

**order**

[{'C', 'F'}, optional] Determines whether the multi-index should be viewed as indexing in row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order.

**Returns**

**raveled_indices**

[ndarray] An array of indices into the flattened version of an array of dimensions `dims`.

**See also:**

`unravel_index`

**Notes**

New in version 1.6.0.

**Examples**

```python
>>> arr = np.array([[3, 6, 6], [4, 5, 1]])
>>> np.ravel_multi_index(arr, (7, 6))
array([22, 41, 37])
>>> np.ravel_multi_index(arr, (7, 6), order='F')
array([31, 41, 13])
>>> np.ravel_multi_index(arr, (4, 6), mode='clip')
array([22, 23, 19])
>>> np.ravel_multi_index(arr, (4, 4), mode=('clip', 'wrap'))
array([12, 13, 13])
```

```
>>> np.ravel_multi_index((3, 1, 4, 1), (6, 7, 8, 9))
1621
```

**numpy.unravel_index** *(indices, shape, order='C')*

Converts a flat index or array of flat indices into a tuple of coordinate arrays.

**Parameters**

**indices**

[array_like] An integer array whose elements are indices into the flattened version of an array of dimensions `shape`. Before version 1.6.0, this function accepted just one index value.
shape
[tuple of ints] The shape of the array to use for unraveling indices.
Changed in version 1.16.0: Renamed from dims to shape.

order
[{'C', 'F'}, optional] Determines whether the indices should be viewed as indexing in row-major
(C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order.
New in version 1.6.0.

Returns

unraveled_coords
[tuple of ndarray] Each array in the tuple has the same shape as the indices array.

See also:

ravel_multi_index

Examples

```python
>>> np.unravel_index([22, 41, 37], (7, 6))
(array([3, 6, 6]), array([4, 5, 1]))
>>> np.unravel_index([31, 41, 13], (7, 6), order='F')
(array([3, 6, 6]), array([4, 5, 1]))
>>> np.unravel_index(1621, (6, 7, 8, 9))
(3, 1, 4, 1)
```

numpy.diag_indices(n, ndim=2)
Return the indices to access the main diagonal of an array.

This returns a tuple of indices that can be used to access the main diagonal of an array a with a.ndim >= 2
dimensions and shape (n, n, ..., n). For a.ndim = 2 this is the usual diagonal, for a.ndim > 2 this is the set
of indices to access a[i, i, ..., i] for i = [0..n-1].

Parameters

n
[int] The size, along each dimension, of the arrays for which the returned indices can be used.

ndim
[int, optional] The number of dimensions.

See also:

diag_indices_from
Notes

New in version 1.4.0.

Examples

Create a set of indices to access the diagonal of a (4, 4) array:

```python
>>> di = np.diag_indices(4)
>>> di
(array([0, 1, 2, 3]), array([0, 1, 2, 3]))

>>> a = np.arange(16).reshape(4, 4)
>>> a
array([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11],
        [12, 13, 14, 15]])

>>> a[di] = 100
>>> a
array([[100,  1,  2,  3],
        [ 4, 100,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 100, 11],
        [12, 13, 14, 100]])
```

Now, we create indices to manipulate a 3-D array:

```python
>>> d3 = np.diag_indices(2, 3)
>>> d3
(array([0, 1]), array([0, 1]), array([0, 1]))
```

And use it to set the diagonal of an array of zeros to 1:

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((2, 2, 2), dtype=int)
>>> a[d3] = 1
>>> a
array([[[ 1,  0],
        [ 0,  0]],
        [[ 0,  0],
        [ 0,  1]]])
```

`numpy.diag_indices_from(arr)`

Return the indices to access the main diagonal of an n-dimensional array.

See `diag_indices` for full details.

Parameters

- arr
  - [array, at least 2-D]

See also:

`diag_indices`
Notes

New in version 1.4.0.

numpy.mask_indices(n, mask_func, k=0)

Return the indices to access (n, n) arrays, given a masking function.

Assume mask_fun is a function that, for a square array a of size (n, n) with a possible offset argument k, when called as mask_func(a, k) returns a new array with zeros in certain locations (functions like triu or tril do precisely this). Then this function returns the indices where the non-zero values would be located.

Parameters

n

[int] The returned indices will be valid to access arrays of shape (n, n).

mask_func

[callable] A function whose call signature is similar to that of triu, tril. That is, mask_func(x, k) returns a boolean array, shaped like x. k is an optional argument to the function.

k

[scalar] An optional argument which is passed through to mask_func. Functions like triu, tril take a second argument that is interpreted as an offset.

Returns

indices

[tuple of arrays.] The n arrays of indices corresponding to the locations where mask_func(np.ones((n, n)), k) is True.

See also:

triu, tril, triu_indices, tril_indices

Notes

New in version 1.4.0.

Examples

These are the indices that would allow you to access the upper triangular part of any 3x3 array:

```python
>>> iu = np.mask_indices(3, np.triu)
```

For example, if a is a 3x3 array:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(9).reshape(3, 3)
>>> a
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5],
       [6, 7, 8]])
>>> a[iu]
array([0, 1, 2, 4, 5, 8])
```
An offset can be passed also to the masking function. This gets us the indices starting on the first diagonal right of the main one:

```python
>>> iu1 = np.mask_indices(3, np.triu, 1)
```

with which we now extract only three elements:

```python
>>> a[iu1]
array([1, 2, 5])
```

**numpy.tril_indices** \((n, k=0, m=None)\)

Return the indices for the lower-triangle of an \((n,m)\) array.

**Parameters**

- \(n\)  
  [int] The row dimension of the arrays for which the returned indices will be valid.

- \(k\)  
  [int, optional] Diagonal offset (see \texttt{tril} for details).

- \(m\)  
  [int, optional] New in version 1.9.0. The column dimension of the arrays for which the returned arrays will be valid. By default \(m\) is taken equal to \(n\).

**Returns**

- \(inds\)  
  [tuple of arrays] The indices for the triangle. The returned tuple contains two arrays, each with the indices along one dimension of the array.

**See also:**

- \texttt{triu_indices}\n  similar function, for upper-triangular.

- \texttt{mask_indices}\n  generic function accepting an arbitrary mask function.

- \texttt{tril, triu}\n
**Notes**

New in version 1.4.0.
Examples

Compute two different sets of indices to access 4x4 arrays, one for the lower triangular part starting at the main diagonal, and one starting two diagonals further right:

```python
>>> i11 = np.tril_indices(4)
>>> i12 = np.tril_indices(4, 2)
```

Here is how they can be used with a sample array:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(16).reshape(4, 4)
>>> a
array([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
       [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
       [ 8,  9, 10, 11],
       [12, 13, 14, 15]])
```

Both for indexing:

```python
>>> a[i11]
array([ 0,  4,  5, ..., 13, 14, 15])
```

And for assigning values:

```python
>>> a[i11] = -1
>>> a
array([[-1,  1,  2,  3],
       [-1, -1,  6,  7],
       [-1, -1, -1, 11],
       [-1, -1, -1, -1]])
```

These cover almost the whole array (two diagonals right of the main one):

```python
>>> a[i12] = -10
>>> a
array([[-10, -10, -10,  3],
       [-10, -10, -10, -10],
       [-10, -10, -10, -10],
       [-10, -10, -10, -10]])
```

numpy.tril_indices_from(arr, k=0)

Return the indices for the lower-triangle of arr.

See `tril_indices` for full details.

Parameters

- **arr**
  - [array_like] The indices will be valid for square arrays whose dimensions are the same as arr.

- **k**
  - [int, optional] Diagonal offset (see `tril` for details).

See also:

- `tril_indices`, `tril`
numpy.triu_indices(n, k=0, m=None)

Return the indices for the upper-triangle of an (n, m) array.

Parameters

n
[int] The size of the arrays for which the returned indices will be valid.

k
[int, optional] Diagonal offset (see triu for details).

m
[int, optional] New in version 1.9.0.
The column dimension of the arrays for which the returned arrays will be valid. By default m is taken equal to n.

Returns

inds
[tuple, shape(2) of ndarrays, shape(n)] The indices for the triangle. The returned tuple contains two arrays, each with the indices along one dimension of the array. Can be used to slice a ndarray of shape(n, n).

See also:

tril_indices
similar function, for lower-triangular.

mask_indices
generic function accepting an arbitrary mask function.

Notes

New in version 1.4.0.

Examples

Compute two different sets of indices to access 4x4 arrays, one for the upper triangular part starting at the main diagonal, and one starting two diagonals further right:

```python
>>> ii1 = np.triu_indices(4)
>>> ii2 = np.triu_indices(4, 2)
```

Here is how they can be used with a sample array:
```python
>>> a = np.arange(16).reshape(4, 4)
>>> a
array([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
       [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
       [ 8,  9, 10, 11],
       [12, 13, 14, 15]])
```

Both for indexing:

```python
>>> a[iu1]
array([ 0,  1,  2, ..., 10, 11, 15])
```

And for assigning values:

```python
>>> a[iu1] = -1
>>> a
array([[ -1, -1, -1, -1],
       [ 4, -1, -1, -1],
       [ 8,  9, -1, -1],
       [12, 13, 14, -1]])
```

These cover only a small part of the whole array (two diagonals right of the main one):

```python
>>> a[iu2] = -10
>>> a
array([[ -1, -1, -10, -10],
       [ 4, -1, -1, -10],
       [ 8,  9, -1, -1],
       [12, 13, 14, -1]])
```

```python
numpy.triu_indices_from(arr, k=0)
```

Return the indices for the upper-triangle of `arr`.

See `triu_indices` for full details.

**Parameters**

- `arr` - [ndarray, shape(N, N)] The indices will be valid for square arrays.
- `k` - [int, optional] Diagonal offset (see `triu` for details).

**Returns**

- `triu_indices_from` - [tuple, shape(2) of ndarray, shape(N)] Indices for the upper-triangle of `arr`.

See also:

- `triu_indices`, `triu`
Notes

New in version 1.4.0.

4.14.2 Indexing-like operations

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```python
numpy.take(a, indices, axis=None, out=None, mode='raise')
```

Take elements from an array along an axis.

When axis is not None, this function does the same thing as “fancy” indexing (indexing arrays using arrays); however, it can be easier to use if you need elements along a given axis. A call such as `np.take(arr, indices, axis=3)` is equivalent to `arr[:,:,:,indices,...]`.

Explained without fancy indexing, this is equivalent to the following use of `ndindex`, which sets each of `ii`, `jj`, and `kk` to a tuple of indices:

```python
Ni, Nk = a.shape[:axis], a.shape[axis+1:]
Nj = indices.shape
for ii in ndindex(Ni):
    for jj in ndindex(Nj):
        for kk in ndindex(Nk):
            out[ii + jj + kk] = a[ii + (indices[jj],) + kk]
```

Parameters

- **a**
  - [array_like (Ni…, M, Nk…)] The source array.
- **indices**
  - [array_like (Nj…)] The indices of the values to extract.

New in version 1.8.0.

Also allow scalars for indices.

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] The axis over which to select values. By default, the flattened input array is used.
out

[ndarray, optional (Ni..., Nj..., Nk...)] If provided, the result will be placed in this array. It should be of the appropriate shape and dtype. Note that \textit{out} is always buffered if \textit{mode}='\texttt{raise}'; use other modes for better performance.

\textbf{mode}

\{'raise', 'wrap', 'clip', \} optional] Specifies how out-of-bounds indices will behave.

- \texttt{‘raise’} – raise an error (default)
- \texttt{‘wrap’} – wrap around
- \texttt{‘clip’} – clip to the range

\texttt{‘clip’} mode means that all indices that are too large are replaced by the index that addresses the last element along that axis. Note that this disables indexing with negative numbers.

\textbf{Returns}

\textbf{out}

[ndarray (Ni..., Nj..., Nk...)] The returned array has the same type as \textit{a}.

\textbf{See also:}

\textit{compress}

Take elements using a boolean mask

\textit{ndarray.take}

equivalent method

\textit{take_along_axis}

Take elements by matching the array and the index arrays

\textbf{Notes}

By eliminating the inner loop in the description above, and using \texttt{s_} to build simple slice objects, \textit{take} can be expressed in terms of applying fancy indexing to each 1-d slice:

\begin{verbatim}
Ni, Nk = a.shape[:axis], a.shape[axis+1:]
for ii in ndindex(Ni):
    for kk in ndindex(Nj):
        out[ii + s_... + kk] = a[ii + s_[:,:] + kk][indices]
\end{verbatim}

For this reason, it is equivalent to (but faster than) the following use of \textit{apply_along_axis}:

\begin{verbatim}
out = np.apply_along_axis(lambd\a_1d: a_1d[indices], axis, a)
\end{verbatim}
Examples

```python
>>> a = [4, 3, 5, 7, 6, 8]
>>> indices = [0, 1, 4]
>>> np.take(a, indices)
array([4, 3, 6])
```

In this example if `a` is an ndarray, “fancy” indexing can be used.

```python
>>> a = np.array(a)
>>> a[indices]
array([4, 3, 6])
```

If `indices` is not one dimensional, the output also has these dimensions.

```python
>>> np.take(a, [[0, 1], [2, 3]])
array([[4, 3],
       [5, 7]])
```

NumPy's `take_along_axis(arr, indices, axis)` function:

```
take_along_axis(arr, indices, axis)
```

Take values from the input array by matching 1d index and data slices. This iterates over matching 1d slices oriented along the specified axis in the index and data arrays, and uses the former to look up values in the latter. These slices can be different lengths.

Functions returning an index along an axis, like `argsort` and `argpartition`, produce suitable indices for this function.

New in version 1.15.0.

**Parameters**

- `arr`
  - [ndarray (Ni..., M, Nk...) ] Source array

- `indices`
  - [ndarray (Ni..., J, Nk...) ] Indices to take along each 1d slice of `arr`. This must match the dimension of `arr`, but dimensions Ni and Nj only need to broadcast against `arr`.

- `axis`
  - [int] The axis to take 1d slices along. If axis is `None`, the input array is treated as if it had first been flattened to 1d, for consistency with `sort` and `argsort`.

**Returns**

- `out`: ndarray (Ni..., J, Nk...)
  - The indexed result.

**See also:**

- `take`  
  Take along an axis, using the same indices for every 1d slice

- `put_along_axis`
  - Put values into the destination array by matching 1d index and data slices
Notes

This is equivalent to (but faster than) the following use of \texttt{ndindex} and \texttt{s_}, which sets each of \texttt{ii} and \texttt{kk} to a tuple of indices:

\begin{verbatim}
Ni, M, Nk = a.shape[:axis], a.shape[axis], a.shape[axis+1:]
J = indices.shape[axis]  # Need not equal M
out = np.empty((Ni + (J,) + Nk)

for ii in ndindex(Ni):
    for kk in ndindex(Nk):
        a_1d = a[ii + s_:kk] + kk
        indices_1d = indices[ii + s_:kk] + kk
        out_1d = out[ii + s_:kk] + kk
        for j in range(J):
            out_1d[j] = a_1d[indices_1d[j]]
\end{verbatim}

Equivalently, eliminating the inner loop, the last two lines would be:

\begin{verbatim}
out_1d[:] = a_1d[indices_1d]
\end{verbatim}

Examples

For this sample array

\begin{verbatim}
>>> a = np.array([[10, 30, 20],

[60, 40, 50]])
\end{verbatim}

We can sort either by using \texttt{sort} directly, or \texttt{argsort} and this function

\begin{verbatim}
>>> np.sort(a, axis=1)
array([[10, 20, 30],

[40, 50, 60]])
>>> ai = np.argsort(a, axis=1); ai
array([[0, 2, 1],

[1, 2, 0]])
>>> np.take_along_axis(a, ai, axis=1)
array([[10, 20, 30],

[40, 50, 60]])
\end{verbatim}

The same works for \texttt{max} and \texttt{min}, if you expand the dimensions:

\begin{verbatim}
>>> np.expand_dims(np.max(a, axis=1), axis=1)
array([[30],

[60]])
>>> ai = np.expand_dims(np.argmax(a, axis=1), axis=1)
>>> ai
array([[1],

[0]])
>>> np.take_along_axis(a, ai, axis=1)
array([[30],

[60]])
\end{verbatim}

If we want to get the \texttt{max} and \texttt{min} at the same time, we can stack the indices first

\begin{verbatim}
>>> ai_min = np.expand_dims(np.argmin(a, axis=1), axis=1)
>>> ai_max = np.expand_dims(np.argmax(a, axis=1), axis=1)
\end{verbatim}
numpy.concatenate([ai_min, ai_max], axis=1)
array([[0, 1],
       [1, 0]])

>>> np.take_along_axis(a, ai, axis=1)
array([[10, 30],
       [40, 60]])

numpy.choose(a, choices, out=None, mode='raise')

Construct an array from an index array and a list of arrays to choose from.

First of all, if confused or uncertain, definitely look at the Examples - in its full generality, this function is less simple than it might seem from the following code description (below ndi = numpy.lib.index_tricks):
numpy.choose(a,c) == numpy.array([c[a[I]] for I in ndi.ndindex(a.shape)]).

But this omits some subtleties. Here is a fully general summary:

Given an “index” array (a) of integers and a sequence of n arrays (choices), a and each choice array are first broadcast, as necessary, to arrays of a common shape; calling these Ba and Bchoices[i], i = 0,...,n-1 we have that, necessarily, Ba.shape == Bchoices[i].shape for each i. Then, a new array with shape Ba.shape is created as follows:

• if mode='raise' (the default), then, first of all, each element of a (and thus Ba) must be in the range [0, n-1]; now, suppose that i (in that range) is the value at the (j0, j1,..., jm) position in Ba - then the value at the same position in the new array is the value in Bchoices[i] at that same position;
• if mode='wrap', values in a (and thus Ba) may be any (signed) integer; modular arithmetic is used to map integers outside the range [0, n-1] back into that range; and then the new array is constructed as above;
• if mode='clip', values in a (and thus Ba) may be any (signed) integer; negative integers are mapped to 0; values greater than n-1 are mapped to n-1; and then the new array is constructed as above.

Parameters

a
[int array] This array must contain integers in [0, n-1], where n is the number of choices, unless mode=wrap or mode=clip, in which cases any integers are permissible.

choices
[sequence of arrays] Choice arrays. a and all of the choices must be broadcastable to the same shape. If choices is itself an array (not recommended), then its outermost dimension (i.e., the one corresponding to choices.shape[0]) is taken as defining the “sequence”.

out
[array, optional] If provided, the result will be inserted into this array. It should be of the appropriate shape and dtype. Note that out is always buffered if mode='raise'; use other modes for better performance.

mode
[[‘raise’ (default), ‘wrap’, ‘clip’], optional] Specifies how indices outside [0, n-1] will be treated:
• ‘raise’: an exception is raised
• ‘wrap’: value becomes value mod n
• ‘clip’: values < 0 are mapped to 0, values > n-1 are mapped to n-1
Returns

merged_array

[array] The merged result.

Raises

ValueError: shape mismatch

If \( a \) and each choice array are not all broadcastable to the same shape.

See also:

`ndarray.choose`

equivalent method

`numpy.take_along_axis`

Preferable if `choices` is an array

Notes

To reduce the chance of misinterpretation, even though the following “abuse” is nominally supported, `choices` should neither be, nor be thought of as, a single array, i.e., the outermost sequence-like container should be either a list or a tuple.

Examples

```python
>>> choices = [[0, 1, 2, 3], [10, 11, 12, 13],
... [20, 21, 22, 23], [30, 31, 32, 33]]
>>> np.choose([2, 3, 1, 0], choices)
... # the first element of the result will be the first element of the
... # third (2+1) "array" in choices, namely, 20; the second element
... # will be the second element of the fourth (3+1) choice array, i.e.,
... # 31, etc. ...
array([20, 31, 12, 3])
```

A couple examples illustrating how choose broadcasts:

```python
>>> a = [[1, 0, 1], [0, 1, 0], [1, 0, 1]]
>>> choices = [-10, 10]
>>> np.choose(a, choices)
array([[-10, -10, -10],
       [-10, 10, -10],
       [-10, 10, -10]])
```
>>> # With thanks to Anne Archibald
>>> a = np.array([0, 1]).reshape((2,1))
>>> c1 = np.array([1, 2, 3]).reshape((1,3,1))
>>> c2 = np.array([-1, -2, -3, -4, -5]).reshape((1,1,5))
>>> np.choose(a, (c1, c2)) # result is 2x3x5, res[0,:,,:]=c1, res[1,:,,:]=c2
array([[[ 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [ 2, 2, 2, 2, 2],
        [ 3, 3, 3, 3, 3]],
       [[-1, -2, -3, -4, -5],
        [-1, -2, -3, -4, -5],
        [-1, -2, -3, -4, -5]]])

numpy.compress(condition, a, axis=None, out=None)

Return selected slices of an array along given axis.

When working along a given axis, a slice along that axis is returned in output for each index where condition evaluates to True. When working on a 1-D array, compress is equivalent to extract.

Parameters

condition

[1-D array of bools] Array that selects which entries to return. If len(condition) is less than the size of a along the given axis, then output is truncated to the length of the condition array.

a

[array_like] Array from which to extract a part.

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which to take slices. If None (default), work on the flattened array.

out

[ndarray, optional] Output array. Its type is preserved and it must be of the right shape to hold the output.

Returns

compressed_array

[ndarray] A copy of a without the slices along axis for which condition is false.

See also:

take, choose, diag, diagonal, select

ndarray.compress

Equivalent method in ndarray

equal

Equivalent method when working on 1-D arrays

Output type determination
Examples

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

```python
>>> a
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4],
       [5, 6]])
```

```python
>>> np.compress([0, 1], a, axis=0)
array([[1, 2]])
```

```python
>>> np.compress([False, True, True], a, axis=0)
array([[3, 4],
       [5, 6]])
```

```python
>>> np.compress([False, True], a, axis=1)
array([[2],
       [4],
       [6]])
```

Working on the flattened array does not return slices along an axis but selects elements.

```python
>>> np.compress([False, True], a)
array([2])
```

```python
numpy.diagonal(a, offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1)
```

Return specified diagonals.

If `a` is 2-D, returns the diagonal of `a` with the given offset, i.e., the collection of elements of the form `a[i, i+offset]`. If `a` has more than two dimensions, then the axes specified by `axis1` and `axis2` are used to determine the 2-D sub-array whose diagonal is returned. The shape of the resulting array can be determined by removing `axis1` and `axis2` and appending an index to the right equal to the size of the resulting diagonals.

In versions of NumPy prior to 1.7, this function always returned a new, independent array containing a copy of the values in the diagonal.

In NumPy 1.7 and 1.8, it continues to return a copy of the diagonal, but depending on this fact is deprecated. Writing to the resulting array continues to work as it used to, but a FutureWarning is issued.

Starting in NumPy 1.9 it returns a read-only view on the original array. Attempting to write to the resulting array will produce an error.

In some future release, it will return a read/write view and writing to the returned array will alter your original array. The returned array will have the same type as the input array.

If you don’t write to the array returned by this function, then you can just ignore all of the above.

If you depend on the current behavior, then we suggest copying the returned array explicitly, i.e., use `np.diagonal(a).copy()` instead of just `np.diagonal(a)`. This will work with both past and future versions of NumPy.

Parameters

- **a**
  - [array_like] Array from which the diagonals are taken.

- **offset**
  - [int, optional] Offset of the diagonal from the main diagonal. Can be positive or negative. Defaults to main diagonal (0).

- **axis1**
[int, optional] Axis to be used as the first axis of the 2-D sub-arrays from which the diagonals should be taken. Defaults to first axis (0).

axis2

[int, optional] Axis to be used as the second axis of the 2-D sub-arrays from which the diagonals should be taken. Defaults to second axis (1).

Returns

array_of_diagonals

[ndarray] If a is 2-D, then a 1-D array containing the diagonal and of the same type as a is returned unless a is a matrix, in which case a 1-D array rather than a (2-D) matrix is returned in order to maintain backward compatibility.

If a.ndim > 2, then the dimensions specified by axis1 and axis2 are removed, and a new axis inserted at the end corresponding to the diagonal.

Raises

ValueError

If the dimension of a is less than 2.

See also:

diag
MATLAB work-a-like for 1-D and 2-D arrays.

diagflat
Create diagonal arrays.

trace
Sum along diagonals.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(4).reshape(2,2)
>>> a
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]])
>>> a.diagonal()  
array([0, 3])
>>> a.diagonal(1)
array([1])
```

A 3-D example:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(8).reshape(2,2,2); a  
array([[[0, 1],
        [2, 3]],
       [[4, 5],
        [6, 7]]])
>>> a.diagonal(0, 0, 0)  
# Main diagonals of two arrays created by skipping
```

(continues on next page)
The sub-arrays whose main diagonals we just obtained; note that each corresponds to fixing the right-most (column) axis, and that the diagonals are “packed” in rows.

```python
>>> a[:, :, 0]  # main diagonal is [0 6]
array([[0, 1],
       [3, 4]])
>>> a[:, :, 1]  # main diagonal is [1 7]
array([[1, 4],
       [5, 6]])
```

The anti-diagonal can be obtained by reversing the order of elements using either `numpy.flipud` or `numpy.fliplr`.

```python
>>> a = np.arange(9).reshape(3, 3)
>>> a
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5],
       [6, 7, 8]])
>>> np.fliplr(a).diagonal()  # Horizontal flip
array([2, 4, 6])
>>> np.flipud(a).diagonal()  # Vertical flip
array([6, 4, 2])
```

Note that the order in which the diagonal is retrieved varies depending on the flip function.

`numpy.select (condlist, choicelist, default=0)`

Return an array drawn from elements in `choicelist`, depending on conditions.

**Parameters**

- **condlist**
  - [list of bool ndarrays] The list of conditions which determine from which array in `choicelist` the output elements are taken. When multiple conditions are satisfied, the first one encountered in `condlist` is used.

- **choicelist**
  - [list of ndarrays] The list of arrays from which the output elements are taken. It has to be of the same length as `condlist`.

- **default**
  - [scalar, optional] The element inserted in `output` when all conditions evaluate to False.

**Returns**

- **output**
  - [ndarray] The output at position m is the m-th element of the array in `choicelist` where the m-th element of the corresponding array in `condlist` is True.

**See also:**

---

(continued from previous page)
where

Return elements from one of two arrays depending on condition.
$take, choose, compress, diag, diagonal$

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(10)
>>> condlist = [x<3, x>5]
>>> choicelist = [x, x**2]
>>> np.select(condlist, choicelist)
array([ 0,  1,  2, ..., 49, 64, 81])
```

`lib.stride_tricks.sliding_window_view(x, window_shape, axis=None, *, subok=False, writeable=False)`

Create a sliding window view into the array with the given window shape.
Also known as rolling or moving window, the window slides across all dimensions of the array and extracts subsets of the array at all window positions.
New in version 1.20.0.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  [array_like] Array to create the sliding window view from.

- **window_shape**
  [int or tuple of int] Size of window over each axis that takes part in the sliding window. If `axis` is not present, must have same length as the number of input array dimensions. Single integers `i` are treated as if they were the tuple `(i,)`.

- **axis**
  [int or tuple of int, optional] Axis or axes along which the sliding window is applied. By default, the sliding window is applied to all axes and `window_shape[i]` will refer to axis `i` of `x`. If `axis` is given as a `tuple of int`, `window_shape[i]` will refer to the axis `axis[i]` of `x`. Single integers `i` are treated as if they were the tuple `(i,)`.

- **subok**
  [bool, optional] If True, sub-classes will be passed-through, otherwise the returned array will be forced to be a base-class array (default).

- **writeable**
  [bool, optional] When true, allow writing to the returned view. The default is false, as this should be used with caution: the returned view contains the same memory location multiple times, so writing to one location will cause others to change.

**Returns**

- **view**
  [ndarray] Sliding window view of the array. The sliding window dimensions are inserted at the end, and the original dimensions are trimmed as required by the size of the sliding window. That is, `view.shape = x_shape_trimmed + window_shape`, where
x_shape_trimmed is `x.shape` with every entry reduced by one less than the corresponding window size.

See also:

`lib.stride_tricks.as_strided`

A lower-level and less safe routine for creating arbitrary views from custom shape and strides.

`broadcast_to`

broadcast an array to a given shape.

Notes

For many applications using a sliding window view can be convenient, but potentially very slow. Often specialized solutions exist, for example:

- `scipy.signal.fftconvolve`
- filtering functions in `scipy.ndimage`
- moving window functions provided by `bottleneck`.

As a rough estimate, a sliding window approach with an input size of $N$ and a window size of $W$ will scale as $O(N*W)$ where frequently a special algorithm can achieve $O(N)$. That means that the sliding window variant for a window size of 100 can be a 100 times slower than a more specialized version.

Nevertheless, for small window sizes, when no custom algorithm exists, or as a prototyping and developing tool, this function can be a good solution.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6)
>>> x.shape
(6,)
>>> v = sliding_window_view(x, 3)
>>> v.shape
(4, 3)
>>> v
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [1, 2, 3],
       [2, 3, 4],
       [3, 4, 5]])
```

This also works in more dimensions, e.g.

```python
>>> i, j = np.ogrid[:3, :4]
>>> x = 10*i + j
>>> x.shape
(3, 4)
>>> x
array([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
       [10, 11, 12, 13],
       [20, 21, 22, 23]])
>>> shape = (2,2)
>>> v = sliding_window_view(x, shape)
```

(continues on next page)
The axis can be specified explicitly:

```python
>>> v = sliding_window_view(x, 3, 0)
>>> v.shape
(1, 4, 3)
>>> v
array([[ 0, 10, 20],
       [ 1, 11, 21],
       [ 2, 12, 22],
       [ 3, 13, 23]])
```

The same axis can be used several times. In that case, every use reduces the corresponding original dimension:

```python
>>> v = sliding_window_view(x, (2, 3), (1, 1))
>>> v.shape
(3, 1, 2, 3)
>>> v
array([[[ 0,  1,  2],
        [ 1,  2,  3]],
       [[10, 11, 12],
        [11, 12, 13]],
       [[20, 21, 22],
        [21, 22, 23]]])
```

Combining with stepped slicing (::step), this can be used to take sliding views which skip elements:

```python
>>> x = np.arange(7)
>>> sliding_window_view(x, 5)[::2]
array([[0, 2, 4],
       [1, 3, 5],
       [2, 4, 6]])
```

or views which move by multiple elements

```python
>>> x = np.arange(7)
>>> sliding_window_view(x, 3)[::2, :]
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [2, 3, 4],
       [4, 5, 6]])
```

A common application of `sliding_window_view` is the calculation of running statistics. The simplest exam-
ple is the moving average:

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6)
>>> x.shape
(6,)
>>> v = sliding_window_view(x, 3)
>>> v.shape
(4, 3)
>>> v
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [1, 2, 3],
       [2, 3, 4],
       [3, 4, 5]])
>>> moving_average = v.mean(axis=-1)
>>> moving_average
array([1., 2., 3., 4.])
```

Note that a sliding window approach is often not optimal (see Notes).

```
lib.stride_tricks.as_strided(x, shape=None, strides=None, subok=False, writeable=True)
```

Create a view into the array with the given shape and strides.

**Warning:** This function has to be used with extreme care, see notes.

**Parameters**

- `x`: `[ndarray]` Array to create a new.
- `shape`: `[sequence of int, optional]` The shape of the new array. Defaults to `x.shape`.
- `strides`: `[sequence of int, optional]` The strides of the new array. Defaults to `x.strides`.
- `subok`: `[bool, optional]` New in version 1.10.
  If True, subclasses are preserved.
  If set to False, the returned array will always be readonly. Otherwise it will be writable if the original array was. It is advisable to set this to False if possible (see Notes).

**Returns**

- `view`: `[ndarray]`

**See also:**
broadcast_to

broadcast an array to a given shape.

 reshape

reshape an array.

lib.stride_tricks.sliding_window_view

user friendly and safe function for the creation of sliding window views.

Notes

as_strided creates a view into the array given the exact strides and shape. This means it manipulates the internal data structure of ndarray and, if done incorrectly, the array elements can point to invalid memory and can corrupt results or crash your program. It is advisable to always use the original x.strides when calculating new strides to avoid reliance on a contiguous memory layout.

Furthermore, arrays created with this function often contain self overlapping memory, so that two elements are identical. Vectorized write operations on such arrays will typically be unpredictable. They may even give different results for small, large, or transposed arrays. Since writing to these arrays has to be tested and done with great care, you may want to use writeable=False to avoid accidental write operations.

For these reasons it is advisable to avoid as_strided when possible.

4.14.3 Inserting data into arrays

place(arr, mask, vals)

Change elements of an array based on conditional and input values.

Similarto np.copyto(arr, vals, where=mask), the difference is that place uses the first N elements of vals, where N is the number of True values in mask, while copyto uses the elements where mask is True.

Note that extract does the exact opposite of place.

Parameters

arr

[ndarray] Array to put data into.

mask

[array_like] Boolean mask array. Must have the same size as a.

vals

numpy.place(arr, mask, vals)

Change elements of an array based on conditional and input values.

[1-D sequence] Values to put into a. Only the first N elements are used, where N is the number of True values in mask. If vals is smaller than N, it will be repeated, and if elements of a are to be masked, this sequence must be non-empty.

See also:

`copyto, put, take, extract`

Examples

```python
>>> arr = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3)
>>> np.place(arr, arr>2, [44, 55])
>>> arr
array([[ 0, 1, 2],
       [44, 55, 44]])
```

`numpy.put(a, ind, v, mode='raise')`

Replaces specified elements of an array with given values.

The indexing works on the flattened target array, put is roughly equivalent to:

```python
a.flat[ind] = v
```

Parameters

- **a**
  - [ndarray] Target array.

- **ind**
  - [array_like] Target indices, interpreted as integers.

- **v**
  - [array_like] Values to place in a at target indices. If v is shorter than ind it will be repeated as necessary.

- **mode**
  - [{'raise', 'wrap', 'clip'}, optional] Specifies how out-of-bounds indices will behave.
    - ‘raise’ – raise an error (default)
    - ‘wrap’ – wrap around
    - ‘clip’ – clip to the range

‘clip’ mode means that all indices that are too large are replaced by the index that addresses the last element along that axis. Note that this disables indexing with negative numbers. In ‘raise’ mode, if an exception occurs the target array may still be modified.

See also:

`putmask, place`

`put_along_axis`

Put elements by matching the array and the index arrays
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(5)
>>> np.put(a, [0, 2], [-44, -55])
array([-44,   1, -55,   3,   4])

>>> a = np.arange(5)
>>> np.put(a, 22, -5, mode='clip')
array([ 0,  1,  2,  3, -5])
```

def numpy.put_along_axis(arr, indices, values, axis)

Put values into the destination array by matching 1d index and data slices.

This iterates over matching 1d slices oriented along the specified axis in the index and data arrays, and uses the former to place values into the latter. These slices can be different lengths.

Functions returning an index along an axis, like `argsort` and `argpartition`, produce suitable indices for this function.

New in version 1.15.0.

Parameters

- `arr` : [ndarray(Ni..., M, Nk...)] Destination array.
- `indices` : [ndarray(Ni..., J, Nk...)] Indices to change along each 1d slice of `arr`. This must match the dimension of `arr`, but dimensions in `Ni` and `Nj` may be 1 to broadcast against `arr`.
- `values` : [array_like(Ni..., J, Nk...)] values to insert at those indices. Its shape and dimension are broadcast to match that of `indices`.
- `axis` : [int] The axis to take 1d slices along. If `axis` is None, the destination array is treated as if a flattened 1d view had been created of it.

See also:

- `take_along_axis`

Take values from the input array by matching 1d index and data slices
Notes

This is equivalent to (but faster than) the following use of `ndindex` and `s_`, which sets each of `ii` and `kk` to a tuple of indices:

```python
Ni, M, Nk = a.shape[:axis], a.shape[axis], a.shape[axis+1]:
J = indices.shape[axis] # Need not equal M
for ii in ndindex(Ni):
    for kk in ndindex(Nk):
        a_1d = a [ii + s_[:,] + kk]
        indices_1d = indices[ii + s_[:,] + kk]
        values_1d = values [ii + s_[:,] + kk]
        for j in range(J):
            a_1d[indices_1d[j]] = values_1d[j]
```

Equivalently, eliminating the inner loop, the last two lines would be:

```
a_1d[indices_1d] = values_1d
```

Examples

For this sample array

```python
>>> a = np.array([[10, 30, 20], [60, 40, 50]])
```

We can replace the maximum values with:

```python
>>> ai = np.expand_dims(np.argmax(a, axis=1), axis=1)
>>> ai
array([[1],
       [0]])
>>> np.put_along_axis(a, ai, 99, axis=1)
>>> a
array([[10, 99, 20],
       [99, 40, 50]])
```

`numpy.putmask(a, mask, values)`

Changes elements of an array based on conditional and input values.


If `values` is not the same size as `a` and `mask` then it will repeat. This gives behavior different from `a[mask] = values`.

Parameters

- `a`
  
  [ndarray] Target array.

- `mask`
  
  [array_like] Boolean mask array. It has to be the same shape as `a`.

- `values`
  
  [array_like] Values to put into `a` where `mask` is True. If `values` is smaller than `a` it will be repeated.
See also:

`place, put, take, copyto`

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3)
>>> np.putmask(x, x>2, x**2)
>>> x
array([[ 0,  1,  2],
       [ 9, 16, 25]])
```

If `values` is smaller than `a` it is repeated:

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> np.putmask(x, x>1, [-33, -44])
>>> x
array([ 0,  1, -33, -44, -33])
```

`numpy.fill_diagonal(a, val, wrap=False)`

Fill the main diagonal of the given array of any dimensionality.

For an array `a` with `a.ndim >= 2`, the diagonal is the list of locations with indices `a[i, ..., i]` all identical. This function modifies the input array in-place, it does not return a value.

Parameters

- `a`
  [array, at least 2-D.] Array whose diagonal is to be filled, it gets modified in-place.

- `val`
  [scalar or array_like] Value(s) to write on the diagonal. If `val` is scalar, the value is written along the diagonal. If array-like, the flattened `val` is written along the diagonal, repeating if necessary to fill all diagonal entries.

- `wrap`
  [bool] For tall matrices in NumPy version up to 1.6.2, the diagonal “wrapped” after N columns. You can have this behavior with this option. This affects only tall matrices.

See also:

`diag_indices, diag_indices_from`

Notes

New in version 1.4.0.

This functionality can be obtained via `diag_indices`, but internally this version uses a much faster implementation that never constructs the indices and uses simple slicing.
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((3, 3), int)
>>> np.fill_diagonal(a, 5)
>>> a
array([[5, 0, 0],
       [0, 5, 0],
       [0, 0, 5]])
```

The same function can operate on a 4-D array:

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((3, 3, 3, 3), int)
>>> np.fill_diagonal(a)
```

We only show a few blocks for clarity:

```python
>>> a[0, 0]
array([[4, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])

>>> a[1, 1]
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [4, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])

>>> a[2, 2]
array([[0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 4]])
```

The wrap option affects only tall matrices:

```python
>>> # tall matrices no wrap
>>> a = np.zeros((5, 3), int)
>>> np.fill_diagonal(a)
>>> a
array([[4, 0, 0],
       [4, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0]])

>>> # tall matrices wrap
>>> a = np.zeros((5, 3), int)
>>> np.fill_diagonal(a, wrap=True)
>>> a
array([[4, 0, 0],
       [0, 4, 0],
       [0, 0, 4],
       [0, 0, 0],
       [4, 0, 0]])
```

```python
>>> # wide matrices
>>> a = np.zeros((3, 5), int)
>>> np.fill_diagonal(a, wrap=True)
>>> a
array([[4, 0, 0, 0, 0],
       [0, 4, 0, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 4, 0, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 4, 0],
       [0, 0, 0, 0, 4]])
```
The anti-diagonal can be filled by reversing the order of elements using either `numpy.flipud` or `numpy.fliplr`.

```python
g = np.zeros((3, 3), int);
>>> np.fill_diagonal(np.fliplr(g), [1, 2, 3])  # Horizontal flip
>>> g
array([[0, 0, 1],
       [0, 2, 0],
       [3, 0, 0]])
```

```python
g = np.zeros((3, 3), int);
>>> np.fill_diagonal(np.flipud(g), [1, 2, 3])  # Vertical flip
>>> g
array([[0, 0, 3],
       [0, 2, 0],
       [1, 0, 0]])
```

Note that the order in which the diagonal is filled varies depending on the flip function.

### 4.14.4 Iterating over arrays

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**class numpy.nditer**

Efficient multi-dimensional iterator object to iterate over arrays. To get started using this object, see the introductory guide to array iteration.

**Parameters**

- **op**
  - [ndarray or sequence of array_like] The array(s) to iterate over.

- **flags**
  - [sequence of str, optional] Flags to control the behavior of the iterator.
    - `buffered` enables buffering when required.
    - `c_index` causes a C-order index to be tracked.
    - `f_index` causes a Fortran-order index to be tracked.
    - `multi_index` causes a multi-index, or a tuple of indices with one per iteration dimension, to be tracked.
    - `common_dtype` causes all the operands to be converted to a common data type, with copying or buffering as necessary.
• `copy_if_overlap` causes the iterator to determine if read operands have overlap with write operands, and make temporary copies as necessary to avoid overlap. False positives (needless copying) are possible in some cases.

• `delay_bufalloc` delays allocation of the buffers until a `reset()` call is made. Allows `allocate` operands to be initialized before their values are copied into the buffers.

• `external_loop` causes the values given to be one-dimensional arrays with multiple values instead of zero-dimensional arrays.

• `grow_inner` allows the value array sizes to be made larger than the buffer size when both `buffered` and `external_loop` is used.

• `ranged` allows the iterator to be restricted to a sub-range of the `iterindex` values.

• `refs_ok` enables iteration of reference types, such as object arrays.

• `reduce_ok` enables iteration of `readwrite` operands which are broadcasted, also known as reduction operands.

• `zerosize_ok` allows `itersize` to be zero.

**op_flags**

[list of list of str, optional] This is a list of flags for each operand. At minimum, one of `readonly`, `readwrite`, or `writeonly` must be specified.

• `readonly` indicates the operand will only be read from.

• `readwrite` indicates the operand will be read from and written to.

• `writeonly` indicates the operand will only be written to.

• `no_broadcast` prevents the operand from being broadcasted.

• `contig` forces the operand data to be contiguous.

• `aligned` forces the operand data to be aligned.

• `nbo` forces the operand data to be in native byte order.

• `copy` allows a temporary read-only copy if required.

• `updateifcopy` allows a temporary read-write copy if required.

• `allocate` causes the array to be allocated if it is `None` in the `op` parameter.

• `no_subtype` prevents an `allocate` operand from using a subtype.

• `arraymask` indicates that this operand is the mask to use for selecting elements when writing to operands with the `writemasked` flag set. The iterator does not enforce this, but when writing from a buffer back to the array, it only copies those elements indicated by this mask.

• `writemasked` indicates that only elements where the chosen `arraymask` operand is `True` will be written to.

• `overlap_assume_elementwise` can be used to mark operands that are accessed only in the iterator order, to allow less conservative copying when `copy_if_overlap` is present.

**op_dtypes**

[dtype or tuple of dtype(s), optional] The required data type(s) of the operands. If copying or buffering is enabled, the data will be converted to/from their original types.
order

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the iteration order. ‘C’ means C order, ‘F’ means Fortran order, ‘A’ means ‘F’ order if all the arrays are Fortran contiguous, ‘C’ order otherwise, and ‘K’ means as close to the order the array elements appear in memory as possible. This also affects the element memory order of allocate operands, as they are allocated to be compatible with iteration order. Default is ‘K’.

casting

[{'no', 'equiv', 'safe', 'same_kind', 'unsafe'}, optional] Controls what kind of data casting may occur when making a copy or buffering. Setting this to ‘unsafe’ is not recommended, as it can adversely affect accumulations.

- ‘no’ means the data types should not be cast at all.
- ‘equiv’ means only byte-order changes are allowed.
- ‘safe’ means only casts which can preserve values are allowed.
- ‘same_kind’ means only safe casts or casts within a kind, like float64 to float32, are allowed.
- ‘unsafe’ means any data conversions may be done.

op_axes

[list of list of ints, optional] If provided, is a list of ints or None for each operands. The list of axes for an operand is a mapping from the dimensions of the iterator to the dimensions of the operand. A value of -1 can be placed for entries, causing that dimension to be treated as newaxis.

itershape

[tuple of ints, optional] The desired shape of the iterator. This allows allocate operands with a dimension mapped by op_axes not corresponding to a dimension of a different operand to get a value not equal to 1 for that dimension.

buffersize

[int, optional] When buffering is enabled, controls the size of the temporary buffers. Set to 0 for the default value.

Notes

nditer supersedes flatiter. The iterator implementation behind nditer is also exposed by the NumPy C API.

The Python exposure supplies two iteration interfaces, one which follows the Python iterator protocol, and another which mirrors the C-style do-while pattern. The native Python approach is better in most cases, but if you need the coordinates or index of an iterator, use the C-style pattern.
Examples

Here is how we might write an `iter_add` function, using the Python iterator protocol:

```python
>>> def iter_add_py(x, y, out=None):
...     addop = np.add
...     it = np.nditer([x, y, out], []
...                     [['readonly'], ['readonly'], ['writeonly','allocate']])
...     with it:
...         for (a, b, c) in it:
...             addop(a, b, out=c)
...     return it.operands[2]
```

Here is the same function, but following the C-style pattern:

```python
>>> def iter_add(x, y, out=None):
...     addop = np.add
...     it = np.nditer([x, y, out], []
...                     [['readonly'], ['readonly'], ['writeonly','allocate']])
...     with it:
...         while not it.finished:
...             addop(it[0], it[1], out=it[2])
...             it.iternext()
...     return it.operands[2]
```

Here is an example outer product function:

```python
>>> def outer_it(x, y, out=None):
...     mulop = np.multiply
...     it = np.nditer((x, y, out), ['external_loop'],
...                    [['readonly'], ['readonly'], ['writeonly', 'allocate']],
...                    op_axes=[list(range(x.ndim)) + [-1] * y.ndim,
...                             [-1] * x.ndim + list(range(y.ndim)),
...                             None])
...     with it:
...         for (a, b, c) in it:
...             mulop(a, b, out=c)
...     return it.operands[2]
```

```python
>>> a = np.arange(2)+1
>>> b = np.arange(3)+1
>>> outer_it(a,b)
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [2, 4, 6]])
```

Here is an example function which operates like a “lambda” ufunc:

```python
>>> def luf(lamdaexpr, *args, **kwargs):
...     '''luf(lamdaexpr, op1, ..., opn, out=None, order='K', casting='safe',
...     buffersize=0)'''
...     nargs = len(args)
...     op = (kwargs.get('out', None),) + args
...     it = np.nditer(op, ['buffered', 'external_loop'],
...                    [['writeonly', 'allocate', 'no_broadcast']] +
...                    [['readonly', 'nbo', 'aligned']]*nargs,
...                    order=kwargs.get('order', 'K'),
...                    casting=kwargs.get('casting', 'safe'),
...                    (continues on next page)
```

(continues on next page)
buffersize=kwargs.get('buffersize', 0))

while not it.finished:
    it[0] = lambdaexpr(*it[1:])
    it.iternext()

return it.operands[0]

>>> a = np.arange(5)
>>> b = np.ones(5)
>>> luf(lambda i,j:i*i + j/2, a, b)
array([ 0.5, 1.5, 4.5, 9.5, 16.5])

If operand flags "writeonly" or "readwrite" are used the operands may be views into the original data with the WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag. In this case nditer must be used as a context manager or the nditer.close() method must be called before using the result. The temporary data will be written back to the original data when the __exit__ function is called but not before:

>>> a = np.arange(6, dtype='i4')[::2]
>>> with np.nditer(a, [],
...         [توقيع 'writeonly', 'updateifcopy'],
...         casting='unsafe',
...         op_dtypes=[np.dtype('f4')]) as i:
...     x = i.operands[0]
...     x[:] = [-1, -2, -3]
...     # a still unchanged here
>>> a, x
(array([-1, -2, -3], dtype=int32), array([-1., -2., -3.], dtype=float32))

It is important to note that once the iterator is exited, dangling references (like x in the example) may or may not share data with the original data a. If writeback semantics were active, i.e. if x.base.flags.writebackifcopy is True, then exiting the iterator will sever the connection between x and a, writing to x will no longer write to a. If writeback semantics are not active, then x.data will still point at some part of a.data, and writing to one will affect the other.

Context management and the close method appeared in version 1.15.0.

Attributes

dtypes

tuple of dtype(s)] The data types of the values provided in value. This may be different from the operand data types if buffering is enabled. Valid only before the iterator is closed.

finished
[bool] Whether the iteration over the operands is finished or not.

has_delayed_bufalloc

[bool] If True, the iterator was created with the delay_bufalloc flag, and no reset() function was called on it yet.

has_index

[bool] If True, the iterator was created with either the c_index or the f_index flag, and the property index can be used to retrieve it.

has_multi_index

[bool] If True, the iterator was created with the multi_index flag, and the property multi_index can be used to retrieve it.
index

When the c_index or f_index flag was used, this property provides access to the index. Raises a ValueError if accessed and has_index is False.

iterationneedsapi

[bool] Whether iteration requires access to the Python API, for example if one of the operands is an object array.

iterindex

[int] An index which matches the order of iteration.

itersize

[int] Size of the iterator.

itviews

Structured view(s) of operands in memory, matching the reordered and optimized iterator access pattern. Valid only before the iterator is closed.

multi_index

When the multi_index flag was used, this property provides access to the index. Raises a ValueError if accessed and has_multi_index is False.

ndim

[int] The dimensions of the iterator.

nop

[int] The number of iterator operands.

operands

[tuple of operand(s)] operands[Slice]

shape

[tuple of ints] Shape tuple, the shape of the iterator.

value

Value of operands at current iteration. Normally, this is a tuple of array scalars, but if the flag external_loop is used, it is a tuple of one dimensional arrays.

Methods

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<td>Resolve all writeback semantics in writeable operands.</td>
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<td>copy()</td>
<td>Get a copy of the iterator in its current state.</td>
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<td>debug_print()</td>
<td>Print the current state of the nditer instance and debug info to stdout.</td>
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<tr>
<td>enable_external_loop()</td>
<td>When the &quot;external_loop&quot; was not used during construction, but is desired, this modifies the iterator to behave as if the flag was specified.</td>
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<tr>
<td>iternext()</td>
<td>Check whether iterations are left, and perform a single internal iteration without returning the result.</td>
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<tr>
<td>remove_axis(i)</td>
<td>Removes axis i from the iterator.</td>
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continues on next page
remove_multi_index()  When the “multi_index” flag was specified, this removes it, allowing the internal iteration structure to be optimized further.

reset()  Reset the iterator to its initial state.

method
nditer.close()  Resolve all writeback semantics in writeable operands.

New in version 1.15.0.

See also:

Modifying Array Values

method
nditer.copy()  Get a copy of the iterator in its current state.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(10)
>>> y = x + 1
>>> it = np.nditer([x, y])
>>> next(it)
(array(0), array(1))
>>> it2 = it.copy()
>>> next(it2)
(array(1), array(2))
```

method
nditer.debug_print()  Print the current state of the nditer instance and debug info to stdout.

method
nditer.enable_external_loop()  When the “external_loop” was not used during construction, but is desired, this modifies the iterator to behave as if the flag was specified.

method
nditer.iternext()  Check whether iterations are left, and perform a single internal iteration without returning the result. Used in the C-style pattern do-while pattern. For an example, see nditer.

Returns

iternext  [bool] Whether or not there are iterations left.
nditer.remove_axis(i)
   Removes axis i from the iterator. Requires that the flag "multi_index" be enabled.

method

nditer.remove_multi_index()
   When the "multi_index" flag was specified, this removes it, allowing the internal iteration structure to be
   optimized further.

method

nditer.reset()
   Reset the iterator to its initial state.

class numpy.ndindex(*shape)
   An N-dimensional iterator object to index arrays.

   Given the shape of an array, an ndindex instance iterates over the N-dimensional index of the array. At each
   iteration a tuple of indices is returned, the last dimension is iterated over first.

   Parameters

   shape

   [ints, or a single tuple of ints] The size of each dimension of the array can be passed as indi-
   vidual parameters or as the elements of a tuple.

   See also:

   ndenumerate, flatiter

   Examples

   # dimensions as individual arguments >> for index in np.ndindex(3, 2, 1): … print(index) (0, 0, 0) (0, 1, 0) (1, 0, 0) (1, 1, 0) (2, 0, 0) (2, 1, 0)
   # same dimensions - but in a tuple (3, 2, 1) >> for index in np.ndindex((3, 2, 1)): … print(index) (0, 0, 0) (0, 1, 0) (1, 0, 0) (1, 1, 0) (2, 0, 0) (2, 1, 0)

   Methods

   ndincr()

   Increment the multi-dimensional index by one.

   method

   ndindex.ndincr()

   Increment the multi-dimensional index by one.

   This method is for backward compatibility only: do not use.

   Deprecated since version 1.20.0: This method has been advised against since numpy 1.8.0, but only started
   emitting DeprecationWarning as of this version.

   numpy.nested_iters()

   Create nditers for use in nested loops

   Create a tuple of nditer objects which iterate in nested loops over different axes of the op argument. The first
   iterator is used in the outermost loop, the last in the innermost loop. Advancing one will change the subsequent
iterators to point at its new element.

**Parameters**

- **op**
  
  [ndarray or sequence of array_like] The array(s) to iterate over.

- **axes**
  
  [list of list of int] Each item is used as an “op_axes” argument to an nditer

- **flags, op_flags, op_dtypes, order, casting, buffersize (optional)**

  See nditer parameters of the same name

**Returns**

- **iters**

  [tuple of nditer] An nditer for each item in axes, outermost first

**See also:**

- **nditer**

**Examples**

Basic usage. Note how y is the “flattened” version of [a[:, 0, :], a[:, 1, 0], a[:, 2, :]] since we specified the first iter's axes as [1]

```python
>>> a = np.arange(12).reshape(2, 3, 2)
>>> i, j = np.nested_iters(a, [[1], [0, 2]], flags=['multi_index'])
>>> for x in i:
...    print(x.multi_index)
...    for y in j:
...        print((', ', y.multi_index, y))
(0,)
  (0, 0) 0
  (0, 1) 1
  (1, 0) 6
  (1, 1) 7
(1,)
  (0, 0) 2
  (0, 1) 3
  (1, 0) 8
  (1, 1) 9
(2,)
  (0, 0) 4
  (0, 1) 5
  (1, 0) 10
  (1, 1) 11
```

**class numpy.flatiter**

Flat iterator object to iterate over arrays.

A flatiter iterator is returned by `x.flat` for any array `x`. It allows iterating over the array as if it were a 1-D array, either in a for-loop or by calling its `next` method.
Iteration is done in row-major, C-style order (the last index varying the fastest). The iterator can also be indexed using basic slicing or advanced indexing.

See also:

- **ndarray.flat**
  
  Return a flat iterator over an array.

- **ndarray.flatten**
  
  Returns a flattened copy of an array.

Notes

A `flatiter` iterator cannot be constructed directly from Python code by calling the `flatiter` constructor.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3)
>>> f1 = x.flat
>>> type(f1)
<class 'numpy.flatiter'>
>>> for item in f1:
...    print(item)
...
0
1
2
3
4
5

>>> f1[2:4]
array([2, 3])
```

Attributes

- **base**
  
  A reference to the array that is iterated over.

- **coords**
  
  An N-dimensional tuple of current coordinates.

- **index**
  
  Current flat index into the array.
Methods

`copy()`
Get a copy of the iterator as a 1-D array.

Method

`flatiter.copy()`
Get a copy of the iterator as a 1-D array.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3)
>>> x
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5]])
>>> f1 = x.flat
>>> f1.copy()
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5])
```

class `numpy.lib.Arrayterator`
(var, buf_size=None)
Buffered iterator for big arrays.

`Arrayterator` creates a buffered iterator for reading big arrays in small contiguous blocks. The class is useful for objects stored in the file system. It allows iteration over the object without reading everything in memory; instead, small blocks are read and iterated over.

`Arrayterator` can be used with any object that supports multidimensional slices. This includes NumPy arrays, but also variables from Scientific.IO.NetCDF or pynetcdf for example.

Parameters

var
[array_like] The object to iterate over.

buf_size
[int, optional] The buffer size. If buf_size is supplied, the maximum amount of data that will be read into memory is buf_size elements. Default is None, which will read as many element as possible into memory.

See also:

`ndenumerate`
Multidimensional array iterator.

`flatiter`
Flat array iterator.

`memmap`
Create a memory-map to an array stored in a binary file on disk.

Notes

The algorithm works by first finding a “running dimension”, along which the blocks will be extracted. Given an array of dimensions \((d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_n)\), e.g. if \(buf\_size\) is smaller than \(d_1\), the first dimension will be used. If, on the other hand, \(d_1 < buf\_size < d_1*d_2\) the second dimension will be used, and so on. Blocks are extracted along this dimension, and when the last block is returned the process continues from the next dimension, until all elements have been read.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(3 * 4 * 5 * 6).reshape(3, 4, 5, 6)
>>> a_itor = np.lib.Arrayterator(a, 2)
>>> a_itor.shape
(3, 4, 5, 6)
```

Now we can iterate over `a_itor`, and it will return arrays of size two. Since `buf_size` was smaller than any dimension, the first dimension will be iterated over first:

```python
>>> for subarr in a_itor:
...     if not subarr.all():
...         print(subarr, subarr.shape)
>>> # [[[0 1]]] (1, 1, 1, 2)
```

Attributes

- `var`
- `buf_size`
- `start`
- `stop`
- `step`
- `shape`

The shape of the array to be iterated over.

- `flat`

A 1-D flat iterator for Arrayterator objects.

4.15 Input and output

4.15.1 NumPy binary files (NPY, NPZ)

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<td><code>load(file[, mmap_mode, allow_pickle, ...])</code></td>
<td>Load arrays or pickled objects from <code>.npy</code>, <code>.npz</code> or pickled files.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>save(file, arr[, allow_pickle, fix_imports])</code></td>
<td>Save an array to a binary file in NumPy <code>.npy</code> format.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>savez(file, *args, **kwds)</code></td>
<td>Save several arrays into a single file in uncompressed <code>.npz</code> format.</td>
</tr>
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| savez_compressed(file, *args, **kwds) | Save several arrays into a single file in compressed .npz format. |

```python
numpy.load(file, mmap_mode=None, allow_pickle=False, fix_imports=True, encoding='ASCII')
```

Load arrays or pickled objects from .npy, .npz or pickled files.

**Warning:** Loading files that contain object arrays uses the pickle module, which is not secure against erroneous or maliciously constructed data. Consider passing allow_pickle=False to load data that is known not to contain object arrays for the safer handling of untrusted sources.

**Parameters**

- **file**
  
  [file-like object, string, or pathlib.Path] The file to read. File-like objects must support the `seek()` and `read()` methods. Pickled files require that the file-like object support the `readline()` method as well.

- **mmap_mode**
  
  [{None, ‘r+’, ‘r’, ‘w+’, ‘c’}, optional] If not None, then memory-map the file, using the given mode (see `numpy.memmap` for a detailed description of the modes). A memory-mapped array is kept on disk. However, it can be accessed and sliced like any ndarray. Memory mapping is especially useful for accessing small fragments of large files without reading the entire file into memory.

- **allow_pickle**
  
  [bool, optional] Allow loading pickled object arrays stored in npy files. Reasons for disallowing pickles include security, as loading pickled data can execute arbitrary code. If pickles are disallowed, loading object arrays will fail. Default: False


- **fix_imports**
  
  [bool, optional] Only useful when loading Python 2 generated pickled files on Python 3, which includes npy/npz files containing object arrays. If fix_imports is True, pickle will try to map the old Python 2 names to the new names used in Python 3.

- **encoding**
  
  [str, optional] What encoding to use when reading Python 2 strings. Only useful when loading Python 2 generated pickled files in Python 3, which includes npy/npz files containing object arrays. Values other than ‘latin1’, ‘ASCII’, and ‘bytes’ are not allowed, as they can corrupt numerical data. Default: ‘ASCII’

**Returns**

- **result**
  
  [array, tuple, dict, etc.] Data stored in the file. For .npz files, the returned instance of NpzFile class must be closed to avoid leaking file descriptors.

**Raises**
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

**IOError**

If the input file does not exist or cannot be read.

**ValueError**

The file contains an object array, but allow_pickle=False given.

See also:

`save`, `savez`, `savez_compressed`, `loadtxt`

`memmap`

Create a memory-map to an array stored in a file on disk.

`lib.format.open_memmap`

Create or load a memory-mapped `.npy` file.

Notes

- If the file contains pickle data, then whatever object is stored in the pickle is returned.
- If the file is a `.npy` file, then a single array is returned.
- If the file is a `.npz` file, then a dictionary-like object is returned, containing `{filename: array}` key-value pairs, one for each file in the archive.
- If the file is a `.npz` file, the returned value supports the context manager protocol in a similar fashion to the open function:

```
with load('foo.npz') as data:
    a = data['a']
```

The underlying file descriptor is closed when exiting the 'with' block.

Examples

Store data to disk, and load it again:

```python
>>> np.save('/tmp/123', np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]]))
>>> np.load('/tmp/123.npy')
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
```

Store compressed data to disk, and load it again:

```python
>>> a=np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]])
>>> b=np.array([1, 2])
>>> np.savez('/tmp/123.npz', a=a, b=b)
>>> data = np.load('/tmp/123.npz')
>>> data['a']
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
>>> data['b']
array([1, 2])
>>> data.close()
```
Mem-map the stored array, and then access the second row directly from disk:

```python
>>> X = np.load('/tmp/123.npy', mmap_mode='r')
>>> X[1, :]
memmap([4, 5, 6])
```

numpy.save (file, arr, allow_pickle=True, fix_imports=True)

Save an array to a binary file in NumPy .npy format.

**Parameters**

- **file**
  - [file, str, or pathlib.Path] File or filename to which the data is saved. If file is a file-object, then the filename is unchanged. If file is a string or Path, a .npy extension will be appended to the filename if it does not already have one.

- **arr**
  - [array_like] Array data to be saved.

- **allow_pickle**
  - [bool, optional] Allow saving object arrays using Python pickles. Reasons for disallowing pickles include security (loading pickled data can execute arbitrary code) and portability (pickled objects may not be loadable on different Python installations, for example if the stored objects require libraries that are not available, and not all pickled data is compatible between Python 2 and Python 3). Default: True

- **fix_imports**
  - [bool, optional] Only useful in forcing objects in object arrays on Python 3 to be pickled in a Python 2 compatible way. If fix_imports is True, pickle will try to map the new Python 3 names to the old module names used in Python 2, so that the pickle data stream is readable with Python 2.

**See also:**

- *savetz*
  - Save several arrays into a .npz archive

- *savetxt, load*

**Notes**

For a description of the .npy format, see numpy.lib.format.

Any data saved to the file is appended to the end of the file.
Examples

```python
>>> from tempfile import TemporaryFile
>>> outfile = TemporaryFile()

>>> x = np.arange(10)
>>> np.save(outfile, x)

>>> _ = outfile.seek(0)  # Only needed here to simulate closing & reopening file
>>> np.load(outfile)
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])

>>> with open('test.npy', 'wb') as f:
...    np.save(f, np.array([1, 2]))
...    np.save(f, np.array([1, 3]))

>>> with open('test.npy', 'rb') as f:
...    a = np.load(f)
...    b = np.load(f)
>>> print(a, b)
# [1 2] [1 3]
```

**numpy.savez** *(file, *args, **kwds)*

Save several arrays into a single file in uncompressed .npz format.

Provide arrays as keyword arguments to store them under the corresponding name in the output file: `savez(fn, x=x, y=y)`.

If arrays are specified as positional arguments, i.e., `savez(fn, x, y)`, their names will be `arr_0`, `arr_1`, etc.

**Parameters**

- **file**
  [str or file] Either the filename (string) or an open file (file-like object) where the data will be saved. If file is a string or a Path, the .npz extension will be appended to the filename if it is not already there.

- **args**
  [Arguments, optional] Arrays to save to the file. Please use keyword arguments (see `kwds` below) to assign names to arrays. Arrays specified as args will be named “arr_0”, “arr_1”, and so on.

- **kwds**
  [Keyword arguments, optional] Arrays to save to the file. Each array will be saved to the output file with its corresponding keyword name.

**Returns**

None

**See also:**

**save**

Save a single array to a binary file in NumPy format.
**savetxt**

Save an array to a file as plain text.

**savez_compressed**

Save several arrays into a compressed .npz archive

**Notes**

The .npz file format is a zipped archive of files named after the variables they contain. The archive is not compressed and each file in the archive contains one variable in .npy format. For a description of the .npy format, see numpy.lib.format.

When opening the saved .npz file with load a NpzFile object is returned. This is a dictionary-like object which can be queried for its list of arrays (with the .files attribute), and for the arrays themselves.

When saving dictionaries, the dictionary keys become filenames inside the ZIP archive. Therefore, keys should be valid filenames. E.g., avoid keys that begin with / or contain ..

**Examples**

```python
>>> from tempfile import TemporaryFile
>>> outfile = TemporaryFile()
>>> x = np.arange(10)
>>> y = np.sin(x)

Using savetz with *args, the arrays are saved with default names.

```python
>>> np.savez(outfile, x, y)
>>> _ = outfile.seek(0)  # Only needed here to simulate closing & reopening file
>>> npzfile = np.load(outfile)
>>> npzfile.files
['arr_0', 'arr_1']
>>> npzfile['arr_0']
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
```

Using savetz with **kwds, the arrays are saved with the keyword names.

```python
>>> np.savez(outfile, x=x, y=y)
>>> _ = outfile.seek(0)
>>> npzfile = np.load(outfile)
>>> sorted(npzfile.files)
['x', 'y']
>>> npzfile['x']
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
```

numpy.savez_compressed(file, *args, **kwds)

Save several arrays into a single file in compressed .npz format.

Provide arrays as keyword arguments to store them under the corresponding name in the output file: savez (fn, x=x, y=y).

If arrays are specified as positional arguments, i.e., savez (fn, x, y), their names will be arr_0, arr_1, etc.

**Parameters**
Either the filename (string) or an open file (file-like object) where the data will be saved. If file is a string or a Path, the `.npz` extension will be appended to the filename if it is not already there.

**args**

Arguments, optional] Arrays to save to the file. Please use keyword arguments (see `kwds` below) to assign names to arrays. Arrays specified as args will be named “arr_0”, “arr_1”, and so on.

**kwds**

Keyword arguments, optional] Arrays to save to the file. Each array will be saved to the output file with its corresponding keyword name.

**Returns**

None

**See also:**

`numpy.save`

Save a single array to a binary file in NumPy format.

`numpy.savetxt`

Save an array to a file as plain text.

`numpy.savez`

Save several arrays into an uncompressed `.npz` file format.

`numpy.load`

Load the files created by savez_compressed.

**Notes**

The `.npz` file format is a zipped archive of files named after the variables they contain. The archive is compressed with `zipfile.ZIP_DEFLATED` and each file in the archive contains one variable in `.npy` format. For a description of the `.npy` format, see `numpy.lib.format`.

When opening the saved `.npz` file with `load` a `NpzFile` object is returned. This is a dictionary-like object which can be queried for its list of arrays (with the `.files` attribute), and for the arrays themselves.

**Examples**

```python
>>> test_array = np.random.rand(3, 2)
>>> test_vector = np.random.rand(4)
>>> np.savez_compressed('/tmp/123', a=test_array, b=test_vector)
>>> loaded = np.load('/tmp/123.npz')
>>> print(np.array_equal(test_array, loaded['a']))
True
>>> print(np.array_equal(test_vector, loaded['b']))
True
```
The format of these binary file types is documented in `numpy.lib.format`.

### 4.15.2 Text files

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>loadtxt</code></td>
<td>Load data from a text file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>savetxt</code></td>
<td>Save an array to a text file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>genfromtxt</code></td>
<td>Load data from a text file, with missing values handled as specified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>fromregex</code></td>
<td>Construct an array from a text file, using regular expression parsing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>fromstring</code></td>
<td>A new 1-D array initialized from text data in a string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.tofile</code></td>
<td>Write array to a file as text or binary (default).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.tolist</code></td>
<td>Return the array as an <code>a.ndim</code>-levels deep nested list of Python scalars.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
numpy.savetxt (fname, X, fmt='%.18e', delimiter=' ', newline='
', header=' ', footer=' ', comments='# ', encoding=None)
```

Save an array to a text file.

**Parameters**

- **fname**
  - [filename or file handle] If the filename ends in `.gz`, the file is automatically saved in compressed gzip format. `loadtxt` understands gzipped files transparently.

- **X**
  - [1D or 2D array_like] Data to be saved to a text file.

- **fmt**
  - [str or sequence of strs, optional] A single format (%10.5f), a sequence of formats, or a multi-format string, e.g. ‘Iteration %d – %10.5f’, in which case `delimiter` is ignored. For complex X, the legal options for `fmt` are:
    - a single specifier, `fmt='%.4e'`, resulting in numbers formatted like ‘(%s+%sj)’ % (fmt, fmt)
    - a full string specifying every real and imaginary part, e.g. ‘%.4e %+d 2.4e %+.4ej %.4e %+.4ej’ for 3 columns
    - a list of specifiers, one per column - in this case, the real and imaginary part must have separate specifiers, e.g. ['%.3e %+.3ej', '(%e%+ej)'] for 2 columns

- **delimiter**
  - [str, optional] String or character separating columns.

- **newline**
  - [str, optional] String or character separating lines.
    - New in version 1.5.0.

- **header**
  - [str, optional] String that will be written at the beginning of the file.
    - New in version 1.7.0.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

footer

[str, optional] String that will be written at the end of the file.
New in version 1.7.0.

comments

[str, optional] String that will be prepended to the header and footer strings, to mark them as comments. Default: ‘#’, as expected by e.g. numpy.loadtxt.
New in version 1.7.0.

coding

[{None, str}, optional] Encoding used to encode the output file. Does not apply to output streams. If the encoding is something other than ‘bytes’ or ‘latin1’ you will not be able to load the file in NumPy versions < 1.14. Default is ‘latin1’.
New in version 1.14.0.

See also:

save
Save an array to a binary file in NumPy .npy format

savez
Save several arrays into an uncompressed .npz archive

savez_compressed
Save several arrays into a compressed .npz archive

Notes

Further explanation of the fmt parameter (%[flag]width[.precision]specifier):
flags:
- : left justify
+ : Forces to precede result with + or -.
0 : Left pad the number with zeros instead of space (see width).
width:
Minimum number of characters to be printed. The value is not truncated if it has more characters.
precision:
- For integer specifiers (eg. d, i, o, x), the minimum number of digits.
- For e, E and f specifiers, the number of digits to print after the decimal point.
- For g and G, the maximum number of significant digits.
- For s, the maximum number of characters.
specifiers:
c : character
c or i : signed decimal integer
e or E: scientific notation with e or E.
f: decimal floating point
g, G: use the shorter of e, E or f
c: signed octal
s: string of characters
u: unsigned decimal integer
x, X: unsigned hexadecimal integer

This explanation of fmt is not complete, for an exhaustive specification see [1].

References
[1]

Examples
```python
c = np.linspace(2.0, 3.0, 10)
carry = np.cos(c + 1j)
```
skiprows
[int, optional] skiprows was removed in numpy 1.10. Please use skip_header instead.

skip_header
[int, optional] The number of lines to skip at the beginning of the file.

skip_footer
[int, optional] The number of lines to skip at the end of the file.

collectors
[variable, optional] The set of functions that convert the data of a column to a value. The converters can also be used to provide a default value for missing data: converters = {3: lambda s: float(s or 0)}.

missing
[variable, optional] missing was removed in numpy 1.10. Please use missing_values instead.

missing_values
[variable, optional] The set of strings corresponding to missing data.

filling_values
[variable, optional] The set of values to be used as default when the data are missing.

usecols
[sequence, optional] Which columns to read, with 0 being the first. For example, usecols = (1, 4, 5) will extract the 2nd, 5th and 6th columns.

names
[{None, True, str, sequence}, optional] If names is True, the field names are read from the first line after the first skip_header lines. This line can optionally be preceded by a comment delimiter. If names is a sequence or a single-string of comma-separated names, the names will be used to define the field names in a structured dtype. If names is None, the names of the dtype fields will be used, if any.

excludelist
[sequence, optional] A list of names to exclude. This list is appended to the default list ['return', 'file', 'print']. Excluded names are appended with an underscore: for example, file would become file_.

deletechars
[str, optional] A string combining invalid characters that must be deleted from the names.

defaultfmt
[str, optional] A format used to define default field names, such as "f%i" or "f_%02i".

autostrip
[bool, optional] Whether to automatically strip white spaces from the variables.

replace_space
[char, optional] Character(s) used in replacement of white spaces in the variable names. By default, use a '_'.
case_sensitive

[{'True', False, 'upper', 'lower'}, optional] If True, field names are case sensitive. If False or 'upper', field names are converted to upper case. If 'lower', field names are converted to lower case.

unpack

[bool, optional] If True, the returned array is transposed, so that arguments may be unpacked using \(x, y, z = \text{genfromtxt}(...).\) When used with a structured data-type, arrays are returned for each field. Default is False.

usemask

[bool, optional] If True, return a masked array. If False, return a regular array.

loose

[bool, optional] If True, do not raise errors for invalid values.

invalid_raise

[bool, optional] If True, an exception is raised if an inconsistency is detected in the number of columns. If False, a warning is emitted and the offending lines are skipped.

max_rows

[int, optional] The maximum number of rows to read. Must not be used with skip_footer at the same time. If given, the value must be at least 1. Default is to read the entire file.

New in version 1.10.0.

encoding

[str, optional] Encoding used to decode the input file. Does not apply when \texttt{fname} is a file object. The special value ‘bytes’ enables backward compatibility workarounds that ensure that you receive byte arrays when possible and passes latin1 encoded strings to converters. Override this value to receive unicode arrays and pass strings as input to converters. If set to None the system default is used. The default value is ‘bytes’.

New in version 1.14.0.

like

[array_like] Reference object to allow the creation of arrays which are not NumPy arrays. If an array-like passed in as \texttt{like} supports the \texttt{__array_function__} protocol, the result will be defined by it. In this case, it ensures the creation of an array object compatible with that passed in via this argument.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Data read from the text file. If \texttt{usemask} is True, this is a masked array.

See also:

\texttt{numpy.loadtxt}

equivalent function when no data is missing.
Notes

- When spaces are used as delimiters, or when no delimiter has been given as input, there should not be any missing data between two fields.
- When the variables are named (either by a flexible dtype or with \textit{names}), there must not be any header in the file (else a ValueError exception is raised).
- Individual values are not stripped of spaces by default. When using a custom converter, make sure the function does remove spaces.

References

[1]

Examples

\begin{verbatim}
>>> from io import StringIO
>>> import numpy as np

Comma delimited file with mixed dtype

\begin{verbatim}
>>> s = StringIO(u"1,1.3,abcde")
>>> data = np.genfromtxt(s, dtype=[('myint','i8'), ('myfloat','f8'),
... ('mystring','S5')], delimiter="",)
>>> data
array((1, 1.3, b'abcde'),
      dtype=[('myint', '<i8'), ('myfloat', '<f8'), ('mystring', 'S5')])
\end{verbatim}

Using dtype = None

\begin{verbatim}
>>> _ = s.seek(0) # needed for StringIO example only
>>> data = np.genfromtxt(s, dtype=None,
...     names=['myint', 'myfloat', 'mystring'], delimiter="")
>>> data
array((1, 1.3, b'abcde'),
      dtype=[('myint', '<i8'), ('myfloat', '<f8'), ('mystring', 'S5')])
\end{verbatim}

Specifying dtype and names

\begin{verbatim}
>>> _ = s.seek(0)
>>> data = np.genfromtxt(s, dtype="i8,f8,S5",
...     names=['myint', 'myfloat', 'mystring'], delimiter="")
>>> data
array((1, 1.3, b'abcde'),
      dtype=[('myint', '<i8'), ('myfloat', '<f8'), ('mystring', 'S5')])
\end{verbatim}

An example with fixed-width columns

\begin{verbatim}
>>> s = StringIO(u"11.3abcde")
>>> data = np.genfromtxt(s, dtype=None, names=['intvar','fltvar','strvar'],
...     delimiter=[1,3,5])
>>> data
array((1, 1.3, b'abcde'),
      dtype=[('intvar', '<i8'), ('fltvar', '<f8'), ('strvar', 'S5')])
\end{verbatim}
\end{verbatim}
An example to show comments

```python
>>> f = StringIO('''
... text, # of chars
... hello world, 11
... numpy, 5''')
>>> np.genfromtxt(f, dtype='S12,S12', delimiter=','
array([(b'text', b''), (b'hello world', b'11'), (b'numpy', b'5')],
      dtype=[('f0', 'S12'), ('f1', 'S12')])
```

NumPy `fromregex` (file, regexp, dtype, encoding=None)

Construct an array from a text file, using regular expression parsing.

The returned array is always a structured array, and is constructed from all matches of the regular expression in the file. Groups in the regular expression are converted to fields of the structured array.

**Parameters**

- **file**
  
  [str or file] Filename or file object to read.

- **regexp**
  
  [str or regexp] Regular expression used to parse the file. Groups in the regular expression correspond to fields in the dtype.

- **dtype**
  
  [dtype or list of dtypes] Dtype for the structured array.

- **encoding**
  
  [str, optional] Encoding used to decode the input file. Does not apply to input streams.

    New in version 1.14.0.

**Returns**

- **output**
  
  [ndarray] The output array, containing the part of the content of file that was matched by regexp. output is always a structured array.

**Raises**

- **TypeError**
  
  When dtype is not a valid dtype for a structured array.

**See also**

- `fromstring`, `loadtxt`
Notes

Dtypes for structured arrays can be specified in several forms, but all forms specify at least the data type and field name. For details see basics.rec.

Examples

```python
>>> f = open('test.dat', 'w')
>>> _ = f.write("1312 foo\n1534 bar\n444 qux")
>>> f.close()

>>> regexp = r"(\d+)\s+(...)"  # match [digits, whitespace, anything]
>>> output = np.fromregex('test.dat', regexp, ...
                           [('num', np.int64), ('key', 'S3')])
>>> output
array([(1312, b'foo'), (1534, b'bar'), (444, b'qux')])

>>> output['num']
array([1312, 1534, 444])
```

4.15.3 Raw binary files

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>fromfile</th>
<th>Construct an array from data in a text or binary file.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ndarray.tofile</td>
<td>Write array to a file as text or binary (default).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.15.4 String formatting

| array2string | Return a string representation of an array. |
| array_repr   | Return the string representation of an array. |
| array_str    | Return a string representation of the data in an array. |
| format_float_positional | Format a floating-point scalar as a decimal string in positional notation. |
| format_float_scientific | Format a floating-point scalar as a decimal string in scientific notation. |

numpy.array2string(a, max_line_width=None, precision=None, suppress_small=None, separator=' ', prefix='', style='<no value>', formatter=None, threshold=None, edgeitems=None, sign=None, floatmode=None, suffix='*', legacy=None)

Return a string representation of an array.

Parameters

- **a**
  - [ndarray] Input array.

- **max_line_width**
  - [int, optional] Inserts newlines if text is longer than max_line_width. Defaults to numpy.get_printoptions()]['linewidth'].
precision

[int or None, optional] Floating point precision. Defaults to `numpy.get_printoptions()['precision']`.

suppress_small

[bool, optional] Represent numbers “very close” to zero as zero; default is False. Very close is defined by precision: if the precision is 8, e.g., numbers smaller (in absolute value) than 5e-9 are represented as zero. Defaults to `numpy.get_printoptions()['suppress']`.

separator

[str, optional] Inserted between elements.

prefix

[str, optional]

suffix

[str, optional] The length of the prefix and suffix strings are used to respectively align and wrap the output. An array is typically printed as:

```
prefix + array2string(a) + suffix
```

The output is left-padded by the length of the prefix string, and wrapping is forced at the column `max_line_width - len(suffix)`.

It should be noted that the content of prefix and suffix strings are not included in the output.

style

[_NoValue, optional] Has no effect, do not use.

Deprecated since version 1.14.0.

formatter

[dict of callables, optional] If not None, the keys should indicate the type(s) that the respective formatting function applies to. Callables should return a string. Types that are not specified (by their corresponding keys) are handled by the default formatters. Individual types for which a formatter can be set are:

- ‘bool’
- ‘int’
- ‘timedelta’: a `numpy.timedelta64`
- ‘datetime’: a `numpy.datetime64`
- ‘float’
- ‘longfloat’: 128-bit floats
- ‘complexfloat’
- ‘longcomplexfloat’: composed of two 128-bit floats
- ‘void’: type `numpy.void`
- ‘numpysr’: types `numpy.string_` and `numpy.unicode_`

Other keys that can be used to set a group of types at once are:

- ‘all’ : sets all types
- ‘int_kind’ : sets ‘int’
• `float_kind` : sets ‘float’ and ‘longfloat’
• `complex_kind` : sets ‘complexfloat’ and ‘longcomplexfloat’
• `str_kind` : sets ‘numpystr’

_threshold_

[int, optional] Total number of array elements which trigger summarization rather than full repr. Defaults to `numpy.get_printoptions() ['threshold']`.

_edgeitems_

[int, optional] Number of array items in summary at beginning and end of each dimension. Defaults to `numpy.get_printoptions() ['edgeitems']`.

_sign_

[string, either ‘-’, ‘+’, or ‘’, optional] Controls printing of the sign of floating-point types. If ‘+’, always print the sign of positive values. If ‘’, always prints a space (whitespace character) in the sign position of positive values. If ‘-’, omit the sign character of positive values. Defaults to `numpy.get_printoptions() ['sign']`.

_floatmode_

[str, optional] Controls the interpretation of the precision option for floating-point types. Defaults to `numpy.get_printoptions() ['floatmode']`. Can take the following values:

• ‘fixed’: Always print exactly precision fractional digits, even if this would print more or fewer digits than necessary to specify the value uniquely.
• ‘unique’: Print the minimum number of fractional digits necessary to represent each value uniquely. Different elements may have a different number of digits. The value of the precision option is ignored.
• ‘maxprec’: Print at most precision fractional digits, but if an element can be uniquely represented with fewer digits only print it with that many.
• ‘maxprec_equal’: Print at most precision fractional digits, but if every element in the array can be uniquely represented with an equal number of fewer digits, use that many digits for all elements.

_legacy_

[string or False, optional] If set to the string ‘1.13’ enables 1.13 legacy printing mode. This approximates numpy 1.13 print output by including a space in the sign position of floats and different behavior for 0d arrays. If set to False, disables legacy mode. Unrecognized strings will be ignored with a warning for forward compatibility.

New in version 1.14.0.

Returns

_array_str_

[str] String representation of the array.

Raises

TypeError

if a callable in formatter does not return a string.
See also:

array_str, array_repr, set_printoptions, get_printoptions

Notes

If a formatter is specified for a certain type, the precision keyword is ignored for that type.

This is a very flexible function; array_repr and array_str are using array2string internally so key-
words with the same name should work identically in all three functions.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1e-16, 1, 2, 3])
>>> np.array2string(x, precision=2, separator=',',
    ... suppress_small=True)
'[0.,1.,2.,3.]

>>> x = np.arange(3)
>>> np.array2string(x, formatter={
    'float_kind': lambda x: "%.2f" % x})
'[0.00 1.00 2.00]

>>> x = np.arange(3)
>>> np.array2string(x, formatter={
    'int': lambda x: hex(x)})
'[0x0 0x1 0x2]
```

numpy.array_repr(arr, max_line_width=None, precision=None, suppress_small=None)

Return the string representation of an array.

Parameters

arr
[ndarray] Input array.

max_line_width
[int, optional] Inserts newlines if text is longer than max_line_width. Defaults to numpy.
get_printoptions()['linewidth'].

precision
[int, optional] Floating point precision. Defaults to numpy.
get_printoptions()['precision'].

suppress_small
[bool, optional] Represent numbers “very close” to zero as zero; default is False. Very close is
defined by precision: if the precision is 8, e.g., numbers smaller (in absolute value) than 5e-9
are represented as zero. Defaults to numpy.get_printoptions()]['suppress'].

Returns

string
[str] The string representation of an array.
See also:

array_str, array2string, set_printoptions

Examples

```python
>>> np.array_repr(np.array([[1, 2]]))
'array([[1, 2]])'
>>> np.array_repr(np.ma.array([0.]))
'MaskedArray([0.])'
>>> np.array_repr(np.array([], np.int32))
'array([], dtype=int32)'
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([1e-6, 4e-7, 2, 3])
>>> np.array_repr(x, precision=6, suppress_small=True)
'array([0.000001, 0. , 2. , 3. ])
```

numpy.array_str(a, max_line_width=None, precision=None, suppress_small=None)

Return a string representation of the data in an array.

The data in the array is returned as a single string. This function is similar to `array_repr`, the difference being that `array_repr` also returns information on the kind of array and its data type.

**Parameters**

- `a` [ndarray] Input array.

- `max_line_width` [int, optional] Inserts newlines if text is longer than `max_line_width`. Defaults to `numpy.get_printoptions()['linewidth']`

- `precision` [int, optional] Floating point precision. Defaults to `numpy.get_printoptions()['precision']`

- `suppress_small` [bool, optional] Represent numbers “very close” to zero as zero; default is False. Very close is defined by precision: if the precision is 8, e.g., numbers smaller (in absolute value) than 5e-9 are represented as zero. Defaults to `numpy.get_printoptions()['suppress']`

See also:

array2string, array_repr, set_printoptions
Examples

```python
c = np.array_str(np.arange(3))
'[0 1 2]'
```

`numpy.format_float_positional(x, precision=None, unique=True, fractional=True, trim='k', sign=False, pad_left=None, pad_right=None, min_digits=None)`

Format a floating-point scalar as a decimal string in positional notation.

Provides control over rounding, trimming and padding. Uses and assumes IEEE unbiased rounding. Uses the “Dragon4” algorithm.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  - [python float or numpy floating scalar] Value to format.

- **precision**
  - [non-negative integer or None, optional] Maximum number of digits to print. May be None if unique is True, but must be an integer if unique is False.

- **unique**
  - [boolean, optional] If True, use a digit-generation strategy which gives the shortest representation which uniquely identifies the floating-point number from other values of the same type, by judicious rounding. If precision is given fewer digits than necessary can be printed, or if min_digits is given more can be printed, in which cases the last digit is rounded with unbiased rounding. If False, digits are generated as if printing an infinite-precision value and stopping after precision digits, rounding the remaining value with unbiased rounding.

- **fractional**
  - [boolean, optional] If True, the cutoffs of precision and min_digits refer to the total number of digits after the decimal point, including leading zeros. If False, precision and min_digits refer to the total number of significant digits, before or after the decimal point, ignoring leading zeros.

- **trim**
  - [one of ‘k’, ‘,’ ‘0’, ‘-’, optional] Controls post-processing trimming of trailing digits, as follows:
    - ‘k’ : keep trailing zeros, keep decimal point (no trimming)
    - ‘,’ : trim all trailing zeros, leave decimal point
    - ‘0’ : trim all but the zero before the decimal point. Insert the zero if it is missing.
    - ‘-’ : trim trailing zeros and any trailing decimal point

- **sign**
  - [boolean, optional] Whether to show the sign for positive values.

- **pad_left**
  - [non-negative integer, optional] Pad the left side of the string with whitespace until at least that many characters are to the left of the decimal point.

- **pad_right**
  - [non-negative integer, optional] Pad the right side of the string with whitespace until at least that many characters are to the right of the decimal point.
min_digits
[non-negative integer or None, optional] Minimum number of digits to print. Only has an effect if unique=True in which case additional digits past those necessary to uniquely identify the value may be printed, rounding the last additional digit.
– version added: 1.21.0

Returns
rep
[string] The string representation of the floating point value

See also:
format_float_scientific

Examples

```
>>> np.format_float_positional(np.float32(np.pi))
'3.1415927'
>>> np.format_float_positional(np.float16(np.pi))
'3.14'
>>> np.format_float_positional(np.float16(0.3))
'0.3'
>>> np.format_float_positional(np.float16(0.3), unique=False, precision=10)
'0.3000488281'
```

numpy.format_float_scientific(x, precision=None, unique=True, trim='k', sign=False, pad_left=None, exp_digits=None, min_digits=None)

Format a floating-point scalar as a decimal string in scientific notation.

Provides control over rounding, trimming and padding. Uses and assumes IEEE unbiased rounding. Uses the “Dragon4” algorithm.

Parameters

x
[python float or numpy floating scalar] Value to format.

precision
[non-negative integer or None, optional] Maximum number of digits to print. May be None if unique is True, but must be an integer if unique is False.

unique
[boolean, optional] If True, use a digit-generation strategy which gives the shortest representation which uniquely identifies the floating-point number from other values of the same type, by judicious rounding. If precision is given fewer digits than necessary can be printed. If min_digits is given more can be printed, in which cases the last digit is rounded with unbiased rounding. If False, digits are generated as if printing an infinite-precision value and stopping after precision digits, rounding the remaining value with unbiased rounding.

trim
[one of ‘k’, ‘’, ‘0’, ‘-‘, optional] Controls post-processing trimming of trailing digits, as follows:
• 'k': keep trailing zeros, keep decimal point (no trimming)
• ': ' trim all trailing zeros, leave decimal point
• '0': trim all but the zero before the decimal point. Insert the zero if it is missing.
• '-': trim trailing zeros and any trailing decimal point

sign
[boolean, optional] Whether to show the sign for positive values.

pad_left
[non-negative integer, optional] Pad the left side of the string with whitespace until at least that many characters are to the left of the decimal point.

exp_digits
[non-negative integer, optional] Pad the exponent with zeros until it contains at least this many digits. If omitted, the exponent will be at least 2 digits.

min_digits
[non-negative integer or None, optional] Minimum number of digits to print. This only has an effect for unique=True. In that case more digits than necessary to uniquely identify the value may be printed and rounded unbiased.

– version added:: 1.21.0

Returns

rep
[string] The string representation of the floating point value

See also:

format_float_positional

Examples

```python
>>> np.format_float_scientific(np.float32(np.pi))
'3.1415927e+00'
>>> s = np.float32(1.23e24)
>>> np.format_float_scientific(s, unique=False, precision=15)
'1.230000071797338e+24'
>>> np.format_float_scientific(s, exp_digits=4)
'1.23e+0024'
```
4.15.5 Memory mapping files

\texttt{memmap}\(\text{\textnormal{(filename[, dtype, mode, offset, …])}}\) Create a memory-map to an array stored in a \textit{binary} file on disk.

\texttt{lib.format.open\_memmap}\(\text{\textnormal{(filename[, mode, …])}}\) Open a .npy file as a memory-mapped array.

\texttt{lib.format.open\_memmap}\(\text{\textnormal{(filename, mode='r+', dtype=None, shape=None, fortran\_order=False, version=None)}}\)

Open a .npy file as a memory-mapped array.

This may be used to read an existing file or create a new one.

Parameters

\texttt{filename} \\
[\text{\textnormal{str or path-like}}] The name of the file on disk. This may \textit{not} be a file-like object.

\texttt{mode} \\
[\text{\textnormal{str, optional}}] The mode in which to open the file; the default is ‘r+’. In addition to the standard file modes, ‘c’ is also accepted to mean “copy on write.” See \texttt{memmap} for the available mode strings.

\texttt{dtype} \\
[data-type, optional] The data type of the array if we are creating a new file in “write” mode, if not, \texttt{dtype} is ignored. The default value is None, which results in a data-type of \texttt{float}64.

\texttt{shape} \\
[tuple of int] The shape of the array if we are creating a new file in “write” mode, in which case this parameter is required. Otherwise, this parameter is ignored and is thus optional.

\texttt{fortran\_order} \\
[bool, optional] Whether the array should be Fortran-contiguous (True) or C-contiguous (False, the default) if we are creating a new file in “write” mode.

\texttt{version} \\
[tuple of int (major, minor) or None] If the mode is a “write” mode, then this is the version of the file format used to create the file. None means use the oldest supported version that is able to store the data. Default: None

Returns

\texttt{marray} \\

Raises

\texttt{ValueError} \\
If the data or the mode is invalid.

\texttt{IOError} \\
If the file is not found or cannot be opened correctly.
4.15.6 Text formatting options

**set_printoptions**({precision, threshold, ...})  
Set printing options.

get_printoptions()  
Return the current print options.

set_string_function(f[, repr])  
Set a Python function to be used when pretty printing arrays.

printoptions(*args, **kwargs)  
Context manager for setting print options.

**numpy.set_printoptions**(precision=None, threshold=None, edgeitems=None, linewidth=None, suppress=None, nanstr=None, infstr=None, formatter=None, sign=None, floatmode=None, *, legacy=None)

Set printing options.

These options determine the way floating point numbers, arrays and other NumPy objects are displayed.

**Parameters**

**precision**

[int or None, optional] Number of digits of precision for floating point output (default 8). May be None if floatmode is not fixed, to print as many digits as necessary to uniquely specify the value.

**threshold**

[int, optional] Total number of array elements which trigger summarization rather than full repr (default 1000). To always use the full repr without summarization, pass `sys.maxsize`.

**edgeitems**

[int, optional] Number of array items in summary at beginning and end of each dimension (default 3).

**linewidth**

[int, optional] The number of characters per line for the purpose of inserting line breaks (default 75).

**suppress**

[bool, optional] If True, always print floating point numbers using fixed point notation, in which case numbers equal to zero in the current precision will print as zero. If False, then scientific notation is used when absolute value of the smallest number is < 1e-4 or the ratio of the maximum absolute value to the minimum is > 1e3. The default is False.

**nanstr**

[tr, optional] String representation of floating point not-a-number (default nan).

**infstr**

[tr, optional] String representation of floating point infinity (default inf).

**sign**
[string, either ‘-’, ‘+’, or ‘ ‘, optional] Controls printing of the sign of floating-point types. If ‘+’, always print the sign of positive values. If ‘ ‘, always prints a space (whitespace character) in the sign position of positive values. If ‘-’, omit the sign character of positive values. (default ‘-’)

**formatter**

[dict of callables, optional] If not None, the keys should indicate the type(s) that the respective formatting function applies to. Callables should return a string. Types that are not specified (by their corresponding keys) are handled by the default formatters. Individual types for which a formatter can be set are:

- ‘bool’
- ‘int’
- ‘timedelta’: a `numpy.timedelta64`
- ‘datetime’: a `numpy.datetime64`
- ‘float’
- ‘longfloat’: 128-bit floats
- ‘complexfloat’
- ‘longcomplexfloat’: composed of two 128-bit floats
- ‘numpystr’: types `numpy.string_` and `numpy.unicode_`
- ‘object’: `np.object_` arrays

Other keys that can be used to set a group of types at once are:

- ‘all’: sets all types
- ‘int_kind’: sets ‘int’
- ‘float_kind’: sets ‘float’ and ‘longfloat’
- ‘complex_kind’: sets ‘complexfloat’ and ‘longcomplexfloat’
- ‘str_kind’: sets ‘numpystr’

**floatmode**

[st, optional] Controls the interpretation of the `precision` option for floating-point types. Can take the following values (default `maxprec_equal`):

- ‘fixed’: Always print exactly `precision` fractional digits,
  even if this would print more or fewer digits than necessary to specify the value uniquely.

- ‘unique’: Print the minimum number of fractional digits necessary
  to represent each value uniquely. Different elements may have a different number of
  digits. The value of the `precision` option is ignored.

- ‘maxprec’: Print at most `precision` fractional digits, but if
  an element can be uniquely represented with fewer digits only print it with that many.

- ‘maxprec_equal’: Print at most `precision` fractional digits,
  but if every element in the array can be uniquely represented with an equal number of
  fewer digits, use that many digits for all elements.
legacy

[string or False, optional] If set to the string ‘1.13’ enables 1.13 legacy printing mode. This approximates numpy 1.13 print output by including a space in the sign position of floats and different behavior for 0d arrays. If set to False, disables legacy mode. Unrecognized strings will be ignored with a warning for forward compatibility.

New in version 1.14.0.

See also:

get_printoptions, printoptions, set_string_function, array2string

Notes

formatter is always reset with a call to set_printoptions.

Use printoptions as a context manager to set the values temporarily.

Examples

Floating point precision can be set:

```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(precision=4)
>>> np.array([1.123456789])
[1.1235]
```

Long arrays can be summarised:

```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(threshold=5)
>>> np.arange(10)
array([0, 1, 2, ..., 7, 8, 9])
```

Small results can be suppressed:

```python
>>> eps = np.finfo(float).eps
>>> x = np.arange(4.)
>>> x**2 - (x + eps)**2
array([-4.9304e-32, -4.4409e-16, 0.0000e+00, 0.0000e+00])
>>> np.set_printoptions(suppress=True)
>>> x**2 - (x + eps)**2
array([-0., -0., 0., 0.])
```

A custom formatter can be used to display array elements as desired:

```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(formatter={'all': lambda x: 'int: ' + str(-x)})
>>> x = np.arange(3)
>>> x
array([int: 0, int: -1, int: -2])
>>> np.set_printoptions()    # formatter gets reset
>>> x
array([0, 1, 2])
```

To put back the default options, you can use:
```python
>>> np.set_printoptions(edgeitems=3, infstr='inf',
... linewidth=75, nanstr='nan', precision=8,
... suppress=False, threshold=1000, formatter=None)

Also to temporarily override options, use `printoptions` as a context manager:

```python
>>> with np.printoptions(precision=2, suppress=True, threshold=5):
... np.linspace(0, 10, 10)
array([ 0. , 1.11, 2.22, ..., 7.78, 8.89, 10. ])
```

`numpy.get_printoptions()`

Return the current print options.

**Returns**

`print_opts`

[dict] Dictionary of current print options with keys
- precision : int
- threshold : int
- edgeitems : int
- linewidth : int
- suppress : bool
- nanstr : str
- infstr : str
- formatter : dict of callables
- sign : str

For a full description of these options, see `set_printoptions`.

See also:

- `set_printoptions`, `printoptions`, `set_string_function`  

`numpy.set_string_function(f, repr=True)`

Set a Python function to be used when pretty printing arrays.

**Parameters**

- **f**

  [function or None] Function to be used to pretty print arrays. The function should expect a single array argument and return a string of the representation of the array. If None, the function is reset to the default NumPy function to print arrays.

- **repr**

  [bool, optional] If True (default), the function for pretty printing (`__repr__`) is set, if False the function that returns the default string representation (`__str__`) is set.

See also:

- `set_printoptions`, `get_printoptions`
Examples

```python
>>> def pprint(arr):
...     return 'HA! - What are you going to do now?'
...
>>> np.set_string_function(pprint)
>>> a = np.arange(10)
>>> a
HA! - What are you going to do now?
>>>_=a
>>> # [0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9]

We can reset the function to the default:

```python
>>> np.set_string_function(None)
```
4.15.7 Base-n representations

- **binary_repr**(num[, width]) Return the binary representation of the input number as a string.
- **base_repr**(number[, base, padding]) Return a string representation of a number in the given base system.

```
numpy.base_repr (number, base=2, padding=0)
```

Return a string representation of a number in the given base system.

**Parameters**

- **number**
  - [int] The value to convert. Positive and negative values are handled.
- **base**
  - [int, optional] Convert number to the base number system. The valid range is 2-36, the default value is 2.
- **padding**
  - [int, optional] Number of zeros padded on the left. Default is 0 (no padding).

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [str] String representation of number in base system.

**See also:**

- **binary_repr**
  - Faster version of base_repr for base 2.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.base_repr(5)
'101'
>>> np.base_repr(6, 5)
'11'
>>> np.base_repr(7, base=5, padding=3)
'00012'

>>> np.base_repr(10, base=16)
'A'
>>> np.base_repr(32, base=16)
'20'
```
4.15.8 Data sources

`datasource(destpath)`
A generic data source file (file, http, ftp, ...).

class `numpy.DataSource(destpath='.' )`
A generic data source file (file, http, ftp, ...).

DataSources can be local files or remote files/URLs. The files may also be compressed or uncompressed. DataSource hides some of the low-level details of downloading the file, allowing you to simply pass in a valid file path (or URL) and obtain a file object.

**Parameters**

*destpath*

[str or None, optional] Path to the directory where the source file gets downloaded to for use. If `destpath` is None, a temporary directory will be created. The default path is the current directory.

**Notes**

URLs require a scheme string (http://) to be used, without it they will fail:

```python
>>> repos = np.DataSource()
>>> repos.exists('www.google.com/index.html')
False
>>> repos.exists('http://www.google.com/index.html')
True
```

Temporary directories are deleted when the DataSource is deleted.

**Examples**

```python
>>> ds = np.DataSource('/home/guido')
>>> uriname = 'http://www.google.com/'
>>> gfile = ds.open('http://www.google.com/ ')
>>> ds.abspath(uriname)
'/home/guido/www.google.com/index.html'

>>> ds = np.DataSource(None)  # use with temporary file
>>> ds.open('/home/guido/foobar.txt')
<open file '/home/guido/foobar.txt', mode 'r' at 0x91d4430>
>>> ds.abspath('/home/guido/foobar.txt')
'/tmp/.../home/guido/foobar.txt'
```
## Methods

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<td>Open and return file-like object.</td>
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### `DataSource.abspath(path)`

Return absolute path of file in the DataSource directory.

If `path` is an URL, then `abspath` will return either the location the file exists locally or the location it would exist when opened using the `open` method.

**Parameters**

- **path**
  - [str] Can be a local file or a remote URL.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [str] Complete path, including the `DataSource` destination directory.

### `Notes`

The functionality is based on `os.path.abspath` method.

### `DataSource.exists(path)`

Test if path exists.

Test if `path` exists as (and in this order):

- a local file.
- a remote URL that has been downloaded and stored locally in the `DataSource` directory.
- a remote URL that has not been downloaded, but is valid and accessible.

**Parameters**

- **path**
  - [str] Can be a local file or a remote URL.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [bool] True if `path` exists.
Notes

When path is an URL, exists will return True if it’s either stored locally in the DataSource directory, or is a valid remote URL. DataSource does not discriminate between the two, the file is accessible if it exists in either location.

method

```
DataSource.open(path, mode='r', encoding=None, newline=None)
```

Open and return file-like object.

If path is an URL, it will be downloaded, stored in the DataSource directory and opened from there.

Parameters

- path
  - [str] Local file path or URL to open.
- mode
  - [{'r', 'w', 'a'}, optional] Mode to open path. Mode 'r' for reading, 'w' for writing, 'a' to append. Available modes depend on the type of object specified by path. Default is 'r'.
- encoding
  - [{None, str}, optional] Open text file with given encoding. The default encoding will be what io.open uses.
- newline
  - [{None, str}, optional] Newline to use when reading text file.

Returns

- out
  - [file object] File object.

4.15.9 Binary Format Description

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Binary serialization

**NPY format**

A simple format for saving numpy arrays to disk with the full information about them.

The .npy format is the standard binary file format in NumPy for persisting a single arbitrary NumPy array on disk. The format stores all of the shape and dtype information necessary to reconstruct the array correctly even on another machine with a different architecture. The format is designed to be as simple as possible while achieving its limited goals.

The .npz format is the standard format for persisting multiple NumPy arrays on disk. A .npz file is a zip file containing multiple .npy files, one for each array.
Capabilities

- Can represent all NumPy arrays including nested record arrays and object arrays.
- Represents the data in its native binary form.
- Supports Fortran-contiguous arrays directly.
- Stores all of the necessary information to reconstruct the array including shape and dtype on a machine of a different architecture. Both little-endian and big-endian arrays are supported, and a file with little-endian numbers will yield a little-endian array on any machine reading the file. The types are described in terms of their actual sizes. For example, if a machine with a 64-bit C “long int” writes out an array with “long ints”, a reading machine with 32-bit C “long ints” will yield an array with 64-bit integers.
- Is straightforward to reverse engineer. Datasets often live longer than the programs that created them. A competent developer should be able to create a solution in their preferred programming language to read most .npy files that they have been given without much documentation.
- Allows memory-mapping of the data. See open_memmap.
- Can be read from a filelike stream object instead of an actual file.
- Stores object arrays, i.e. arrays containing elements that are arbitrary Python objects. Files with object arrays are not to be mmapable, but can be read and written to disk.

Limitations

- Arbitrary subclasses of numpy.ndarray are not completely preserved. Subclasses will be accepted for writing, but only the array data will be written out. A regular numpy.ndarray object will be created upon reading the file.

**Warning:** Due to limitations in the interpretation of structured dtypes, dtypes with fields with empty names will have the names replaced by ‘f0’, ‘f1’, etc. Such arrays will not round-trip through the format entirely accurately. The data is intact; only the field names will differ. We are working on a fix for this. This fix will not require a change in the file format. The arrays with such structures can still be saved and restored, and the correct dtype may be restored by using the loadedarray.view(correct_dtype) method.

File extensions

We recommend using the .npy and .npz extensions for files saved in this format. This is by no means a requirement; applications may wish to use these file formats but use an extension specific to the application. In the absence of an obvious alternative, however, we suggest using .npy and .npz.

Version numbering

The version numbering of these formats is independent of NumPy version numbering. If the format is upgraded, the code in numpy.io will still be able to read and write Version 1.0 files.
Format Version 1.0

The first 6 bytes are a magic string: exactly \x93NUMPY.

The next 1 byte is an unsigned byte: the major version number of the file format, e.g. \x01.

The next 1 byte is an unsigned byte: the minor version number of the file format, e.g. \x00. Note: the version of the file format is not tied to the version of the numpy package.

The next 2 bytes form a little-endian unsigned short int: the length of the header data HEADER_LEN.

The next HEADER_LEN bytes form the header data describing the array's format. It is an ASCII string which contains a Python literal expression of a dictionary. It is terminated by a newline (\n) and padded with spaces (\x20) to make the total of len(magic string) + 2 + len(length) + HEADER_LEN be evenly divisible by 64 for alignment purposes.

The dictionary contains three keys:

```
“descr”
[dtpe.descr] An object that can be passed as an argument to the numpy.dtype constructor to create
the array’s dtype.

“fortran_order”
[bool] Whether the array data is Fortran-contiguous or not. Since Fortran-contiguous arrays are a
common form of non-C-contiguity, we allow them to be written directly to disk for efficiency.

“shape”
[tuple of int] The shape of the array.
```

For repeatability and readability, the dictionary keys are sorted in alphabetic order. This is for convenience only. A writer SHOULD implement this if possible. A reader MUST NOT depend on this.

Following the header comes the array data. If the dtype contains Python objects (i.e. dtpe.hasobject is True),
then the data is a Python pickle of the array. Otherwise the data is the contiguous (either C- or Fortran-, depending on fortran_order) bytes of the array. Consumers can figure out the number of bytes by multiplying the number of elements given by the shape (noting that shape=() means there is 1 element) by dtype.itemsize.

Format Version 2.0

The version 1.0 format only allowed the array header to have a total size of 65535 bytes. This can be exceeded by structured arrays with a large number of columns. The version 2.0 format extends the header size to 4 GiB. numpy.save will automatically save in 2.0 format if the data requires it, else it will always use the more compatible 1.0 format.

The description of the fourth element of the header therefore has become: “The next 4 bytes form a little-endian unsigned int: the length of the header data HEADER_LEN.”

4.15. Input and output
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

Format Version 3.0

This version replaces the ASCII string (which in practice was latin1) with a utf8-encoded string, so supports structured types with any unicode field names.

Notes

The .npy format, including motivation for creating it and a comparison of alternatives, is described in the “npy-format” NEP, however details have evolved with time and this document is more current.

Functions

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<tr>
<td>dtype_to_descr(dtype)</td>
<td>Get a serializable descriptor from the dtype.</td>
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<td>header_data_from_array_1_0(array)</td>
<td>Get the dictionary of header metadata from a numpy.ndarray.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>magic(major, minor)</td>
<td>Return the magic string for the given file format version.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open_memmap(filename[, mode, dtype, shape, ...])</td>
<td>Open a .npy file as a memory-mapped array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read_array(fp[, allow_pickle, pickle_kwargs])</td>
<td>Read an array from an NPY file.</td>
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<tr>
<td>read_array_header_1_0(fp)</td>
<td>Read an array header from a filelike object using the 1.0 file format version.</td>
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<td>Read an array header from a filelike object using the 2.0 file format version.</td>
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<tr>
<td>read_magic(fp)</td>
<td>Read the magic string to get the version of the file format.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write_array(fp, array[, version, ...])</td>
<td>Write an array to an NPY file, including a header.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write_array_header_1_0(fp, d)</td>
<td>Write the header for an array using the 1.0 format.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write_array_header_2_0(fp, d)</td>
<td>Write the header for an array using the 2.0 format.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

lib.format.descr_to_dtype(descr)
Returns a dtype based off the given description.

This is essentially the reverse of dtype_to_descr(). It will remove the valueless padding fields created by, i.e. simple fields like dtype('float32'), and then convert the description to its corresponding dtype.

Parameters

- descr
  [object] The object retrieved by dtype.descr. Can be passed to numpy.dtype() in order to replicate the input dtype.

Returns

- dtype
  [dtype] The dtype constructed by the description.

lib.format.dtype_to_descr(dtype)
Get a serializable descriptor from the dtype.

The .descr attribute of a dtype object cannot be round-tripped through the dtype() constructor. Simple types, like dtype('float32'), have a descr which looks like a record array with one field with “ as a name. The dtype() constructor interprets this as a request to give a default name. Instead, we construct descriptor that can be passed to dtype().

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Parameters

dtype
[dtype] The dtype of the array that will be written to disk.

Returns
descr
[object] An object that can be passed to `numpy.dtype()` in order to replicate the input dtype.

`lib.format.header_data_from_array_1_0(array)`
Get the dictionary of header metadata from a numpy.ndarray.

Parameters

array
[numpy.ndarray]

Returns
d
[dict] This has the appropriate entries for writing its string representation to the header of the file.

`lib.format.magic(major, minor)`
Return the magic string for the given file format version.

Parameters

major
[int in [0, 255]]

minor
[int in [0, 255]]

Returns

magic
[str]

Raises

ValueError if the version cannot be formatted.

`lib.format.read_array(fp, allow_pickle=False, pickle_kwags=None)`
Read an array from an NPY file.

Parameters

fp
[file_like object] If this is not a real file object, then this may take extra memory and time.
allow_pickle
[bool, optional] Whether to allow writing pickled data. Default: False


pickle_kwargs
[dict] Additional keyword arguments to pass to pickle.load. These are only useful when loading
object arrays saved on Python 2 when using Python 3.

Returns

array
[ndarray] The array from the data on disk.

Raises

ValueError
If the data is invalid, or allow_pickle=False and the file contains an object array.

lib.format.read_array_header_1_0(fp)
Read an array header from a filelike object using the 1.0 file format version.

This will leave the file object located just after the header.

Parameters

fp
[filelike object] A file object or something with a read() method like a file.

Returns

shape
[tuple of int] The shape of the array.

fortran_order
[bool] The array data will be written out directly if it is either C-contiguous or Fortran-
contiguous. Otherwise, it will be made contiguous before writing it out.

dtype
[dtype] The dtype of the file’s data.

Raises

ValueError
If the data is invalid.

lib.format.read_array_header_2_0(fp)
Read an array header from a filelike object using the 2.0 file format version.

This will leave the file object located just after the header.

New in version 1.9.0.

Parameters
fp

[filelike object] A file object or something with a `read()` method like a file.

Returns

shape

[tuple of int] The shape of the array.

fortran_order

[bool] The array data will be written out directly if it is either C-contiguous or Fortran-contiguous. Otherwise, it will be made contiguous before writing it out.

dtype

[dtype] The dtype of the file’s data.

Raises

ValueError

If the data is invalid.

`lib.format.read_magic(fp)`

Read the magic string to get the version of the file format.

Parameters

fp

[filelike object]

Returns

major

[int]

minor

[int]

`lib.format.write_array(fp, array, version=None, allow_pickle=True, pickle_kwargs=None)`

Write an array to an NPY file, including a header.

If the array is neither C-contiguous nor Fortran-contiguous AND the file_like object is not a real file object, this function will have to copy data in memory.

Parameters

fp

[file_like object] An open, writable file object, or similar object with a `.write()` method.

array

[ndarray] The array to write to disk.
version

[(int, int) or None, optional] The version number of the format. None means use the oldest supported version that is able to store the data. Default: None

allow_pickle

[bool, optional] Whether to allow writing pickled data. Default: True

pickle_kwargs

[dict, optional] Additional keyword arguments to pass to pickle.dump, excluding 'protocol'. These are only useful when pickling objects in object arrays on Python 3 to Python 2 compatible format.

Raises

ValueError

If the array cannot be persisted. This includes the case of allow_pickle=False and array being an object array.

Various other errors

If the array contains Python objects as part of its dtype, the process of pickling them may raise various errors if the objects are not picklable.

lib.format.write_array_header_1_0(fp, d)

Write the header for an array using the 1.0 format.

Parameters

fp

[filelike object]

d

[dict] This has the appropriate entries for writing its string representation to the header of the file.

lib.format.write_array_header_2_0(fp, d)

Write the header for an array using the 2.0 format.

The 2.0 format allows storing very large structured arrays.

New in version 1.9.0.

Parameters

fp

[filelike object]

d

[dict] This has the appropriate entries for writing its string representation to the header of the file.
4.16 Linear algebra (numpy.linalg)

The NumPy linear algebra functions rely on BLAS and LAPACK to provide efficient low level implementations of standard linear algebra algorithms. Those libraries may be provided by NumPy itself using C versions of a subset of their reference implementations but, when possible, highly optimized libraries that take advantage of specialized processor functionality are preferred. Examples of such libraries are OpenBLAS, MKL (TM), and ATLAS. Because those libraries are multithreaded and processor dependent, environmental variables and external packages such as threadpoolctl may be needed to control the number of threads or specify the processor architecture.

The SciPy library also contains a linalg submodule, and there is overlap in the functionality provided by the SciPy and NumPy submodules. SciPy contains functions not found in numpy.linalg, such as functions related to LU decomposition and the Schur decomposition, multiple ways of calculating the pseudo-inverse, and matrix transcendental such as the matrix logarithm. Some functions that exist in both have augmented functionality in scipy.linalg. For example, scipy.linalg.eig can take a second matrix argument for solving generalized eigenvalue problems. Some functions in NumPy, however, have more flexible broadcasting options. For example, numpy.linalg.solve can handle “stacked” arrays, while scipy.linalg.solve accepts only a single square array as its first argument.

**Note:** The term matrix as it is used on this page indicates a 2d numpy.array object, and not a numpy.matrix object. The latter is no longer recommended, even for linear algebra. See the matrix object documentation for more information.

4.16.1 The @ operator

Introduced in NumPy 1.10.0, the @ operator is preferable to other methods when computing the matrix product between 2d arrays. The numpy.matmul function implements the @ operator.

4.16.2 Matrix and vector products

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td><code>dot(a, b[, out])</code></td>
<td>Dot product of two arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>linalg.multi_dot(arrays, *[out])</code></td>
<td>Compute the dot product of two or more arrays in a single function call, while automatically selecting the fastest evaluation order.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>vdot(a, b)</code></td>
<td>Return the dot product of two vectors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>inner(a, b)</code></td>
<td>Inner product of two arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>outer(a, b[, out])</code></td>
<td>Compute the outer product of two vectors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>matmul(x1, x2, [*, out, casting, order, …])</code></td>
<td>Matrix product of two arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tensordot(a, b[, axes])</code></td>
<td>Compute tensor dot product along specified axes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>einsum(subscripts, *operands[, out, dtype, …])</code></td>
<td>Evaluates the Einstein summation convention on the operands.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>einsum_path(subscripts, *operands[, optimize])</code></td>
<td>Evaluates the lowest cost contraction order for an einsum expression by considering the creation of intermediate arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>linalg.matrix_power(a, n)</code></td>
<td>Raise a square matrix to the (integer) power n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>kron(a, b)</code></td>
<td>Kronecker product of two arrays.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**numpy.dot (a, b, out=None)**

Dot product of two arrays. Specifically,

- If both a and b are 1-D arrays, it is inner product of vectors (without complex conjugation).
• If both $a$ and $b$ are 2-D arrays, it is matrix multiplication, but using `matmul` or $a \ @ \ b$ is preferred.
• If either $a$ or $b$ is 0-D (scalar), it is equivalent to `multiply` and using `numpy.multiply(a, b)` or $a * b$ is preferred.
• If $a$ is an N-D array and $b$ is a 1-D array, it is a sum product over the last axis of $a$ and $b$.
• If $a$ is an N-D array and $b$ is an M-D array (where $M \geq 2$), it is a sum product over the last axis of $a$ and the second-to-last axis of $b$:

$$\text{dot}(a, b)[i, j, k, m] = \text{sum}(a[i, j, :]*b[k,:,m])$$

Parameters

$a$
[array_like] First argument.

$b$
[array_like] Second argument.

`out`
[ndarray, optional] Output argument. This must have the exact kind that would be returned if it was not used. In particular, it must have the right type, must be C-contiguous, and its dtype must be the dtype that would be returned for `dot(a, b)`. This is a performance feature. Therefore, if these conditions are not met, an exception is raised, instead of attempting to be flexible.

Returns

`output`
[ndarray] Returns the dot product of $a$ and $b$. If $a$ and $b$ are both scalars or both 1-D arrays then a scalar is returned; otherwise an array is returned. If `out` is given, then it is returned.

Raises

`ValueError`
If the last dimension of $a$ is not the same size as the second-to-last dimension of $b$.

See also:

`vdot`
Complex-conjugating dot product.

`tensordot`
Sum products over arbitrary axes.

`einsum`
Einstein summation convention.

`matmul`
‘@’ operator as method with out parameter.
**linalg.multi_dot**

Chained dot product.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.dot(3, 4)
12
```

Neither argument is complex-conjugated:

```python
>>> np.dot([2j, 3j], [2j, 3j])
(-13+0j)
```

For 2-D arrays it is the matrix product:

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

```python
>>> a = np.arange(3*4*5*6).reshape((3,4,5,6))
>>> b = np.arange(3*4*5*6)[:-1].reshape((5,4,6,3))
>>> np.dot(a, b)[2,3,2,1,2,2]
499128
>>> sum(a[2,3,2,:] * b[1,2,:])
499128
```

**linalg.multi_dot**(*arrays*, *, *out=None*)

Compute the dot product of two or more arrays in a single function call, while automatically selecting the fastest evaluation order.

**multi_dot** chains **numpy.dot** and uses optimal parenthesization of the matrices [1] [2]. Depending on the shapes of the matrices, this can speed up the multiplication a lot.

- If the first argument is 1-D it is treated as a row vector. If the last argument is 1-D it is treated as a column vector. The other arguments must be 2-D.

- Think of **multi_dot** as:

```python
def multi_dot(arrays):
    return functools.reduce(np.dot, arrays)
```

**Parameters**

arrays

[sequence of array_like] If the first argument is 1-D it is treated as row vector. If the last argument is 1-D it is treated as column vector. The other arguments must be 2-D.

out

[ndarray, optional] Output argument. This must have the exact kind that would be returned if it was not used. In particular, it must have the right type, must be C-contiguous, and its dtype must be the dtype that would be returned for **dot**(a, b). This is a performance feature. Therefore, if these conditions are not met, an exception is raised, instead of attempting to be flexible.
New in version 1.19.0.

Returns

**output**

[ndarray] Returns the dot product of the supplied arrays.

See also:

- **numpy.dot**
  - dot multiplication with two arguments.

Notes

The cost for a matrix multiplication can be calculated with the following function:

```python
def cost(A, B):
    return A.shape[0] * A.shape[1] * B.shape[1]
```

Assume we have three matrices $A_{10\times100}, B_{100\times5}, C_{5\times50}$.

The costs for the two different parenthesizations are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parenthesization</th>
<th>Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$(AB)C$</td>
<td>$5000 + 2500 = 7500$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A(BC)$</td>
<td>$50000 + 25000 = 75000$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References

[1], [2]

Examples

**multi_dot** allows you to write:

```python
>>> from numpy.linalg import multi_dot
>>> # Prepare some data
>>> A = np.random.random((10000, 100))
>>> B = np.random.random((100, 1000))
>>> C = np.random.random((1000, 5))
>>> D = np.random.random((5, 333))
>>> # the actual dot multiplication
>>> _ = multi_dot([A, B, C, D])

instead of:

```python
>>> _ = np.dot(np.dot(np.dot(A, B), C), D)
>>> # or
>>> _ = A.dot(B).dot(C).dot(D)
```

**numpy.vdot** $(a, b)$

Return the dot product of two vectors.
The vdot($a, b$) function handles complex numbers differently than dot($a, b$). If the first argument is complex the complex conjugate of the first argument is used for the calculation of the dot product.

Note that vdot handles multidimensional arrays differently than dot: it does not perform a matrix product, but flattens input arguments to 1-D vectors first. Consequently, it should only be used for vectors.

**Parameters**

- $a$ [array_like] If $a$ is complex the complex conjugate is taken before calculation of the dot product.

- $b$ [array_like] Second argument to the dot product.

**Returns**

- output [ndarray] Dot product of $a$ and $b$. Can be an int, float, or complex depending on the types of $a$ and $b$.

**See also:**

dot

Return the dot product without using the complex conjugate of the first argument.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([1+2j, 3+4j])
>>> b = np.array([5+6j, 7+8j])
>>> np.vdot(a, b)
(70-8j)
>>> np.vdot(b, a)
(70+8j)
```

Note that higher-dimensional arrays are flattened!

```python
>>> a = np.array([[[1, 4], [5, 6]]])
>>> b = np.array([[[4, 1], [2, 2]]])
>>> np.vdot(a, b)
30
>>> np.vdot(b, a)
30
>>> 1*4 + 4*1 + 5*2 + 6*2
30
```

`numpy.inner(a, b)`

Inner product of two arrays.

Ordinary inner product of vectors for 1-D arrays (without complex conjugation), in higher dimensions a sum product over the last axes.

**Parameters**
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

a, b

[array_like] If a and b are non-scalar, their last dimensions must match.

Returns

out

[ndarray] If a and b are both scalars or both 1-D arrays then a scalar is returned; otherwise an array is returned. out.shape = (*a.shape[:-1], *b.shape[:-1])

Raises

ValueError

If both a and b are non-scalar and their last dimensions have different sizes.

See also:

tensordot
Sum products over arbitrary axes.

dot
Generalised matrix product, using second last dimension of b.
einsum
Einstein summation convention.

Notes

For vectors (1-D arrays) it computes the ordinary inner-product:

\[ \text{np.inner}(a, b) = \sum(a[:]*b[:]) \]

More generally, if ndim(a) = r > 0 and ndim(b) = s > 0:

\[ \text{np.inner}(a, b) = \text{np.tensordot}(a, b, axes=(-1,-1)) \]

or explicitly:

\[
\text{np.inner}(a, b)[i0,\ldots,ir-2,j0,\ldots,js-2] = \sum(a[i0,\ldots,ir-2,:]*b[j0,\ldots,js-2,:])
\]

In addition a or b may be scalars, in which case:

\[ \text{np.inner}(a, b) = a*b \]
Examples

Ordinary inner product for vectors:

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> b = np.array([0, 1, 0])
>>> np.inner(a, b)
2
```

Some multidimensional examples:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(24).reshape((2,3,4))
>>> b = np.arange(4)
>>> c = np.inner(a, b)
>>> c.shape
(2, 3)
>>> c
array([[ 14,  38,  62],
        [ 86, 110, 134]])
```

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape((3,2))
>>> b = np.arange(2, 7)
>>> c = np.inner(a, b)
>>> c.shape
(1, 1, 3)
>>> c
array([[[ 1,  3,  5]]])
```

An example where `b` is a scalar:

```python
>>> np.inner(np.eye(2), 7)
array([[ 7.,  0.],
        [ 0.,  7.]])
```

`numpy.outer(a, b, out=None)`

Compute the outer product of two vectors.

Given two vectors, \(a = [a0, a1, \ldots, aM]\) and \(b = [b0, b1, \ldots, bN]\), the outer product is:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
    a0*b0 & a0*b1 & \cdots & a0*bN \\
    a1*b0 & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\
    \vdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\
    aM*b0 & \cdots & \cdots & aM*bN
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Parameters

- `a`  
  - [(M,) array_like] First input vector. Input is flattened if not already 1-dimensional.

- `b`  
  - [(N,) array_like] Second input vector. Input is flattened if not already 1-dimensional.

- `out`  
  - [(M, N) ndarray, optional] A location where the result is stored

    New in version 1.9.0.
Returns

Out

\[(M, N)\text{ndarray}\]
\[\text{out}[i, j] = a[i] \times b[j]\]

See also:

\textit{inner}
\textit{einsum}
\text{\texttt{einsum('i,j->ij', a.ravel(), b.ravel())}} is the equivalent.

\textit{ufunc.outer}

A generalization to dimensions other than 1D and other operations. \texttt{np.multiply.outer(a.}
\texttt{ravel(), b.ravel())} is the equivalent.

\textit{tensordot}

\texttt{np.tensordot(a.ravel(), b.ravel(), axes=()\texttt{(}, ()\texttt{))}} is the equivalent.

References

[1]

Examples

Make a (very coarse) grid for computing a Mandelbrot set:

```python
>>> r1 = np.outer(np.ones((5,)), np.linspace(-2, 2, 5))
>>> r1
array([[-2., -1., 0., 1., 2.],
       [-2., -1., 0., 1., 2.],
       [-2., -1., 0., 1., 2.],
       [-2., -1., 0., 1., 2.],
       [-2., -1., 0., 1., 2.]]

>>> im = np.outer(1j*np.linspace(2, -2, 5), np.ones((5,)))
>>> im
array([[ 0.+2.j,  0.+2.j,  0.+2.j,  0.+2.j,  0.+2.j],
       [ 0.+1.j,  0.+1.j,  0.+1.j,  0.+1.j,  0.+1.j],
       [ 0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j,  0.+0.j],
       [ 0.-1.j,  0.-1.j,  0.-1.j,  0.-1.j,  0.-1.j],
       [ 0.-2.j,  0.-2.j,  0.-2.j,  0.-2.j,  0.-2.j]])
```

```python
>>> grid = r1 + im
>>> grid
array([[ 0.-2.j, -1.-2.j, -2.-2.j, -3.-2.j, -4.-2.j],
       [ 0.-1.j, -1.-1.j, -2.-1.j, -3.-1.j, -4.-1.j],
       [ 0.-0.j, -1.-0.j, -2.-0.j, -3.-0.j, -4.-0.j],
       [ 0.+0.j, -1.+0.j, -2.+0.j, -3.+0.j, -4.+0.j],
       [ 0.+1.j, -1.+1.j, -2.+1.j, -3.+1.j, -4.+1.j]])
```

An example using a “vector” of letters:
>>> x = np.array([['a', 'b', 'c'], dtype=object)
>>> np.outer(x, [1, 2, 3])
array([['a', 'aa', 'aaa'],
       ['b', 'bb', 'bbb'],
       ['c', 'cc', 'ccc']], dtype=object)

``
import numpy as np

@numpy.docmatmul(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature=None, extobj=None, axes=None, axis=None)
    return <ufunc 'matmul'>

Matrix product of two arrays.

Parameters

x1, x2
[array_like] Input arrays, scalars not allowed.

out
[ndarray, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that matches the signature (n,k),(k,m)->(n,m). If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

New in version 1.16: Now handles ufunc kwargs

Returns

y
[ndarray] The matrix product of the inputs. This is a scalar only when both x1, x2 are 1-d vectors.

Raises

ValueError
If the last dimension of x1 is not the same size as the second-to-last dimension of x2.

If a scalar value is passed in.

See also:

vdot
Complex-conjugating dot product.

tensordot
Sum products over arbitrary axes.

einsum
Einstein summation convention.

dot
alternative matrix product with different broadcasting rules.

4.16. Linear algebra (numpy.linalg)
Notes

The behavior depends on the arguments in the following way.

- If both arguments are 2-D they are multiplied like conventional matrices.
- If either argument is N-D, N > 2, it is treated as a stack of matrices residing in the last two indexes and broadcast accordingly.
- If the first argument is 1-D, it is promoted to a matrix by prepending a 1 to its dimensions. After matrix multiplication the prepended 1 is removed.
- If the second argument is 1-D, it is promoted to a matrix by appending a 1 to its dimensions. After matrix multiplication the appended 1 is removed.

`matmul` differs from `dot` in two important ways:

- Multiplication by scalars is not allowed, use `*` instead.
- Stacks of matrices are broadcast together as if the matrices were elements, respecting the signature \((n,k)\), \((k,m)\)\(\rightarrow\)(n,m):

```python
>>> a = np.ones([9, 5, 7, 4])
>>> c = np.ones([9, 5, 4, 3])
>>> np.dot(a, c).shape
(9, 5, 7, 9, 5, 3)
>>> np.matmul(a, c).shape
(9, 5, 7, 3)
>>> # n is 7, k is 4, m is 3
```

The `matmul` function implements the semantics of the @ operator introduced in Python 3.5 following PEP 465.

Examples

For 2-D arrays it is the matrix product:

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

For 2-D mixed with 1-D, the result is the usual.

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

Broadcasting is conventional for stacks of arrays

```python
>>> a = np.arange(2 * 2 * 4).reshape((2, 2, 4))
>>> b = np.arange(2 * 2 * 4).reshape((2, 4, 2))
>>> np.matmul(a, b).shape
```

(continues on next page)
Vector, vector returns the scalar inner product, but neither argument is complex-conjugated:

```python
>>> np.matmul([2j, 3j], [2j, 3j])
(-13+0j)
```

Scalar multiplication raises an error.

```python
>>> np.matmul([1, 2], 3)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ... ValueError: matmul: Input operand 1 does not have enough dimensions ...
```

The @ operator can be used as a shorthand for `np.matmul` on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.array([2j, 3j])
>>> x2 = np.array([2j, 3j])
>>> x1 @ x2
(-13+0j)
```

New in version 1.10.0.

`numpy.tensordot(a, b, axes=2)`

Compute tensor dot product along specified axes.

Given two tensors, `a` and `b`, and an array_like object containing two array_like objects, `(a_axes, b_axes)`, sum the products of `a`'s and `b`'s elements (components) over the axes specified by `a_axes` and `b_axes`. The third argument can be a single non-negative integer_like scalar, `N`; if it is such, then the last `N` dimensions of `a` and the first `N` dimensions of `b` are summed over.

**Parameters**

- `a, b`
  
  [array_like] Tensors to “dot”.

- `axes`
  
  [int or (2,) array_like]
  
  - integer_like If an int `N`, sum over the last `N` axes of `a` and the first `N` axes of `b` in order. The sizes of the corresponding axes must match.
  
  - (2,) array_like Or, a list of axes to be summed over, first sequence applying to `a`, second to `b`. Both elements array_like must be of the same length.

**Returns**

- `output`
  
  [ndarray] The tensor dot product of the input.

**See also:**

---

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**Notes**

Three common use cases are:

- **axes = 0**: tensor product \( a \otimes b \)
- **axes = 1**: tensor dot product \( a \cdot b \)
- **axes = 2**: (default) tensor double contraction \( a : b \)

When `axes` is `integer_like`, the sequence for evaluation will be: first the -Nth axis in \( a \) and 0th axis in \( b \), and the -1th axis in \( a \) and Nth axis in \( b \) last.

When there is more than one axis to sum over - and they are not the last (first) axes of \( a \) (\( b \)) - the argument `axes` should consist of two sequences of the same length, with the first axis to sum over given first in both sequences, the second axis second, and so forth.

The shape of the result consists of the non-contracted axes of the first tensor, followed by the non-contracted axes of the second.

**Examples**

A “traditional” example:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(60.).reshape(3,4,5)
>>> b = np.arange(24.).reshape(4,3,2)
>>> c = np.tensordot(a,b, axes=([1,0],[0,1]))
>>> c.shape
(5, 2)
>>> c
array([[4400., 4730.],
       [4532., 4874.],
       [4664., 5018.],
       [4796., 5162.],
       [4928., 5306.]])
>>> # A slower but equivalent way of computing the same...
>>> d = np.zeros((5,2))
>>> for i in range(5):
...     for j in range(2):
...         for k in range(3):
...             for n in range(4):
...                 d[i,j] += a[k,n,i] * b[n,k,j]
>>> c == d
array([[ True,  True],
       [ True,  True],
       [ True,  True],
       [ True,  True],
       [ True,  True]])
```

An extended example taking advantage of the overloading of + and *:

```python
>>> a = np.array(range(1,9))
>>> a.shape = (2, 2, 2)
>>> A = np.array(('a', 'b', 'c', 'd'), dtype=object)
(continues on next page)
```
```python
>>> A.shape = (2, 2)
>>> a; A
array([[1, 2],
        [3, 4]],
       [[5, 6],
        [7, 8]])
array([[a', 'b'],
       ['c', 'd']], dtype=object)
```

```python
>>> np.tensordot(a, A) # third argument default is 2 for double-contraction
array(['abbccdddd', 'aaaaabbbbcddddddddd'], dtype=object)
>>> np.tensordot(a, A, 1)
array(['acc', 'bdd'],
       ['aaacccc', 'bbbdedd'],
       ['aaaaacccecc', 'bbbboedd'],
       ['aaaaaaccceccc', 'bbbbbboedd'],
       dtype=object)
>>> np.tensordot(a, A, 0) # tensor product (result too long to incl.)
array([[['a', 'b']
        ['c', 'd]],
       ...
       np.tensordot(a, A, (0, 1))
array([[abbbbbb', 'ccddd'],
       [aabbbbbb', 'ccddd'],
       [aaabbbbb', 'ccddd'],
       [aaaaabbbbbb', 'ccccccddd'],
       dtype=object)
>>> np.tensordot(a, A, (2, 1))
array([[ab', 'cdd'],
       ['aaabb', 'ccddd'],
       ['aaaabbbb', 'ccccccccdd'],
       ['aaaaaabbbbb', 'ccccccccdddddd'],
       dtype=object)
>>> np.tensordot(a, A, ((0, 1), (0, 1)))
array(['abccccccccddd', 'aabbccccccccddd'], dtype=object)
>>> np.tensordot(a, A, ((2, 1), (1, 0)))
array(['accbbddd', 'aaaaacccecccbbbd'], dtype=object)
```

**numpy.einsum** *(subscripts, *operands, out=None, dtype=None, order='K', casting='safe', optimize=False)*

Evaluates the Einstein summation convention on the operands.

Using the Einstein summation convention, many common multi-dimensional, linear algebraic array operations can be represented in a simple fashion. In *implicit* mode, *einsum* computes these values.

In *explicit* mode, *einsum* provides further flexibility to compute other array operations that might not be considered classical Einstein summation operations, by disabling, or forcing summation over specified subscript labels.

See the notes and examples for clarification.

**Parameters**

subscripts
[str] Specifies the subscripts for summation as comma separated list of subscript labels. An implicit (classical Einstein summation) calculation is performed unless the explicit indicator ‘->’ is included as well as subscript labels of the precise output form.

**operands**

[list of array_like] These are the arrays for the operation.

**out**

[ndarray, optional] If provided, the calculation is done into this array.

**dtype**

[[data-type, None], optional] If provided, forces the calculation to use the data type specified. Note that you may have to also give a more liberal casting parameter to allow the conversions. Default is None.

**order**

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K'}, optional] Controls the memory layout of the output. ‘C’ means it should be C contiguous. ‘F’ means it should be Fortran contiguous, ‘A’ means it should be ‘F’ if the inputs are all ‘F’, ‘C’ otherwise. ‘K’ means it should be as close to the layout as the inputs as is possible, including arbitrarily permuted axes. Default is ‘K’.

**casting**

[{'no', 'equiv', 'safe', 'same_kind', 'unsafe'}, optional] Controls what kind of data casting may occur. Setting this to ‘unsafe’ is not recommended, as it can adversely affect accumulations.

- ‘no’ means the data types should not be cast at all.
- ‘equiv’ means only byte-order changes are allowed.
- ‘safe’ means only casts which can preserve values are allowed.
- ‘same_kind’ means only safe casts or casts within a kind, like float64 to float32, are allowed.
- ‘unsafe’ means any data conversions may be done.

Default is ‘safe’.

**optimize**

[[False, True, ‘greedy’, ‘optimal’], optional] Controls if intermediate optimization should occur. No optimization will occur if False and True will default to the ‘greedy’ algorithm. Also accepts an explicit contraction list from the `np.einsum_path` function. See `np.einsum_path` for more details. Defaults to False.

**Returns**

**output**


**See also:**

- `einsum_path`
- `dot`
- `inner`
- `outer`
- `tensordot`
- `linalg.multi_dot`

**einops**

similar verbose interface is provided by `einops` package to cover additional operations: transpose, reshape/flatten, repeat/tile, squeeze/unsqueeze and reductions.
**opt_einsum**

- **opt_einsum** optimizes contraction order for einsum-like expressions in backend-agnostic manner.

**Notes**

New in version 1.6.0.

The Einstein summation convention can be used to compute many multi-dimensional, linear algebraic array operations. **`einsum`** provides a succinct way of representing these.

A non-exhaustive list of these operations, which can be computed by **`einsum`**, is shown below along with examples:

- Trace of an array, **`numpy.trace`**.
- Return a diagonal, **`numpy.diag`**.
- Array axis summations, **`numpy.sum`**.
- Transpositions and permutations, **`numpy.transpose`**.
- Matrix multiplication and dot product, **`numpy.matmul`** and **`numpy.dot`**.
- Vector inner and outer products, **`numpy.inner`** and **`numpy.outer`**.
- Broadcasting, element-wise and scalar multiplication, **`numpy.multiply`**.
- Tensor contractions, **`numpy.tensordot`**.
- Chained array operations, in efficient calculation order, **`numpy.einsum_path`**.

The subscripts string is a comma-separated list of subscript labels, where each label refers to a dimension of the corresponding operand. Whenever a label is repeated it is summed, so **np.einsum('i,i', a, b)** is equivalent to **np.inner(a,b)**. If a label appears only once, it is not summed, so **np.einsum('i', a)** produces a view of a with no changes. A further example **np.einsum('ij,jk', a, b)** describes traditional matrix multiplication and is equivalent to **np.matmul(a,b)**. Repeated subscript labels in one operand take the diagonal. For example, **np.einsum('ii', a)** is equivalent to **np.trace(a)**.

In **implicit mode**, the chosen subscripts are important since the axes of the output are reordered alphabetically. This means that **np.einsum('ij', a)** doesn’t affect a 2D array, while **np.einsum('ji', a)** takes its transpose. Additionally, **np.einsum('ij,jk', a, b)** returns a matrix multiplication, while, **np.einsum('ij,jh', a, b)** returns the transpose of the multiplication since subscript ‘h’ precedes subscript ‘i’.

In **explicit mode** the output can be directly controlled by specifying output subscript labels. This requires the identifier ‘->’ as well as the list of output subscript labels. This feature increases the flexibility of the function since summing can be disabled or forced when required. The call **np.einsum('ij->', a)** is like **np.sum(a, axis=-1)**, and **np.einsum('ii->i', a)** is like **np.diag(a)**. The difference is that **einsum** does not allow broadcasting by default. Additionally **np.einsum('ij,jh->ih', a, b)** directly specifies the order of the output subscript labels and therefore returns matrix multiplication, unlike the example above in implicit mode.

To enable and control broadcasting, use an ellipsis. Default NumPy-style broadcasting is done by adding an ellipsis to the left of each term, like **np.einsum('...ii->...i', a)**. To take the trace along the first and last axes, you can do **np.einsum('i...i', a)**, or to do a matrix-matrix product with the left-most indices instead of rightmost, one can do **np.einsum('ij...,jk...->ik...', a, b)**.

When there is only one operand, no axes are summed, and no output parameter is provided, a view into the operand is returned instead of a new array. Thus, taking the diagonal as **np.einsum('ii->i', a)** produces a view (changed in version 1.10.0).
**einsum** also provides an alternative way to provide the subscripts and operands as `einsum(op0, sublist0, op1, sublist1, ..., [sublistout])`. If the output shape is not provided in this format `einsum` will be calculated in implicit mode, otherwise it will be performed explicitly. The examples below have corresponding `einsum` calls with the two parameter methods.

New in version 1.10.0.

Views returned from `einsum` are now writeable whenever the input array is writeable. For example, `np.einsum('ijk...->kji...', a)` will now have the same effect as `np.swapaxes(a, 0, 2)` and `np.einsum('ii->i', a)` will return a writeable view of the diagonal of a 2D array.

New in version 1.12.0.

Added the `optimize` argument which will optimize the contraction order of an einsum expression. For a contraction with three or more operands this can greatly increase the computational efficiency at the cost of a larger memory footprint during computation.

Typically a 'greedy' algorithm is applied which empirical tests have shown returns the optimal path in the majority of cases. In some cases 'optimal' will return the superlative path through a more expensive, exhaustive search. For iterative calculations it may be advisable to calculate the optimal path once and reuse that path by supplying it as an argument. An example is given below.

See `numpy.einsum_path` for more details.

### Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(25).reshape(5, 5)
>>> b = np.arange(5)
>>> c = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3)
```

Trace of a matrix:

```python
>>> np.einsum('iii', a)
array([ 0, 15, 30, 45, 60])
```

```python
>>> np.einsum(a, [0,0])
array([ 0, 15, 30, 45, 60])
```

```python
>>> np.trace(a)
array([ 0, 15, 30, 45, 60])
```

Extract the diagonal (requires explicit form):

```python
>>> np.einsum('ii->i', a)
array([[ 0,  6, 12, 18, 24]])
```

```python
>>> np.einsum(a, [0,0], [0])
array([[ 0,  6, 12, 18, 24]])
```

```python
>>> np.diag(a)
array([[ 0,  6, 12, 18, 24]])
```

Sum over an axis (requires explicit form):

```python
>>> np.einsum('ij->i', a)
array([[ 10, 35, 60, 85, 110]])
```

```python
>>> np.einsum(a, [0,1], [0])
array([[ 10, 35, 60, 85, 110]])
```

```python
>>> np.sum(a, axis=1)
array([[ 10, 35, 60, 85, 110]])
```

For higher dimensional arrays summing a single axis can be done with ellipsis:
Compute a matrix transpose, or reorder any number of axes:

```python
>>> np.einsum('ji', c)
array([[0, 3],
       [1, 4],
       [2, 5]])
>>> np.einsum('ij->ji', c)
array([[0, 3],
       [1, 4],
       [2, 5]])
>>> np.einsum(c, [1, 0])
array([[0, 3],
       [1, 4],
       [2, 5]])
>>> np.transpose(c)
array([[0, 3],
       [1, 4],
       [2, 5]])
```

Vector inner products:

```python
>>> np.einsum('i,i', b, b)
30
>>> np.einsum(b, [0], b, [0])
30
>>> np.inner(b, b)
30
```

Matrix vector multiplication:

```python
>>> np.einsum('ij,j', a, b)
array([ 30, 80, 130, 180, 230])
>>> np.einsum(a, [0, 1], b, [1])
array([ 30, 80, 130, 180, 230])
>>> np.dot(a, b)
array([ 30, 80, 130, 180, 230])
```

Broadcasting and scalar multiplication:

```python
>>> np.einsum('... , ...', 3, c)
array([[ 0,  3,  6],
       [ 9, 12, 15]])
>>> np.einsum('ij, 3', c)
array([[ 0,  3,  6],
       [ 9, 12, 15]])
>>> np.einsum(3, [Ellipsis], c, [Ellipsis])
array([[ 0,  3,  6],
       [ 9, 12, 15]])
>>> np.multiply(3, c)
array([[ 0,  3,  6],
       [ 9, 12, 15]])
```
Vector outer product:

```python
>>> np.einsum('i,j', np.arange(2)+1, b)
array([[0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
       [0, 2, 4, 6, 8]])
>>> np.einsum(np.arange(2)+1, [0], b, [1])
array([[0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
       [0, 2, 4, 6, 8]])
>>> np.outer(np.arange(2)+1, b)
array([[0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
       [0, 2, 4, 6, 8]])
```

Tensor contraction:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(60.).reshape(3,4,5)
>>> b = np.arange(24.).reshape(4,3,2)
>>> np.einsum('ijk,jil->kl', a, b)
array([[4400., 4730.],
       [4532., 4874.],
       [4664., 5018.],
       [4796., 5162.],
       [4928., 5306.]])
>>> np.einsum(a, [0,1,2], b, [1,0,3], [2,3])
array([[4400., 4730.],
       [4532., 4874.],
       [4664., 5018.],
       [4796., 5162.],
       [4928., 5306.]])
>>> np.tensordot(a,b, axes=[(1,0),(0,1)])
array([[4400., 4730.],
       [4532., 4874.],
       [4664., 5018.],
       [4796., 5162.],
       [4928., 5306.]])
```

Writeable returned arrays (since version 1.10.0):

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((3, 3))
>>> np.einsum('ii->i', a)[:1] = 1
>>> a
array([[1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 1.]])
```

Example of ellipsis use:

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape((3,2))
>>> b = np.arange(12).reshape((4,3))
>>> np.einsum('ki,jk->ij', a, b)
array([[10, 28, 46, 64],
       [13, 40, 67, 94]])
>>> np.einsum('ki,...k->i...', a, b)
array([[10, 28, 46, 64],
       [13, 40, 67, 94]])
>>> np.einsum('k...,jk', a, b)
array([[10, 28, 46, 64],
       [13, 40, 67, 94]])
```

Chained array operations. For more complicated contractions, speed ups might be achieved by repeatedly com-
puting a ‘greedy’ path or pre-computing the ‘optimal’ path and repeatedly applying it, using an `einsum_path` insertion (since version 1.12.0). Performance improvements can be particularly significant with larger arrays:

```python
>>> a = np.ones(64).reshape(2, 4, 8)
```

Basic `einsum`: ~1520ms (benchmarked on 3.1GHz Intel i5)

```python
>>> for iteration in range(500):
...   _ = np.einsum('ijk,ilm,njm,nlk,abc->', a, a, a, a, a)
```

Sub-optimal `einsum` (due to repeated path calculation time): ~330ms

```python
>>> for iteration in range(500):
...   _ = np.einsum('ijk,ilm,njm,nlk,abc->', a, a, a, a, a, optimize='optimal')
```

Greedy `einsum` (faster optimal path approximation): ~160ms

```python
>>> for iteration in range(500):
...   _ = np.einsum('ijk,ilm,njm,nlk,abc->', a, a, a, a, a, optimize='greedy')
```

Optimal `einsum` (best usage pattern in some use cases): ~110ms

```python
>>> path = np.einsum_path('ijk,ilm,njm,nlk,abc->', a, a, a, a, optimize='optimal', path)[0]
>>> for iteration in range(500):
...   _ = np.einsum('ijk,ilm,njm,nlk,abc->', a, a, a, a, a, optimize=path)
```

NumPy's `einsum_path` 

Evaluates the lowest cost contraction order for an einsum expression by considering the creation of intermediate arrays.

**Parameters**

- **subscripts**
  
  [str] Specifies the subscripts for summation.

- **operands**
  
  [list of array_like] These are the arrays for the operation.

- **optimize**
  
  [[[bool, list, tuple, 'greedy', 'optimal']]] Choose the type of path. If a tuple is provided, the second argument is assumed to be the maximum intermediate size created. If only a single argument is provided the largest input or output array size is used as a maximum intermediate size.
  
  - if a list is given that starts with `einsum_path`, uses this as the contraction path
  
  - if False no optimization is taken
  
  - if True defaults to the 'greedy' algorithm
  
  - 'optimal' An algorithm that combinatorially explores all possible ways of contracting the listed tensors and chooses the least costly path. Scales exponentially with the number of terms in the contraction.
  
  - 'greedy' An algorithm that chooses the best pair contraction at each step. Effectively, this algorithm searches the largest inner, Hadamard, and then outer products at each step. Scales cubically with the number of terms in the contraction. Equivalent to the 'optimal' path for most contractions.
Default is ‘greedy’.

Returns

path
  [list of tuples] A list representation of the einsum path.

string_repr
  [str] A printable representation of the einsum path.

See also:

einsum, linalg.multi_dot

Notes

The resulting path indicates which terms of the input contraction should be contracted first, the result of this contraction is then appended to the end of the contraction list. This list can then be iterated over until all intermediate contractions are complete.

Examples

We can begin with a chain dot example. In this case, it is optimal to contract the b and c tensors first as represented by the first element of the path (1, 2). The resulting tensor is added to the end of the contraction and the remaining contraction (0, 1) is then completed.

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> a = np.random.rand(2, 2)
>>> b = np.random.rand(2, 5)
>>> c = np.random.rand(5, 2)
>>> path_info = np.einsum_path('ij,jk,kl->il', a, b, c, optimize='greedy')

>>> print(path_info[0])
['einsum_path', (1, 2), (0, 1)]

>>> print(path_info[1])

Complete contraction: ij,jk,kl->il # may vary
  Naive scaling: 4
  Optimized scaling: 3
  Naive FLOP count: 1.600e+02
  Optimized FLOP count: 5.600e+01
  Theoretical speedup: 2.857
  Largest intermediate: 4.000e+00 elements

+-----------------+-----------------+-----------------+
|     scaling     |     current     |    remaining    |
|-----------------+-----------------+-----------------|
|      3          | kl, jk->jl      | ij, jl->il      |
|      3          | jl, ij->il      | il->il          |
```

A more complex index transformation example.

```python
>>> I = np.random.rand(10, 10, 10, 10)
>>> C = np.random.rand(10, 10)
>>> path_info = np.einsum_path('ea,fb,abcd,gc,hd->efgh', C, C, I, C, C, optimize='greedy')
```
linalg.matrix_power(a, n)

Raise a square matrix to the (integer) power n.

For positive integers n, the power is computed by repeated matrix squarings and matrix multiplications. If \( n = 0 \), the identity matrix of the same shape as \( M \) is returned. If \( n < 0 \), the inverse is computed and then raised to the \( \text{abs}(n) \).

**Note:** Stacks of object matrices are not currently supported.

**Parameters**

- **a**

  ([..., M, M] array_like) Matrix to be “powered”.

- **n**

  [int] The exponent can be any integer or long integer, positive, negative, or zero.

**Returns**

- **a**

  ([..., M, M] ndarray or matrix object) The return value is the same shape and type as \( M \); if the exponent is positive or zero then the type of the elements is the same as those of \( M \). If the exponent is negative the elements are floating-point.

**Raises**

- **LinAlgError**

  For matrices that are not square or that (for negative powers) cannot be inverted numerically.
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.linalg import matrix_power
>>> i = np.array([[0, 1], [-1, 0]]) # matrix equiv. of the imaginary unit
>>> matrix_power(i, 3) # should = -i
array([[0, -1],
       [1, 0]])
>>> matrix_power(i, 0)
array([[1, 0],
       [0, 1]])
>>> matrix_power(i, -3) # should = 1/(-i) = i, but w/ f.p. elements
array([[0., 1.],
       [-1., 0.]])
```

Somewhat more sophisticated example

```python
>>> q = np.zeros((4, 4))
>>> q[0:2, 0:2] = -i
>>> q[2:4, 2:4] = i
>>> q # one of the three quaternion units not equal to 1
array([[0., -1., 0., 0.],
       [1., 0., 0., 0.],
       [0., 0., 0., 1.],
       [0., 0., -1., 0.]])
>>> matrix_power(q, 2) # = -np.eye(4)
array([[-1., 0., 0., 0.],
       [0., -1., 0., 0.],
       [0., 0., -1., 0.],
       [0., 0., 0., -1.]])
```

`numpy.kron(a, b)`

Kronecker product of two arrays.

Computes the Kronecker product, a composite array made of blocks of the second array scaled by the first.

Parameters

a, b

[array_like]

Returns

out

[ndarray]

See also:

`outer`

The outer product
Notes

The function assumes that the number of dimensions of \(a\) and \(b\) are the same, if necessary prepending the smallest with ones. If \(a.shape = (r_0, r_1, \ldots, r_N)\) and \(b.shape = (s_0, s_1, \ldots, s_N)\), the Kronecker product has shape \((r_0 \times s_0, r_1 \times s_1, \ldots, r_N \times s_N)\). The elements are products of elements from \(a\) and \(b\), organized explicitly by:

\[
\text{kron}(a,b)[k_0,k_1,\ldots,k_N] = a[i_0,i_1,\ldots,i_N] \times b[j_0,j_1,\ldots,j_N]
\]

where:

\[
k_t = i_t \times s_t + j_t, \quad t = 0,\ldots,N
\]

In the common 2-D case (\(N=1\)), the block structure can be visualized:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  a[0,0]^\star b, & a[0,1]^\star b, & \ldots, & a[0,-1]^\star b \\
  \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
  a[-1,0]^\star b, & a[-1,1]^\star b, & \ldots, & a[-1,-1]^\star b
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Examples

```python
>>> np.kron([1, 10, 100], [5, 6, 7])
array([  5,   6,   7, ..., 500, 600, 700])
>>> np.kron([5, 6, 7], [1, 10, 100])
array([  5,  50,  500, ...,  7,  70,  700])

>>> np.kron(np.eye(2), np.ones((2, 2)))
array([[ 1.,  1.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 1.,  1.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  1.,  1.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  1.,  1.]])

>>> a = np.arange(100).reshape((2, 5, 2))
>>> b = np.arange(24).reshape((2, 3))
>>> c = np.kron(a, b)
>>> c.shape
(2, 10, 6, 20)
>>> I = (1, 3, 0, 2)
>>> J = (0, 2, 1)
>>> J1 = (0,) + J  # extend to ndim=4
>>> S1 = (1,) + b.shape
>>> K = tuple(np.array(I) * np.array(S1) + np.array(J1))
>>> c[K] == a[I] * b[J]
True
```
4.16.3 Decompositions

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**linalg.cholesky(a)**

Return the Cholesky decomposition, \( L \times L^H \), of the square matrix \( a \), where \( L \) is lower-triangular and \( L^H \) is the conjugate transpose operator (which is the ordinary transpose if \( a \) is real-valued). \( a \) must be Hermitian (symmetric if real-valued) and positive-definite. No checking is performed to verify whether \( a \) is Hermitian or not. In addition, only the lower-triangular and diagonal elements of \( a \) are used. Only \( L \) is actually returned.

**Parameters**

- \( a \)
  
  \([\ldots, M, M] \text{array_like}\) Hermitian (symmetric if all elements are real), positive-definite input matrix.

**Returns**

- \( L \)
  
  \([\ldots, M, M] \text{array_like}\) Upper or lower-triangular Cholesky factor of \( a \). Returns a matrix object if \( a \) is a matrix object.

**Raises**

- **LinAlgError**
  
  If the decomposition fails, for example, if \( a \) is not positive-definite.

**See also:**

- **scipy.linalg.cholesky**
  
  Similar function in SciPy.

- **scipy.linalg.cholesky_banded**
  
  Cholesky decompose a banded Hermitian positive-definite matrix.

- **scipy.linalg.cho_factor**
  
  Cholesky decomposition of a matrix, to use in **scipy.linalg.cho_solve**.
Notes

New in version 1.8.0.

Broadcasting rules apply, see the `numpy.linalg` documentation for details.

The Cholesky decomposition is often used as a fast way of solving

\[ Ax = b \]

(when \( A \) is both Hermitian/symmetric and positive-definite).

First, we solve for \( y \) in

\[ Ly = b, \]

and then for \( x \) in

\[ L.Hx = y. \]

Examples

```python
>>> A = np.array([[1,-2j],[2j,5]])
>>> A
array([[ 1.+0.j, -0.-2.j],
       [ 0.+2.j,  5.+0.j]])
>>> L = np.linalg.cholesky(A)
>>> L
array([[1.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+2.j, 1.+0.j]])
>>> np.dot(L, L.T.conj())  # verify that L * L.H = A
array([[ 1.+0.j, 0.-2.j],
       [ 0.+2.j,  5.+0.j]])
>>> A = [[1,-2j],[2j,5]]  # what happens if A is only array_like?
>>> np.linalg.cholesky(A)  # an ndarray object is returned
array([[1.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
       [0.+2.j, 1.+0.j]])
>>> # But a matrix object is returned if A is a matrix object
>>> np.linalg.cholesky(np.matrix(A))
matrix([[ 1.+0.j, 0.+0.j],
        [ 0.+2.j, 1.+0.j]])
```

`linalg.qr(a, mode='reduced')`
Compute the QR factorization of a matrix.

Factor the matrix \( a \) as \( qr \), where \( q \) is orthonormal and \( r \) is upper-triangular.

Parameters

- **a**
  [array_like, shape (M, N)] Matrix to be factored.

- **mode**
  [{'reduced', 'complete', 'r', 'raw'}, optional] If \( K = \min(M, N) \), then
  - 'reduced': returns \( q, r \) with dimensions \( (M, K), (K, N) \) (default)
  - 'complete': returns \( q, r \) with dimensions \( (M, M), (M, N) \)
The options ‘reduced’, ‘complete’, and ‘raw’ are new in numpy 1.8, see the notes for more information. The default is ‘reduced’, and to maintain backward compatibility with earlier versions of numpy both it and the old default ‘full’ can be omitted. Note that array h returned in ‘raw’ mode is transposed for calling Fortran. The ‘economic’ mode is deprecated. The modes ‘full’ and ‘economic’ may be passed using only the first letter for backwards compatibility, but all others must be spelled out. See the Notes for more explanation.

Returns

\( q \) 

\[ \text{ndarray of float or complex, optional} \]  
A matrix with orthonormal columns. When mode = ‘complete’ the result is an orthogonal/unitary matrix depending on whether or not a is real/complex. The determinant may be either +/- 1 in that case.

\( r \) 

\[ \text{ndarray of float or complex, optional} \]  
The upper-triangular matrix.

\((h, \tau)\) 

\[ \text{ndarrays of np.double or np.cdouble, optional} \]  
The array h contains the Householder reflectors that generate q along with r. The \( \tau \) array contains scaling factors for the reflectors. In the deprecated ‘economic’ mode only h is returned.

Raises

LinAlgError

If factoring fails.

See also:

scipy.linalg.qr

Similar function in SciPy.

scipy.linalg.rq

Compute RQ decomposition of a matrix.

Notes

This is an interface to the LAPACK routines \texttt{dgeqrf}, \texttt{zgeqrf}, \texttt{dorgqr}, and \texttt{zungqr}.

For more information on the qr factorization, see for example: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/QR_factorization

Subclasses of \texttt{ndarray} are preserved except for the ‘raw’ mode. So if \( a \) is of type \texttt{matrix}, all the return values will be matrices too.

New ‘reduced’, ‘complete’, and ‘raw’ options for mode were added in NumPy 1.8.0 and the old option ‘full’ was made an alias of ‘reduced’. In addition the options ‘full’ and ‘economic’ were deprecated. Because ‘full’ was the previous default and ‘reduced’ is the new default, backward compatibility can be maintained by letting \texttt{mode} default. The ‘raw’ option was added so that LAPACK routines that can multiply arrays by \( q \) using the Householder reflectors can be used. Note that in this case the returned arrays are of type \texttt{np.double} or \texttt{np.cdouble} and the \( h \) array is transposed.
to be FORTRAN compatible. No routines using the ‘raw’ return are currently exposed by numpy, but some are available in lapack_lite and just await the necessary work.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.random.randn(9, 6)
>>> q, r = np.linalg.qr(a)
>>> np.allclose(a, np.dot(q, r))  # a does equal qr
True
>>> r2 = np.linalg.qr(a, mode='r')
>>> np.allclose(r, r2)  # mode='r' returns the same r as mode='full'
True
```

Example illustrating a common use of `qr`: solving of least squares problems

What are the least-squares-best $m$ and $y0$ in $y = y0 + mx$ for the following data: $\{(0,1), (1,0), (1,2), (2,1)\}$. (Graph the points and you’ll see that it should be $y0 = 0, m = 1$.) The answer is provided by solving the over-determined matrix equation $Ax = b$, where:

```python
A = np.array([[0, 1], [1, 1], [1, 1], [2, 1]])
x = np.array([[y0], [m]])
b = np.array([[1], [0], [2], [1]])

>>> A
array([[0, 1],
       [1, 1],
       [1, 1],
       [2, 1]])
>>> b
array([[1],
        [0],
        [2],
        [1]])
```

If $A = qr$ such that $q$ is orthonormal (which is always possible via Gram-Schmidt), then $x = inv(r) * (q.T) * b$. (In numpy practice, however, we simply use `lstsq`.)

```python
>>> A = np.array([[0, 1], [1, 1], [1, 1], [2, 1]])
>>> A
array([[0, 1],
       [1, 1],
       [1, 1],
       [2, 1]])
>>> b = np.array([[1, 0, 2, 1]])
>>> q, r = np.linalg.qr(A)
>>> p = np.dot(q.T, b)
>>> np.dot(np.linalg.inv(r), p)
array([[1.1e-16, 1.0e+00]])
```

`numpy.linalg.svd(a, full_matrices=True, compute_uv=True, hermitian=False)`

Singular Value Decomposition.

When $a$ is a 2D array, it is factorized as $u @ np.diag(s) @ vh = (u * s) @ vh$, where $u$ and $vh$ are 2D unitary arrays and $s$ is a 1D array of $a$’s singular values. When $a$ is higher-dimensional, SVD is applied in stacked mode as explained below.

Parameters

- **a**

  [(..., M, N) array_like] A real or complex array with a.ndim >= 2.

- **full_matrices**

  [bool, optional] If True (default), $u$ and $vh$ have the shapes (... M, M) and (... N, N), respectively. Otherwise, the shapes are (... M, K) and (... K, N), respectively, where K = min(M, N).

- **compute_uv**

4.16. Linear algebra (numpy.linalg)
[bool, optional] Whether or not to compute u and vh in addition to s. True by default.

**hermitian**

[bool, optional] If True, a is assumed to be Hermitian (symmetric if real-valued), enabling a more efficient method for finding singular values. Defaults to False. New in version 1.17.0.

**Returns**

u

[[ (..., M, M), (..., M, K) ] array] Unitary array(s). The first a.ndim - 2 dimensions have the same size as those of the input a. The size of the last two dimensions depends on the value of full_matrices. Only returned when compute_uv is True.

s

[(..., K) array] Vector(s) with the singular values, within each vector sorted in descending order. The first a.ndim - 2 dimensions have the same size as those of the input a.

vh

[[ (..., N, N), (..., K, N) ] array] Unitary array(s). The first a.ndim - 2 dimensions have the same size as those of the input a. The size of the last two dimensions depends on the value of full_matrices. Only returned when compute_uv is True.

**Raises**

LinAlgError

If SVD computation does not converge.

**See also:**

scipy.linalg.svd

Similar function in SciPy.

scipy.linalg.svds

Compute singular values of a matrix.

**Notes**

Changed in version 1.8.0: Broadcasting rules apply, see the numpy.linalg documentation for details.

The decomposition is performed using LAPACK routine _gesdd.

SVD is usually described for the factorization of a 2D matrix \( A \). The higher-dimensional case will be discussed below. In the 2D case, SVD is written as \( A = U S V^H \), where \( A = a, U = u, S = \text{np.diag}(s) \) and \( V^H = vh \). The 1D array s contains the singular values of a and u and vh are unitary. The rows of vh are the eigenvectors of \( A^H A \) and the columns of u are the eigenvectors of \( A A^H \). In both cases the corresponding (possibly non-zero) eigenvalues are given by \( s^2 \).

If a has more than two dimensions, then broadcasting rules apply, as explained in Linear algebra on several matrices at once. This means that SVD is working in “stacked” mode: it iterates over all indices of the first a.ndim - 2 dimensions and for each combination SVD is applied to the last two indices. The matrix a can be reconstructed from the decomposition with either \((u * s[..., None, :]) @ vh \) or \( u @ (s[..., None] * vh) \). (The @ operator can be replaced by the function np.matmul for python versions below 3.5.)
If `a` is a matrix object (as opposed to an ndarray), then so are all the return values.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.random.randn(9, 6) + 1j*np.random.randn(9, 6)
>>> b = np.random.randn(2, 7, 8, 3) + 1j*np.random.randn(2, 7, 8, 3)

Reconstruction based on full SVD, 2D case:

```python
>>> u, s, vh = np.linalg.svd(a, full_matrices=True)
>>> u.shape, s.shape, vh.shape
((9, 9), (6,), (6, 6))
>>> np.allclose(a, np.dot(u[:, :6] * s, vh))
True
>>> smat = np.zeros((9, 6), dtype=complex)
>>> smat[:6, :6] = np.diag(s)
>>> np.allclose(a, np.dot(u, np.dot(smat, vh)))
True
```

Reconstruction based on reduced SVD, 2D case:

```python
>>> u, s, vh = np.linalg.svd(a, full_matrices=False)
>>> u.shape, s.shape, vh.shape
((9, 6), (6,), (6, 6))
>>> np.allclose(a, np.dot(u * s, vh))
True
>>> smat = np.diag(s)
>>> np.allclose(a, np.dot(u, np.dot(smat, vh)))
True
```

Reconstruction based on full SVD, 4D case:

```python
>>> u, s, vh = np.linalg.svd(b, full_matrices=True)
>>> u.shape, s.shape, vh.shape
((2, 7, 8, 8), (2, 7, 3), (2, 7, 3, 3))
>>> np.allclose(b, np.matmul(u[..., :3] * s[...], None), :, vh))
True
>>> np.allclose(b, np.matmul(u[..., :3], s[...], None) * vh))
True
```

Reconstruction based on reduced SVD, 4D case:

```python
>>> u, s, vh = np.linalg.svd(b, full_matrices=False)
>>> u.shape, s.shape, vh.shape
((2, 7, 8, 3), (2, 7, 3), (2, 7, 3, 3))
>>> np.allclose(b, np.matmul(u * s[...], None), :, vh))
True
>>> np.allclose(b, np.matmul(u, s[...], None) * vh))
True
```
4.16.4 Matrix eigenvalues

NumPy provides functions for computing eigenvalues and eigenvectors of matrices.

- `linalg.eig(a)`
  - Compute the eigenvalues and right eigenvectors of a square array.

- `linalg.eigh(a[, UPLO])`
  - Return the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a complex Hermitian (conjugate symmetric) or a real symmetric matrix.

- `linalg.eigvals(a)`
  - Compute the eigenvalues of a general matrix.

- `linalg.eigvalsh(a[, UPLO])`
  - Compute the eigenvalues of a complex Hermitian or real symmetric matrix.

### Parameters

- `a` : (`[…, M, M]` array) Matrices for which the eigenvalues and right eigenvectors will be computed

### Returns

- `w` : (`[…, M]` array) The eigenvalues, each repeated according to its multiplicity. The eigenvalues are not necessarily ordered. The resulting array will be of complex type, unless the imaginary part is zero in which case it will be cast to a real type. When `a` is real the resulting eigenvalues will be real (0 imaginary part) or occur in conjugate pairs.

- `v` : (`[…, M, M]` array) The normalized (unit “length”) eigenvectors, such that the column `v[:,i]` is the eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue `w[i]`.

### Raises

- `LinAlgError` If the eigenvalue computation does not converge.

### See also:

- `eigvals`
  - eigenvalues of a non-symmetric array.

- `eigh`
  - eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a real symmetric or complex Hermitian (conjugate symmetric) array.

- `eigvalsh`
  - eigenvalues of a real symmetric or complex Hermitian (conjugate symmetric) array.

- `scipy.linalg.eig`
  - Similar function in SciPy that also solves the generalized eigenvalue problem.
scipy.linalg.schur

Best choice for unitary and other non-Hermitian normal matrices.

Notes

New in version 1.8.0.

Broadcasting rules apply, see the numpy.linalg documentation for details.

This is implemented using the _geev LAPACK routines which compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of general square arrays.

The number \( w \) is an eigenvalue of \( a \) if there exists a vector \( v \) such that \( a @ v = w * v \). Thus, the arrays \( a, w, \) and \( v \) satisfy the equations \( a @ v[:,i] = w[i] * v[:,i] \) for \( i \in \{0, \ldots, M-1\} \).

The array \( v \) of eigenvectors may not be of maximum rank, that is, some of the columns may be linearly dependent, although round-off error may obscure that fact. If the eigenvalues are all different, then theoretically the eigenvectors are linearly independent and \( a \) can be diagonalized by a similarity transformation using \( v \), i.e., \( \text{inv}(v) @ a @ v \) is diagonal.

For non-Hermitian normal matrices the SciPy function scipy.linalg.schur is preferred because the matrix \( v \) is guaranteed to be unitary, which is not the case when using eig. The Schur factorization produces an upper triangular matrix rather than a diagonal matrix, but for normal matrices only the diagonal of the upper triangular matrix is needed, the rest is roundoff error.

Finally, it is emphasized that \( v \) consists of the right (as in right-hand side) eigenvectors of \( a \). A vector \( y \) satisfying \( y.T @ a = z * y.T \) for some number \( z \) is called a left eigenvector of \( a \), and, in general, the left and right eigenvectors of a matrix are not necessarily the (perhaps conjugate) transposes of each other.

References


Examples

```python
>>> from numpy import linalg as LA

(A) Almost trivial example with real e-values and e-vectors.

```python
>>> w, v = LA.eig(np.diag((1, 2, 3)))
```python
>>> w; v
```python
array([1., 2., 3.])
array([[1., 0., 0.],
      [0., 1., 0.],
      [0., 0., 1.]])
```python

Real matrix possessing complex e-values and e-vectors; note that the e-values are complex conjugates of each other.

```python
>>> w, v = LA.eig(np.array([[1, -1], [1, 1]]))
```python
>>> w; v
```python
array([[1.+1.j, 1.-1.j]]
      [0.70710678+0.j , 0.70710678-0.j ]
      [0. , -0.70710678j, 0. +0.70710678j])
```
Complex-valued matrix with real e-values (but complex-valued e-vectors); note that \( a . \text{conj().T} == a \), i.e., \( a \) is Hermitian.

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1j, 1], [-1j, 1]])
>>> w, v = LA.eig(a)
>>> w; v
array([2.+0.j, 0.+0.j])
array([[ 0. +0.70710678j, 0.70710678+0.j],
      [ 0.70710678+0.j, -0. +0.70710678j]])
```

Be careful about round-off error!

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1 + 1e-9, 0], [0, 1 - 1e-9]])
>>> # Theor. e-values are 1 +/- 1e-9
>>> w, v = LA.eig(a)
>>> w; v
array([1., 1.])
array([[1., 0.],
      [0., 1.]])
```

\texttt{linalg.eigh(a, UPLO=’L’)}

Return the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a complex Hermitian (conjugate symmetric) or a real symmetric matrix.

Returns two objects, a 1-D array containing the eigenvalues of \( a \), and a 2-D square array or matrix (depending on the input type) of the corresponding eigenvectors (in columns).

**Parameters**

\( a \)

[(\(\ldots\), M, M) array] Hermitian or real symmetric matrices whose eigenvalues and eigenvectors are to be computed.

\texttt{UPLO}

[\{'L', 'U'}, optional] Specifies whether the calculation is done with the lower triangular part of \( a \) (‘L’, default) or the upper triangular part (‘U’). Irrespective of this value only the real parts of the diagonal will be considered in the computation to preserve the notion of a Hermitian matrix. It therefore follows that the imaginary part of the diagonal will always be treated as zero.

**Returns**

\( w \)

[(\(\ldots\), M) ndarray] The eigenvalues in ascending order, each repeated according to its multiplicity.

\( v \)

[(\(\ldots\), M) ndarray, (\(\ldots\), M) matrix)] The column \( v[:, i] \) is the normalized eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue \( w[i] \). Will return a matrix object if \( a \) is a matrix object.

**Raises**

\texttt{LinAlgError}

If the eigenvalue computation does not converge.
See also:

* `eigvalsh`
  eigenvalues of real symmetric or complex Hermitian (conjugate symmetric) arrays.

* `eig`
  eigenvalues and right eigenvectors for non-symmetric arrays.

* `eigvals`
  eigenvalues of non-symmetric arrays.

* `scipy.linalg.eigh`
  Similar function in SciPy (but also solves the generalized eigenvalue problem).

Notes

New in version 1.8.0.

Broadcasting rules apply, see the `numpy.linalg` documentation for details.

The eigenvalues/eigenvectors are computed using LAPACK routines `_syevd`, `_heevd`.

The eigenvalues of real symmetric or complex Hermitian matrices are always real. [1] The array `v` of (column) eigenvectors is unitary and `a`, `w`, and `v` satisfy the equations `dot(a, v[:, i]) = w[i] * v[:, i]`.

References

[1]

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy import linalg as LA
>>> a = np.array([[1, -2j], [2j, 5]])
>>> a
array([[ 1.+0.j, -0.-2.j],
   [ 0.+2.j,  5.+0.j]])
>>> w, v = LA.eigh(a)
>>> w, v
(array([0.17157288, 5.82842712]), array([[ 0.92387953+0.j , -0.38268343+0.j ],
   [ 0. +0.38268343j, 0. -0.92387953j]], dtype=complex))
>>> np.dot(a, v[:, 0]) - w[0] * v[:, 0] # verify 1st e-val/vec pair
array([0.+0.j, 0.+0.j])
>>> np.dot(a, v[:, 1]) - w[1] * v[:, 1] # verify 2nd e-val/vec pair
array([0.+0.j, 0.+0.j])
```

```python
>>> A = np.matrix(a)  # what happens if input is a matrix object
>>> A
matrix([[ 1.+0.j, -0.-2.j],
   [ 0.+2.j,  5.+0.j]])
>>> w, v = LA.eigh(A)
>>> w, v
```

(continues on next page)
array([0.17157288,  5.82842712])
matrix([[ -0.92387953+0.j,    -0.38268343+0.j], # may vary
        [   0.          , +0.38268343j,    0.          , -0.92387953j]])

>>> # demonstrate the treatment of the imaginary part of the diagonal
>>> a = np.array([[5+2j,  9-2j], [0+2j,  2-1j]])
>>> a
array([[5.+2.j,  9.-2.j],
        [0.+2.j,  2.-1.j]])

>>> b = np.array([[5.+0.j,  0.-2.j], [0.+2.j,  2.+0.j]])

>>> wa, va = LA.eigh(a)
>>> wb, vb = LA.eig(b)

linalg.eigvals(a)
Compute the eigenvalues of a general matrix.

Main difference between eigvals and eig: the eigenvectors aren’t returned.

Parameters

  a

  [(…, M, M) array_like] A complex- or real-valued matrix whose
  eigenvalues will be computed.

Returns

  w

  [(…, M,) ndarray] The eigenvalues, each repeated according to its
  multiplicity. They are not necessarily ordered, nor are they
  necessarily real for real matrices.

Raises

  LinAlgError

  If the eigenvalue computation does not converge.

See also:

eig
eigenvalues and right eigenvectors of general arrays
eigvalsh
eigenvalues of real symmetric or complex Hermitian (conjugate symmetric) arrays.
**eigh**

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of real symmetric or complex Hermitian (conjugate symmetric) arrays.

**scipy.linalg.eigvals**

Similar function in SciPy.

**Notes**

New in version 1.8.0.

Broadcasting rules apply, see the `numpy.linalg` documentation for details.

This is implemented using the `_geev` LAPACK routines which compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of general square arrays.

**Examples**

Illustration, using the fact that the eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix are its diagonal elements, that multiplying a matrix on the left by an orthogonal matrix, \( Q \), and on the right by \( Q^T \) (the transpose of \( Q \)), preserves the eigenvalues of the “middle” matrix. In other words, if \( Q \) is orthogonal, then \( Q \times A \times Q^T \) has the same eigenvalues as \( A \):

```python
>>> from numpy import linalg as LA
>>> x = np.random.random()
>>> Q = np.array([[np.cos(x), -np.sin(x)], [np.sin(x), np.cos(x)]]
>>> LA.norm(Q[0, :]), LA.norm(Q[1, :]), np.dot(Q[0, :], Q[1, :])
(1.0, 1.0, 0.0)
```

Now multiply a diagonal matrix by \( Q \) on one side and by \( Q^T \) on the other:

```python
>>> D = np.diag((-1, 1))
>>> LA.eigvals(D)
array([-1., 1.])
>>> A = np.dot(Q, D)
>>> A = np.dot(A, Q.T)
>>> LA.eigvals(A)
array([ 1., -1.]) # random
```

**linalg.eigvalsh**\( (a, \text{UPLO}=\text{'L'}) \)

Compute the eigenvalues of a complex Hermitian or real symmetric matrix.

Main difference from `eigh`: the eigenvectors are not computed.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  \([..., M, M] \text{array_like}\) A complex- or real-valued matrix whose eigenvalues are to be computed.

- **UPLO**
  
  \(['\text{L}', \text{'U'}], \text{optional}\) Specifies whether the calculation is done with the lower triangular part of \( a \) (\text{L}', default) or the upper triangular part (\text{'U'}). Irrespective of this value only the real parts of the diagonal will be considered in the computation to preserve the notion of a Hermitian matrix. It therefore follows that the imaginary part of the diagonal will always be treated as zero.
Returns

\[ w \quad [\ldots, M,) \text{ndarray} \] The eigenvalues in ascending order, each repeated according to its multiplicity.

Raises

LinAlgError

If the eigenvalue computation does not converge.

See also:

eigh

eigenvalues and eigenvectors of real symmetric or complex Hermitian (conjugate symmetric) arrays.

eigvals

eigenvalues of general real or complex arrays.
eig

eigenvalues and right eigenvectors of general real or complex arrays.

cscipy.linalg.eigvalsh

Similar function in SciPy.

Notes

New in version 1.8.0.

Broadcasting rules apply, see the numpy.linalg documentation for details.

The eigenvalues are computed using LAPACK routines _syevd, _heevd.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy import linalg as LA
>>> a = np.array([[1, -2j], [2j, 5]])
>>> LA.eigvalsh(a)
array([ 0.17157288, 5.82842712]) # may vary
```

```python
>>> a = np.array([[5+2.j, 9-2.j], [0+2.j, 2-1.j]])
>>> b = np.array([[5.0+0.j, 0.-2.j], [0.+2.j, 2.0+0.j]])
>>> wa = LA.eigvalsh(a)
```

```python
>>> # demonstrate the treatment of the imaginary part of the diagonal
>>> a = np.array([[5+2.j, 9-2.j], [0+2.j, 2-1.j]])
>>> a
array([[5.+2.j, 9.-2.j],
       [0.+2.j, 2.-1.j]])
>>> # with UPLO='L' this is numerically equivalent to using LA.eigvals()
>>> # with:
>>> b = np.array([[5.+0.j, 0.-2.j], [0.+2.j, 2.-0.j]])
>>> b
array([[5.+0.j, 0.-2.j],
       [0.+2.j, 2.+0.j]])
>>> wa = LA.eigvalsh(a)
```
>>> wb = LA.eigvals(b)
>>> wa, wb
array([1., 6.])
array([6.+0.j, 1.+0.j])

### 4.16.5 Norms and other numbers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>linalg.norm(x, ord=None, axis=None, keepdims=False)</td>
<td>Matrix or vector norm. This function is able to return one of eight different matrix norms, or one of an infinite number of vector norms (described below), depending on the value of the <code>ord</code> parameter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>linalg.cond(x, p)</td>
<td>Compute the condition number of a matrix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>linalg.det(a)</td>
<td>Compute the determinant of an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>linalg.matrix_rank(M[, tol, hermitian])</td>
<td>Return matrix rank of array using SVD method.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>linalg.slogdet(a)</td>
<td>Compute the sign and (natural) logarithm of the determinant of an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trace(a[, offset, axis1, axis2, dtype, out])</td>
<td>Return the sum along diagonals of the array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### linalg.norm(x, ord=None, axis=None, keepdims=False)
Matrix or vector norm.

This function is able to return one of eight different matrix norms, or one of an infinite number of vector norms (described below), depending on the value of the `ord` parameter.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  - [array_like] Input array. If `axis` is None, `x` must be 1-D or 2-D, unless `ord` is None. If both `axis` and `ord` are None, the 2-norm of `x.ravel` will be returned.

- **ord**
  - [(non-zero int, inf, -inf, 'fro', 'nuc'), optional] Order of the norm (see table under Notes). `inf` means numpy's `inf` object. The default is None.

- **axis**
  - [(None, int, 2-tuple of ints), optional.] If `axis` is an integer, it specifies the axis of `x` along which to compute the vector norms. If `axis` is a 2-tuple, it specifies the axes that hold 2-D matrices, and the matrix norms of these matrices are computed. If `axis` is None then either a vector norm (when `x` is 1-D) or a matrix norm (when `x` is 2-D) is returned. The default is None.

  New in version 1.8.0.

- **keepdims**
  - [bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are normed over are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option the result will broadcast correctly against the original `x`.

  New in version 1.10.0.

**Returns**

- **n**
  - [float or ndarray] Norm of the matrix or vector(s).
See also:

scipy.linalg.norm

Similar function in SciPy.

Notes

For values of $\text{ord} < 1$, the result is, strictly speaking, not a mathematical ‘norm’, but it may still be useful for various numerical purposes.

The following norms can be calculated:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ord</th>
<th>norm for matrices</th>
<th>norm for vectors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>Frobenius norm</td>
<td>2-norm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘fro’</td>
<td>Frobenius norm</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘nuc’</td>
<td>nuclear norm</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inf</td>
<td>max(sum(abs(x), axis=1))</td>
<td>max(abs(x))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-inf</td>
<td>min(sum(abs(x), axis=1))</td>
<td>min(abs(x))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>sum(x != 0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>max(sum(abs(x), axis=0))</td>
<td>as below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>min(sum(abs(x), axis=0))</td>
<td>as below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2-norm (largest sing. value)</td>
<td>as below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2</td>
<td>smallest singular value</td>
<td>as below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>sum(abs(x)<strong>ord)</strong>(1./ord)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Frobenius norm is given by [1]:

$$||A||_F = [\sum_{i,j} |a_{i,j}|^2]^{1/2}$$

The nuclear norm is the sum of the singular values.

Both the Frobenius and nuclear norm orders are only defined for matrices and raise a ValueError when $x$.ndim != 2.

References

[1]

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy import linalg as LA
>>> a = np.arange(9) - 4
>>> a
array([-4, -3, -2, ..., 2, 3, 4])
>>> b = a.reshape((3, 3))
>>> b
array([[-4, -3, -2],
       [-1,  0,  1],
       [ 2,  3,  4]])
```
>>> LA.norm(a)
7.745966692414834
>>> LA.norm(b)
7.745966692414834
>>> LA.norm(b, 'fro')
7.745966692414834
>>> LA.norm(a, np.inf)
4.0
>>> LA.norm(b, np.inf)
9.0
>>> LA.norm(a, -np.inf)
0.0
>>> LA.norm(b, -np.inf)
2.0

>>> LA.norm(a, 1)
20.0
>>> LA.norm(b, 1)
7.0
>>> LA.norm(a, -1)
-4.6566128774142013e-010
>>> LA.norm(b, -1)
6.0
>>> LA.norm(a, 2)
7.745966692414834
>>> LA.norm(b, 2)
7.3484692283495345

>>> LA.norm(a, -2)
0.0
>>> LA.norm(b, -2)
1.8570331885190563e-016 # may vary
>>> LA.norm(a, 3)
5.8480354764257312 # may vary
>>> LA.norm(a, -3)
0.0

Using the axis argument to compute vector norms:

```python
>>> c = np.array([[1, 2, 3], ...
                 [-1, 1, 4]])
>>> LA.norm(c, axis=0)
array([ 1.41421356, 2.23606798, 5. ])
>>> LA.norm(c, axis=1)
array([ 3.74165739, 4.24264069])
>>> LA.norm(c, ord=1, axis=1)
array([ 6., 6.])
```

Using the axis argument to compute matrix norms:

```python
>>> m = np.arange(8).reshape(2,2,2)
>>> LA.norm(m, axis=(1,2))
array([ 3.74165739, 11.22497216])
>>> LA.norm(m[0, :, :], m[1, :, :])
(3.7416573867739413, 11.224972160321824)
```
linalg.cond(x, p=None)

Compute the condition number of a matrix.

This function is capable of returning the condition number using one of seven different norms, depending on the value of p (see Parameters below).

Parameters

x

[ (... M, N) array_like] The matrix whose condition number is sought.

p

[ [None, 1, -1, 2, -2, inf, -inf, ‘fro’], optional] Order of the norm:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>p</th>
<th>norm for matrices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>2-norm, computed directly using the SVD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘fro’</td>
<td>Frobenius norm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inf</td>
<td>max(sum(abs(x), axis=1))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-inf</td>
<td>min(sum(abs(x), axis=1))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>max(sum(abs(x), axis=0))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>min(sum(abs(x), axis=0))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2-norm (largest sing. value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2</td>
<td>smallest singular value</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

inf means the numpy.inf object, and the Frobenius norm is the root-of-sum-of-squares norm.

Returns

c

[ [float, inf]] The condition number of the matrix. May be infinite.

See also:

numpy.linalg.norm

Notes

The condition number of x is defined as the norm of x times the norm of the inverse of x [1]; the norm can be the usual L2-norm (root-of-sum-of-squares) or one of a number of other matrix norms.

References

[1]
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy import linalg as LA
>>> a = np.array([[1, 0, -1], [0, 1, 0], [1, 0, 1]])
>>> a
array([[ 1,  0, -1],
       [ 0,  1,  0],
       [ 1,  0,  1]])
>>> LA.cond(a)
1.4142135623730951
>>> LA.cond(a, 'fro')
3.1622776601683795
>>> LA.cond(a, np.inf)
2.0
>>> LA.cond(a, -np.inf)
1.0
>>> LA.cond(a, 1)
2.0
>>> LA.cond(a, -1)
1.0
>>> LA.cond(a, 2)
1.4142135623730951
>>> LA.cond(a, -2)
0.70710678118654746 # may vary
>>> min(LA.svd(a, compute_uv=False))*min(LA.svd(LA.inv(a), compute_uv=False))
0.70710678118654746 # may vary
```

`linalg.det(a)`

Compute the determinant of an array.

Parameters

- `a`

  [(…, M, M) array_like] Input array to compute determinants for.

Returns

- `det`


See also:

- `slogdet`

  Another way to represent the determinant, more suitable for large matrices where underflow/overflow may occur.

- `scipy.linalg.det`

  Similar function in SciPy.
Notes

New in version 1.8.0.

Broadcasting rules apply, see the numpy.linalg documentation for details.

The determinant is computed via LU factorization using the LAPACK routine z/dgetrf.

Examples

The determinant of a 2-D array \([a, b], [c, d]\) is \(ad - bc\):

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> np.linalg.det(a)
-2.0 # may vary
```

Computing determinants for a stack of matrices:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[[1, 2], [3, 4]], [[1, 2], [2, 1]], [[1, 3], [3, 1]]])
>>> a.shape
(3, 2, 2)
>>> np.linalg.det(a)
array([-2., -3., -8.])
```

```
linalg.matrix_rank(M, tol=None, hermitian=False)
```

Return matrix rank of array using SVD method

Rank of the array is the number of singular values of the array that are greater than \(tol\).

Changed in version 1.14: Can now operate on stacks of matrices

Parameters

- **M**
  - \([(M,), \ldots, M, N] \) array_like Input vector or stack of matrices.

- **tol**
  - \([(\ldots)\) array_like, float, optional] Threshold below which SVD values are considered zero. If \(tol\) is None, and \(S\) is an array with singular values for \(M\), and \(eps\) is the epsilon value for datatype of \(S\), then \(tol\) is set to \(S.max() * max(M.shape) * eps\).

  Changed in version 1.14: Broadcasted against the stack of matrices

- **hermitian**
  - \([\text{bool}, \text{optional}]\) If True, \(M\) is assumed to be Hermitian (symmetric if real-valued), enabling a more efficient method for finding singular values. Defaults to False.


Returns

- **rank**
  - \([(\ldots)\) array_like] Rank of \(M\).
**Notes**

The default threshold to detect rank deficiency is a test on the magnitude of the singular values of $M$. By default, we identify singular values less than $S_{\text{max}} \cdot \max(M, \text{shape}) \cdot \text{eps}$ as indicating rank deficiency (with the symbols defined above). This is the algorithm MATLAB uses [1]. It also appears in *Numerical recipes* in the discussion of SVD solutions for linear least squares [2].

This default threshold is designed to detect rank deficiency accounting for the numerical errors of the SVD computation. Imagine that there is a column in $M$ that is an exact (in floating point) linear combination of other columns in $M$. Computing the SVD on $M$ will not produce a singular value exactly equal to 0 in general: any difference of the smallest SVD value from 0 will be caused by numerical imprecision in the calculation of the SVD. Our threshold for small SVD values takes this numerical imprecision into account, and the default threshold will detect such numerical rank deficiency. The threshold may declare a matrix $M$ rank deficient even if the linear combination of some columns of $M$ is not exactly equal to another column of $M$ but only numerically very close to another column of $M$.

We chose our default threshold because it is in wide use. Other thresholds are possible. For example, elsewhere in the 2007 edition of *Numerical recipes* there is an alternative threshold of $S_{\text{max}} \cdot \text{np.finfo}(M, \text{dtype}).\text{eps} / 2. \cdot \text{np.sqrt}(m + n + 1.)$. The authors describe this threshold as being based on “expected roundoff error” (p 71).

The thresholds above deal with floating point roundoff error in the calculation of the SVD. However, you may have more information about the sources of error in $M$ that would make you consider other tolerance values to detect *effective* rank deficiency. The most useful measure of the tolerance depends on the operations you intend to use on your matrix. For example, if your data come from uncertain measurements with uncertainties greater than floating point epsilon, choosing a tolerance near that uncertainty may be preferable. The tolerance may be absolute if the uncertainties are absolute rather than relative.

**References**

[1], [2]

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.linalg import matrix_rank
>>> matrix_rank(np.eye(4))  # Full rank matrix
4
>>> I=np.eye(4); I[-1,-1]=0.  # rank deficient matrix
>>> matrix_rank(I)
3
>>> matrix_rank(np.ones((4,)))  # 1 dimension - rank 1 unless all 0
1
>>> matrix_rank(np.zeros((4,)))
0
```

**linalg.slogdet**($a$)

Compute the sign and (natural) logarithm of the determinant of an array.

If an array has a very small or very large determinant, then a call to $\text{det}$ may overflow or underflow. This routine is more robust against such issues, because it computes the logarithm of the determinant rather than the determinant itself.

**Parameters**

- $a$

4.16. Linear algebra (**numpy.linalg**)
[..., M, M] array_like Input array, has to be a square 2-D array.

Returns

sign

[..., M, M] array_like] A number representing the sign of the determinant. For a real matrix, this is 1, 0, or -1. For a complex matrix, this is a complex number with absolute value 1 (i.e., it is on the unit circle), or else 0.

logdet


If the determinant is zero, then sign will be 0 and logdet will be -Inf. In all cases, the determinant is equal to sign * np.exp(logdet).

See also:

det

Notes

New in version 1.8.0.

Broadcasting rules apply, see the numpy.linalg documentation for details.

New in version 1.6.0.

The determinant is computed via LU factorization using the LAPACK routine z/dgetrf.

Examples

The determinant of a 2-D array \([a, b], [c, d]\) is \(ad - bc\):

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> (sign, logdet) = np.linalg.slogdet(a)
>>> (sign, logdet)
(-1, 0.69314718055994529) # may vary
>>> sign * np.exp(logdet)
-2.0
```

Computing log-determinants for a stack of matrices:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[[1, 2], [3, 4]], [[1, 2], [2, 1]], [[1, 3], [3, 1]]])
>>> a.shape
(3, 2, 2)
>>> sign, logdet = np.linalg.slogdet(a)
>>> (sign, logdet)
(array([-1., -1., -1.]), array([ 0.69314718, 1.09861229, 2.07944154]))
>>> sign * np.exp(logdet)
array([-2., -3., -8.])
```

This routine succeeds where ordinary det does not:
```python
>>> np.linalg.det(np.eye(500) * 0.1)
0.0
>>> np.linalg.slogdet(np.eye(500) * 0.1)
(1, -1151.2925464970228)
```

**numpy.trace** *(a, offset=0, axis1=0, axis2=1, dtype=None, out=None)*

Return the sum along diagonals of the array.

If *a* is 2-D, the sum along its diagonal with the given offset is returned, i.e., the sum of elements *a*[i,i+offset] for all *i*.

If *a* has more than two dimensions, then the axes specified by *axis1* and *axis2* are used to determine the 2-D sub-arrays whose traces are returned. The shape of the resulting array is the same as that of *a* with *axis1* and *axis2* removed.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] Input array, from which the diagonals are taken.
- **offset**
  - [int, optional] Offset of the diagonal from the main diagonal. Can be both positive and negative. Defaults to 0.
- **axis1, axis2**
  - [int, optional] Axes to be used as the first and second axis of the 2-D sub-arrays from which the diagonals should be taken. Defaults are the first two axes of *a*.
- **dtype**
  - [dtype, optional] Determines the data-type of the returned array and of the accumulator where the elements are summed. If *dtype* has the value None and *a* is of integer type of precision less than the default integer precision, then the default integer precision is used. Otherwise, the precision is the same as that of *a*.
- **out**
  - [ndarray, optional] Array into which the output is placed. Its type is preserved and it must be of the right shape to hold the output.

**Returns**

- **sum_along_diagonals**
  - [ndarray] If *a* is 2-D, the sum along the diagonal is returned. If *a* has larger dimensions, then an array of sums along diagonals is returned.

**See also:**

- **diag**, **diagonal**, **diagflat**
Examples

```python
>>> np.trace(np.eye(3))
3.0
>>> a = np.arange(8).reshape((2,2,2))
>>> np.trace(a)
array([6, 8])
```

```python
>>> a = np.arange(24).reshape((2,2,2,3))
>>> np.trace(a).shape
(2, 3)
```

4.16.6 Solving equations and inverting matrices

```python
linalg.solve(a, b) Solve a linear matrix equation, or system of linear scalar equations.
Computes the “exact” solution, \(x\), of the well-determined, i.e., full rank, linear matrix equation \(ax = b\).
```

**Parameters**

- `a`:
  - `[(\ldots, M, M)] array_like` Coefficient matrix.

- `b`:
  - `[(\ldots, M), (\ldots, M, K)] array_like` Ordinate or “dependent variable” values.

**Returns**

- `x`:
  - `[(\ldots, M), (\ldots, M, K)] ndarray` Solution to the system \(ax = b\). Returned shape is identical to \(b\).

**Raises**

- `LinAlgError` If \(a\) is singular or not square.

See also:
scipy.linalg.solve

Similar function in SciPy.

Notes

New in version 1.8.0.

Broadcasting rules apply, see the numpy.linalg documentation for details.

The solutions are computed using LAPACK routine _gesv.

a must be square and of full-rank, i.e., all rows (or, equivalently, columns) must be linearly independent; if either is not true, use lstsq for the least-squares best “solution” of the system/equation.

References

[1]

Examples

Solve the system of equations \( x_0 + 2 \cdot x_1 = 1 \) and \( 3 \cdot x_0 + 5 \cdot x_1 = 2 \):

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 5]])
>>> b = np.array([1, 2])
>>> x = np.linalg.solve(a, b)
>>> x
array([-1., 1.])
```

Check that the solution is correct:

```python
>>> np.allclose(np.dot(a, x), b)
True
```

linalg.tensorsolve(a, b, axes=None)

Solve the tensor equation \( a \cdot x = b \) for \( x \).

It is assumed that all indices of \( x \) are summed over in the product, together with the rightmost indices of \( a \), as is done in, for example, tensordot(a, x, axes=b.ndim).

Parameters

- **a**
  - [array_like] Coefficient tensor, of shape \( b.shape + Q \). \( Q \) a tuple, equals the shape of that sub-tensor of \( a \) consisting of the appropriate number of its rightmost indices, and must be such that \( \prod(Q) == \prod(b.shape) \) (in which sense \( a \) is said to be ‘square’).

- **b**
  - [array_like] Right-hand tensor, which can be of any shape.

- **axes**
  - [tuple of ints, optional] Axes in \( a \) to reorder to the right, before inversion. If None (default), no reordering is done.

Returns
x
   [ndarray, shape Q]

Raises

LinAlgError

If a is singular or not ‘square’ (in the above sense).

See also:

numpy.tensordot, tensorinv, numpy.einsum

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.eye(2*3*4)
>>> a.shape = (2*3, 4, 2, 3, 4)
>>> b = np.random.randn(2*3, 4)
>>> x = np.linalg.tensorsolve(a, b)
>>> x.shape
(2, 3, 4)
>>> np.allclose(np.tensordot(a, x, axes=3), b)
True
```
x

[(N,), (N, K)] ndarray Least-squares solution. If b is two-dimensional, the solutions are in the K columns of x.

residuals

[(1,), (K,), (0,)] ndarray Sums of squared residuals: Squared Euclidean 2-norm for each column in b - a @ x. If the rank of a is < N or M <= N, this is an empty array. If b is 1-dimensional, this is a (1,) shape array. Otherwise the shape is (K,).

rank

[int] Rank of matrix a.

s

[(min(M, N),)] ndarray Singular values of a.

Raises

LinAlgError

If computation does not converge.

See also:

scipy.linalg.lstsq

Similar function in SciPy.

Notes

If b is a matrix, then all array results are returned as matrices.

Examples

Fit a line, y = mx + c, through some noisy data-points:

```python
>>> x = np.array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> y = np.array([-1, 0.2, 0.9, 2.1])
```

By examining the coefficients, we see that the line should have a gradient of roughly 1 and cut the y-axis at, more or less, -1.

We can rewrite the line equation as y = Ap, where A = [[x 1]] and p = [[m], [c]]. Now use lstsq to solve for p:

```python
>>> A = np.vstack([x, np.ones(len(x))]).T
>>> A
array([[ 0., 1.],
       [ 1., 1.],
       [ 2., 1.],
       [ 3., 1.]])

>>> m, c = np.linalg.lstsq(A, y, rcond=None)[0]
```

(1.0 -0.95) # may vary
Plot the data along with the fitted line:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> _ = plt.plot(x, y, 'o', label='Original data', markersize=10)
>>> _ = plt.plot(x, m*x + c, 'r', label='Fitted line')
>>> _ = plt.legend()
>>> plt.show()
```

**linalg.inv(a)**

Compute the (multiplicative) inverse of a matrix.

Given a square matrix $a$, return the matrix $a^{-1}$ satisfying $\text{dot}(a, a^{-1}) = \text{dot}(a^{-1}, a) = \text{eye}(\text{a. shape}[0])$.

**Parameters**

- $a$
  
  [(..., M, M) array_like] Matrix to be inverted.

**Returns**

- $a^{-1}$
  
  [(..., M, M) ndarray or matrix] (Multiplicative) inverse of the matrix $a$.

**Raises**

- **LinAlgError**
  
  If $a$ is not square or inversion fails.

**See also:**

- `scipy.linalg.inv`
  
  Similar function in SciPy.
Notes

New in version 1.8.0.

Broadcasting rules apply, see the `numpy.linalg` documentation for details.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.linalg import inv
>>> a = np.array([[1., 2.], [3., 4.]])
>>> ainv = inv(a)
>>> np.allclose(np.dot(a, ainv), np.eye(2))
True
>>> np.allclose(np.dot(ainv, a), np.eye(2))
True
```

If `a` is a matrix object, then the return value is a matrix as well:

```python
>>> ainv = inv(np.matrix(a))
>>> ainv
matrix([[[-2. ,  1. ],
         [ 1.5, -0.5 ]],
        [[-1.25, 0.75],
         [ 0.75, -0.25]])
```

Inverses of several matrices can be computed at once:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[[1., 2.], [3., 4.]],=[[1, 3], [3, 5]]])
>>> inv(a)
array([[[[-2. ,  1. ],
         [ 1.5, -0.5 ]],
        [[-1.25, 0.75],
         [ 0.75, -0.25]]],
       [[[-2.5,  1.5],
         [ 1.25, -0.75]]])
```

`numpy.linalg.pinv(a, rcond=1e-15, hermitian=False)`

Compute the (Moore-Penrose) pseudo-inverse of a matrix.

Calculate the generalized inverse of a matrix using its singular-value decomposition (SVD) and including all large singular values.

Changed in version 1.14: Can now operate on stacks of matrices

Parameters

- `a`
  
  [(..., M, N) array_like] Matrix or stack of matrices to be pseudo-inverted.

- `rcond`
  
  [(...) array_like of float] Cutoff for small singular values. Singular values less than or equal to `rcond * largest_singular_value` are set to zero. Broadcasts against the stack of matrices.

- `hermitian`
  
  [bool, optional] If True, `a` is assumed to be Hermitian (symmetric if real-valued), enabling a more efficient method for finding singular values. Defaults to False.

Returns
The pseudo-inverse of a matrix A, denoted $A^+$, is defined as: “the matrix that ‘solves’ [the least-squares problem] $Ax = b$,” i.e., if $\tilde{x}$ is said solution, then $A^+$ is that matrix such that $\tilde{x} = A^+ b$.

It can be shown that if $Q_1 \Sigma Q_2^T = A$ is the singular value decomposition of $A$, then $A^+ = Q_2 \Sigma^+ Q_1^T$, where $Q_{1,2}$ are orthogonal matrices, $\Sigma$ is a diagonal matrix consisting of $A$’s so-called singular values, (followed, typically, by zeros), and then $\Sigma^+$ is simply the diagonal matrix consisting of the reciprocals of $A$’s singular values (again, followed by zeros). [1]

**References**

[1]

**Examples**

The following example checks that $a * a+ * a == a$ and $a+ * a * a+ == a+$:

```python
>>> a = np.random.randn(3, 6)
>>> B = np.linalg.pinv(a)
>>> np.allclose(a, np.dot(a, np.dot(B, a)))
True
>>> np.allclose(B, np.dot(B, np.dot(a, B)))
True
```

**linalg.tensorinv(a, ind=2)**

Compute the ‘inverse’ of an N-dimensional array.

The result is an inverse for $a$ relative to the tensordot operation `tensordot(a, b, ind)`, i.e., up to floating-point accuracy, `tensordot(tensorinv(a), a, ind)` is the “identity” tensor for the tensordot operation.
a

[array_like] Tensor to ‘invert’. Its shape must be ‘square’, i.e., \(\prod(a.shape[:ind]) \) == \(\prod(a.shape[ind:])\).

ind

[int, optional] Number of first indices that are involved in the inverse sum. Must be a positive integer, default is 2.

Returns

b

[ndarray] \(a\)'s tensordot inverse, shape \(a.shape[ind:] + a.shape[:ind]\).

Raises

LinAlgError

If \(a\) is singular or not ‘square’ (in the above sense).

See also:

numpy.tensordot, tensorsolve

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.eye(4*6)
>>> a.shape = (4, 6, 8, 3)
>>> ainv = np.linalg.tensorinv(a, ind=2)
>>> ainv.shape
(8, 3, 4, 6)
>>> b = np.random.randn(4, 6)
>>> np.allclose(np.tensordot(ainv, b), np.linalg.tensorsolve(a, b))
True
```

```python
>>> a = np.eye(4*6)
>>> a.shape = (24, 8, 3)
>>> ainv = np.linalg.tensorinv(a, ind=1)
>>> ainv.shape
(8, 3, 24)
>>> b = np.random.randn(24)
>>> np.allclose(np.tensordot(ainv, b, 1), np.linalg.tensorsolve(a, b))
True
```
4.16.7 Exceptions

**linalg.LinAlgError**

Generic Python-exception-derived object raised by linalg functions.

**exception linalg.LinAlgError**

Generic Python-exception-derived object raised by linalg functions.

General purpose exception class, derived from Python's exception.Exception class, programmatically raised in linalg functions when a Linear Algebra-related condition would prevent further correct execution of the function.

**Parameters**

None

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy import linalg as LA
>>> LA.inv(np.zeros((2,2)))
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>" , line 1 , in <module>
  File "...linalg.py" , line 350,
    in inv return wrap(solve(a, identity(a.shape[0], dtype=a.dtype)))
  File "...linalg.py" , line 249,
    in solve
      raise LinAlgError('Singular matrix')
numpy.linalg.LinAlgError: Singular matrix
```

4.16.8 Linear algebra on several matrices at once

New in version 1.8.0.

Several of the linear algebra routines listed above are able to compute results for several matrices at once, if they are stacked into the same array.

This is indicated in the documentation via input parameter specifications such as `a : (..., M, M) array_like`. This means that if for instance given an input array `a.shape == (N, M, M)`, it is interpreted as a “stack” of N matrices, each of size M-by-M. Similar specification applies to return values, for instance the determinant has `det : (...)` and will in this case return an array of shape `det(a).shape == (N,)`. This generalizes to linear algebra operations on higher-dimensional arrays: the last 1 or 2 dimensions of a multidimensional array are interpreted as vectors or matrices, as appropriate for each operation.

4.17 Logic functions

4.17.1 Truth value testing

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<td><code>all(a[, axis, out, keepdims, where])</code></td>
<td>Test whether all array elements along a given axis evaluate to True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>any(a[, axis, out, keepdims, where])</code></td>
<td>Test whether any array element along a given axis evaluates to True.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
numpy.all(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>, *, where=<no value>)

Test whether all array elements along a given axis evaluate to True.

Parameters

a

[array_like] Input array or object that can be converted to an array.

axis

[None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which a logical AND reduction is performed. The default (axis=None) is to perform a logical AND over all the dimensions of the input array. axis may be negative, in which case it counts from the last to the first axis.

New in version 1.7.0.

If this is a tuple of ints, a reduction is performed on multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

out

[ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output and its type is preserved (e.g., if dtype(out) is float, the result will consist of 0.0's and 1.0's). See Output type determination for more details.

keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

If the default value is passed, then keepdims will not be passed through to the all method of sub-classes of ndarray, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class' method does not implement keepdims any exceptions will be raised.

where

[array_like of bool, optional] Elements to include in checking for all True values. See reduce for details.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

all

[ndarray, bool] A new boolean or array is returned unless out is specified, in which case a reference to out is returned.

See also:

ndarray.all

equivalent method

any

Test whether any element along a given axis evaluates to True.
Notes

Not a Number (NaN), positive infinity and negative infinity evaluate to True because these are not equal to zero.

Examples

```python
>>> np.all([[True, False], [True, True]])
False

>>> np.all([[True, False], [True, True]], axis=0)
array([True, False])

>>> np.all([-1, 4, 5])
True

>>> np.all([1.0, np.nan])
True

>>> np.all([[True, True], [False, True]], where=[[True], [False]])
True

>>> o=np.array(False)
>>> z=np.all([-1, 4, 5], out=o)
>>> id(z), id(o), z
(28293632, 28293632, array(True)) # may vary
```

\texttt{numpy.any(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>, *, where=<no value>)}

Test whether any array element along a given axis evaluates to True.

Returns single boolean unless axis is not None.

Parameters

- \texttt{a}
  - [array_like] Input array or object that can be converted to an array.

- \texttt{axis}
  - [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which a logical OR reduction is performed. The default (axis=None) is to perform a logical OR over all the dimensions of the input array. axis may be negative, in which case it counts from the last to the first axis. New in version 1.7.0.

- \texttt{out}
  - [ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output and its type is preserved (e.g., if it is of type float, then it will remain so, returning 1.0 for True and 0.0 for False, regardless of the type of a). See Output type determination for more details.

- \texttt{keepdims}
  - [bool, optional] If this is a tuple of ints, a reduction is performed on multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.
[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

If the default value is passed, then `keepdims` will not be passed through to the `any` method of sub-classes of `ndarray`, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class’ method does not implement `keepdims` any exceptions will be raised.

where

[array_like of bool, optional] Elements to include in checking for any True values. See `reduce` for details.

New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

any

[bool or ndarray] A new boolean or `ndarray` is returned unless `out` is specified, in which case a reference to `out` is returned.

See also:

`ndarray.any` equivalent method

`all`

Test whether all elements along a given axis evaluate to True.

Notes

Not a Number (NaN), positive infinity and negative infinity evaluate to True because these are not equal to zero.

Examples

```python
>>> np.any([[True, False], [True, True]])
True

>>> np.any([[True, False], [False, False]], axis=0)
array([[True, False]])

>>> np.any([-1, 0, 5])
True

>>> np.any(np.nan)
True

>>> np.any([[True, False], [False, False]], where=[[False], [True]])
False
```
```python
>>> o = np.array([False])
>>> z = np.any([-1, 4, 5], out=o)
(array(True), array(True))
>>> # Check now that z is a reference to o
>>> z is o
True
```
NumPyReference, Release 1.21.0

```python
>>> np.isfinite(1)
True
>>> np.isfinite(0)
True
>>> np.isfinite(np.nan)
False
>>> np.isfinite(np.inf)
False
>>> np.isfinite(np.NINF)
False
>>> np.isfinite([np.log(-1.), 1., np.log(0)])
array([False, True, False])
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([-np.inf, 0., np.inf])
>>> y = np.array([2, 2, 2])
>>> np.isfinite(x, y)
array([0, 1, 0])
```

numpy.isinf(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, 
        signature, extobj) = <ufunc 'isinf'>

Test element-wise for positive or negative infinity.

Returns a boolean array of the same shape as x, True where x == +/-inf, otherwise False.

Parameters

- x
  [array_like] Input values

- out
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None,
a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have
eight equal to the number of outputs.

**where**

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the con-
dition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain
its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None,
locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs**

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

y

[bool (scalar) or boolean ndarray] True where x is positive or negative infinity, false otherwise.
This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

**See also:**

isneginf, isposinf, isnan, isfinite

**Notes**

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754).
Errors result if the second argument is supplied when the first argument is a scalar, or if the first and second
arguments have different shapes.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.isinf(np.inf)
True
>>> np.isinf(np.nan)
False
>>> np.isinf(np.NINF)
True
>>> np.isinf([np.inf, -np.inf, 1.0, np.nan])
array([ True,  True, False, False])
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([-np.inf, 0., np.inf])
>>> y = np.array([2, 2, 2])
>>> np.isinf(x, y)
array([1, 0, 1])
>>> y
array([1, 0, 1])
```

```python
numpy.isnan (x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'isnan'>
```

Test element-wise for NaN and return result as a boolean array.

**Parameters**
numpy.isnan(x, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature=None, extobj=None) = <ufunc 'isnan'>
Test element-wise for NaN (not a number) and return result as a boolean array.

New in version 1.13.0.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input array with datetime or timedelta data type.
out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray or bool] True where \(x\) is NaT, false otherwise. This is a scalar if \(x\) is a scalar.

See also:

isnan, isinf, isneginf, isposinf, isnfinite

Examples

```python
>>> np.isnat(np.datetime64("NaT"))
True
>>> np.isnat(np.datetime64("2016-01-01"))
False
>>> np.isnat(np.array(["NaT", "2016-01-01"], dtype="datetime64[ns]")
array([ True, False])
```

numpy.isneginf(\(x, \text{out}=\text{None}\))

Test element-wise for negative infinity, return result as bool array.

Parameters

\(x\)

[array_like] The input array.

\(\text{out}\)

[array_like, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the input broadcasts to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated boolean array is returned.

Returns

\(\text{out}\)

[ndarray] A boolean array with the same dimensions as the input. If second argument is not supplied then a numpy boolean array is returned with values True where the corresponding
element of the input is negative infinity and values False where the element of the input is not negative infinity.

If a second argument is supplied the result is stored there. If the type of that array is a numeric type the result is represented as zeros and ones, if the type is boolean then as False and True. The return value out is then a reference to that array.

See also:

`isinf, isposinf, isnan, isnfinite`

Notes

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754).

Errors result if the second argument is also supplied when x is a scalar input, if first and second arguments have different shapes, or if the first argument has complex values.

Examples

```python
>>> np.isneginf(np.NINF)
True
>>> np.isneginf(np.inf)
False
>>> np.isneginf(np.PINF)
False
>>> np.isneginf([-np.inf, 0., np.inf])
array([ True, False, False])
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([-np.inf, 0., np.inf])
>>> y = np.array([2, 2, 2])
>>> np.isneginf(x, y)
array([1, 0, 0])
>>> y
array([1, 0, 0])
```

def numpy.isposinf(x, out=None)
Test element-wise for positive infinity, return result as bool array.

Parameters

- **x**
  [array_like] The input array.

- **out**
  [array_like, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the input broadcasts to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated boolean array is returned.

Returns

- **out**
  [ndarray] A boolean array with the same dimensions as the input. If second argument is not supplied then a boolean array is returned with values True where the corresponding element
of the input is positive infinity and values False where the element of the input is not positive infinity.

If a second argument is supplied the result is stored there. If the type of that array is a numeric type the result is represented as zeros and ones, if the type is boolean then as False and True. The return value out is then a reference to that array.

See also:

`isinf`, `isneginf`, `isfinite`, `isnan`

Notes

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754).

Errors result if the second argument is also supplied when x is a scalar input, if first and second arguments have different shapes, or if the first argument has complex values.

Examples

```python
>>> np.isposinf(np.PINF)
True
>>> np.isposinf(np.inf)
True
>>> np.isposinf(np.NINF)
False
>>> np.isposinf([-np.inf, 0., np.inf])
array([False, False, True])
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([-np.inf, 0., np.inf])
>>> y = np.array([2, 2, 2])
>>> np.isposinf(x, y)
array([0, 0, 1])
```

```python
>>> y
array([0, 0, 1])
```

4.17.3 Array type testing

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<th>Description</th>
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<td><code>iscomplex(x)</code></td>
<td>Returns a bool array, where True if input element is complex.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>iscomplexobj(x)</code></td>
<td>Check for a complex type or an array of complex numbers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isfortran(a)</code></td>
<td>Check if the array is Fortran contiguous but not C contiguous.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isreal(x)</code></td>
<td>Returns a bool array, where True if input element is real.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isrealobj(x)</code></td>
<td>Return True if x is a not complex type or an array of complex numbers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isscalar(element)</code></td>
<td>Returns True if the type of element is a scalar type.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`numpy.iscomplex(x)`

Returns a bool array, where True if input element is complex.
What is tested is whether the input has a non-zero imaginary part, not if the input type is complex.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input array.

Returns

out

[ndarray of bools] Output array.

See also:

isreal

iscomplexobj

Return True if x is a complex type or an array of complex numbers.

Examples

```python
>>> np.iscomplex([1+1j, 1+0j, 4.5, 3, 2, 2j])
array([ True, False, False, False, False, True])
```

numpy.iscomplexobj(x)

Check for a complex type or an array of complex numbers.

The type of the input is checked, not the value. Even if the input has an imaginary part equal to zero, iscomplexobj evaluates to True.

Parameters

x

[any] The input can be of any type and shape.

Returns

iscomplexobj

[bool] The return value, True if x is of a complex type or has at least one complex element.

See also:

isrealobj, iscomplex
Examples

```python
>>> np.iscomplexobj(1)
False
>>> np.iscomplexobj(1+0j)
True
>>> np.iscomplexobj([3, 1+0j, True])
True
```

**numpy.isfortran(a)**

Check if the array is Fortran contiguous but not C contiguous.

This function is obsolete and, because of changes due to relaxed stride checking, its return value for the same array may differ for versions of NumPy >= 1.10.0 and previous versions. If you only want to check if an array is Fortran contiguous use `a.flags.f_contiguous` instead.

**Parameters**

- `a` ([ndarray]) Input array.

**Returns**

- `isfortran` ([bool]) Returns True if the array is Fortran contiguous but not C contiguous.

**Examples**

`np.array` allows to specify whether the array is written in C-contiguous order (last index varies the fastest), or FORTRAN-contiguous order in memory (first index varies the fastest).

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], order='C')
>>> a
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
>>> np.isfortran(a)
False
```

```python
>>> b = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], order='F')
>>> b
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
>>> np.isfortran(b)
True
```

The transpose of a C-ordered array is a FORTRAN-ordered array.

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]], order='C')
>>> a
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
>>> np.isfortran(a)
False
>>> b = a.T
```

(continues on next page)
```python
>>> b
array([[1, 4],
       [2, 5],
       [3, 6]])
```

C-ordered arrays evaluate as False even if they are also FORTRAN-ordered.

```python
>>> np.isfortran(b)
True
```

numpy.isreal(x)

Returns a bool array, where True if input element is real.

If element has complex type with zero complex part, the return value for that element is True.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  
  [array_like] Input array.

**Returns**

- **out**
  
  [ndarray, bool] Boolean array of same shape as x.

**See also:**

- iscomplex
- isrealobj

Return True if x is not a complex type.

**Notes**

isreal may behave unexpectedly for string or object arrays (see examples)

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([1j+1, 1j, 4.5, 3, 2, 2j], dtype=complex)
>>> np.isreal(a)
array([False, True, True, True, True, False])
```

The function does not work on string arrays.

```python
>>> a = np.array([2j, "a"], dtype="U")
>>> np.isreal(a)  # Warns about non-elementwise comparison
False
```

Returns True for all elements in input array of dtype=object even if any of the elements is complex.
```python
>>> a = np.array([1, "2", 3+4j], dtype=object)
>>> np.isreal(a)
array([True, True, True])
```

isreal should not be used with object arrays

```python
>>> a = np.array([1+2j, 2+1j], dtype=object)
>>> np.isreal(a)
array([True, True])
```

```python
def numpy.isrealobj(x)
    Return True if x is a not complex type or an array of complex numbers.
    
The type of the input is checked, not the value. So even if the input has an imaginary part equal to zero, `isrealobj` evaluates to False if the data type is complex.

Parameters

x

[any] The input can be of any type and shape.

Returns

y

[bool] The return value, False if x is of a complex type.

See also:

`iscomplexobj, isreal`

Notes

The function is only meant for arrays with numerical values but it accepts all other objects. Since it assumes array input, the return value of other objects may be True.

```python
>>> np.isrealobj('A string')
True
>>> np.isrealobj(False)
True
>>> np.isrealobj(None)
True
```

Examples

```python
>>> np.isrealobj(1)
True
>>> np.isrealobj(1+0j)
False
>>> np.isrealobj([3, 1+0j, True])
False
```

```python
def numpy.isscalar(element)
    Returns True if the type of element is a scalar type.
```

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Parameters

 element

 [any] Input argument, can be of any type and shape.

Returns

 val

 [bool] True if element is a scalar type, False if it is not.

See also:

 ndim

 Get the number of dimensions of an array

Notes

If you need a stricter way to identify a numerical scalar, use `isinstance(x, numbers.Number)`, as that returns False for most non-numerical elements such as strings.

In most cases `np.ndim(x) == 0` should be used instead of this function, as that will also return true for 0d arrays. This is how numpy overloads functions in the style of the dx arguments to `gradient` and the bins argument to `histogram`. Some key differences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>x</th>
<th>isscalar(x)</th>
<th>np.ndim(x) == 0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PEP 3141 numeric objects (including builtins)</td>
<td>True</td>
<td>True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>builtin string and buffer objects</td>
<td>True</td>
<td>True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other builtin objects, like <code>pathlib.Path</code>, <code>Exception</code>, the result of <code>re.compile</code></td>
<td>False</td>
<td>True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>third-party objects like <code>matplotlib.figure.Figure</code></td>
<td>False</td>
<td>True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zero-dimensional numpy arrays</td>
<td>False</td>
<td>True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other numpy arrays</td>
<td>False</td>
<td>False</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>list, tuple, and other sequence objects</td>
<td>False</td>
<td>False</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples

```python
>>> np.isscalar(3.1)
True
>>> np.isscalar(np.array(3.1))
False
>>> np.isscalar([3.1])
False
>>> np.isscalar(False)
False
>>> np.isscalar('numpy')
True
```

NumPy supports PEP 3141 numbers:
```python
>>> from fractions import Fraction
>>> np.isscalar(Fraction(5, 17))
True
>>> from numbers import Number
>>> np.isscalar(Number())
True
```

## 4.17.4 Logical operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>logical_and(x1, x2, /[, out, where, ...])</code></td>
<td>Compute the truth value of x1 AND x2 element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>logical_or(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, ...])</code></td>
<td>Compute the truth value of x1 OR x2 element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>logical_not(x[, /[, out, where, casting, ...]])</code></td>
<td>Compute the truth value of NOT x element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>logical_xor(x1, x2[, /[, out, where, ...]])</code></td>
<td>Compute the truth value of x1 XOR x2, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
numpy.logical_and (x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'logical_and'>
```

Compute the truth value of x1 AND x2 element-wise.

### Parameters

- **x1, x2**
  - [array_like] Input arrays. If `x1.shape != x2.shape`, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the `out` array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the `out` array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized `out` array is created via the default `out=None`, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- **kwargs**
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

### Returns

- **y**
  - [ndarray or bool] Boolean result of the logical AND operation applied to the elements of `x1` and `x2`; the shape is determined by broadcasting. This is a scalar if both `x1` and `x2` are scalars.

### See also:

- `logical_or`, `logical_not`, `logical_xor`
- `bitwise_and`
Examples

```python
>>> np.logical_and(True, False)
False
>>> np.logical_and([True, False], [False, False])
array([False, False])
```

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> np.logical_and(x>1, x<4)
array([False, False, True, True, False])
```

The & operator can be used as a shorthand for np.logical_and on boolean ndarrays.

```python
>>> a = np.array([True, False])
>>> b = np.array([False, False])
>>> a & b
array([False, False])
```

numpy.logical_or(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature=None, extobj=None) = <ufunc 'logical_or'>

Compute the truth value of x1 OR x2 element-wise.

Parameters

- **x1, x2**
  [array_like] Logical OR is applied to the elements of x1 and x2. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwargs
  For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

- **y**
  [ndarray or bool] Boolean result of the logical OR operation applied to the elements of x1 and x2; the shape is determined by broadcasting. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

- logical_and, logical_not, logical_xor
- bitwise_or
Examples

```python
>>> np.logical_or(True, False)
True
>>> np.logical_or([True, False], [False, False])
array([ True, False])
```

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> np.logical_or(x < 1, x > 3)
array([ True, False, False, False, True])
```

The `|` operator can be used as a shorthand for `np.logical_or` on boolean ndarrays.

```python
>>> a = np.array([True, False])
>>> b = np.array([False, False])
>>> a | b
array([ True, False])
```

`numpy.logical_not` computes the truth value of NOT `x` element-wise.

```
Parameters

x

[array_like] Logical NOT is applied to the elements of `x`.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the `out` array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the `out` array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized `out` array is created via the default `out=None`, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[bool or ndarray of bool] Boolean result with the same shape as `x` of the NOT operation on elements of `x`. This is a scalar if `x` is a scalar.

See also:

`logical_and`, `logical_or`, `logical_xor`
Examples

```python
>>> np.logical_not(3)
False
>>> np.logical_not([True, False, 0, 1])
array([False,  True,  True, False])
```

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> np.logical_not(x<3)
array([False, False, False, True, True])
```

call to `numpy.logical_xor(x1, x2, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'logical_xor'>`

Compute the truth value of x1 XOR x2, element-wise.

Parameters

- **x1, x2**
  - [array_like] Logical XOR is applied to the elements of x1 and x2. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

- **y**
  - [bool or ndarray of bool] Boolean result of the logical XOR operation applied to the elements of x1 and x2; the shape is determined by broadcasting. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

- `logical_and`, `logical_or`, `logical_not`, `bitwise_xor`
Examples

```python
>>> np.logical_xor(True, False)
True
>>> np.logical_xor([True, True, False, False], [True, False, True, False])
array([False, True, True, False])
```

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> np.logical_xor(x < 1, x > 3)
array([ True, False, False, False, True])
```

Simple example showing support of broadcasting

```python
>>> np.logical_xor(0, np.eye(2))
array([[ True, False],
       [False, True]])
```

4.17.5 Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>allclose(a, b[, rtol, atol, equal_nan])</code></td>
<td>Returns True if two arrays are element-wise equal within a tolerance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isclose(a, b[, rtol, atol, equal_nan])</code></td>
<td>Returns a boolean array where two arrays are element-wise equal within a tolerance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>array_equal(a1, a2[, equal_nan])</code></td>
<td>True if two arrays have the same shape and elements, False otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>array_equiv(a1, a2)</code></td>
<td>Returns True if input arrays are shape consistent and all elements equal.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`numpy.allclose (a, b[, rtol=1e-05, atol=1e-08, equal_nan=False])`

Returns True if two arrays are element-wise equal within a tolerance.

The tolerance values are positive, typically very small numbers. The relative difference ($rtol \times abs(b)$) and the absolute difference $atol$ are added together to compare against the absolute difference between $a$ and $b$.

NaNs are treated as equal if they are in the same place and if equal_nan=True. Infs are treated as equal if they are in the same place and of the same sign in both arrays.

**Parameters**

- **a, b**
  - [array_like] Input arrays to compare.
- **rtol**
  - [float] The relative tolerance parameter (see Notes).
- **atol**
  - [float] The absolute tolerance parameter (see Notes).
- **equal_nan**
  - [bool] Whether to compare NaN’s as equal. If True, NaN’s in $a$ will be considered equal to NaN’s in $b$ in the output array.

New in version 1.10.0.
Returns

```
allclose
```

`[bool] Returns True if the two arrays are equal within the given tolerance; False otherwise.

See also:

```
isclose, all, any, equal
```

Notes

If the following equation is element-wise True, then allclose returns True.

```
absolute(a - b) <= (atol + rtol * absolute(b))
```

The above equation is not symmetric in `a` and `b`, so that `allclose(a, b)` might be different from `allclose(b, a)` in some rare cases.

The comparison of `a` and `b` uses standard broadcasting, which means that `a` and `b` need not have the same shape in order for `allclose(a, b)` to evaluate to True. The same is true for `equal` but not `array_equal`

`allclose` is not defined for non-numeric data types.

Examples

```
>>> np.allclose([1e10, 1e-7], [1.00001e10, 1e-8])
False
>>> np.allclose([1e10, 1e-9], [1.00001e10, 1e-8])
True
>>> np.allclose([1e10, 1e-8], [1.00001e10, 1e-9])
False
>>> np.allclose([1.0, np.nan], [1.0, np.nan])
False
>>> np.allclose([1.0, np.nan], [1.0, np.nan], equal_nan=True)
True
```

```
numpy.isclose(a, b, rtol=1e-05, atol=1e-08, equal_nan=False)
```

Returns a boolean array where two arrays are element-wise equal within a tolerance.

The tolerance values are positive, typically very small numbers. The relative difference (`rtol * abs(b)`) and the absolute difference `atol` are added together to compare against the absolute difference between `a` and `b`.

```
Warning: The default `atol` is not appropriate for comparing numbers that are much smaller than one (see Notes).
```

Parameters

```
a, b

[array_like] Input arrays to compare.
```

```
rtol

[float] The relative tolerance parameter (see Notes).
```
atol

[float] The absolute tolerance parameter (see Notes).

equal_nan

[bool] Whether to compare NaN’s as equal. If True, NaN’s in $a$ will be considered equal to NaN’s in $b$ in the output array.

Returns

$y$

[array_like] Returns a boolean array of where $a$ and $b$ are equal within the given tolerance. If both $a$ and $b$ are scalars, returns a single boolean value.

See also:

allclose
math.isclose

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

For finite values, isclose uses the following equation to test whether two floating point values are equivalent.

$$\text{absolute}(a - b) \leq (atol + rtol \times \text{absolute}(b))$$

Unlike the built-in math.isclose, the above equation is not symmetric in $a$ and $b$ – it assumes $b$ is the reference value – so that isclose($a$, $b$) might be different from isclose($b$, $a$). Furthermore, the default value of atol is not zero, and is used to determine what small values should be considered close to zero. The default value is appropriate for expected values of order unity: if the expected values are significantly smaller than one, it can result in false positives. atol should be carefully selected for the use case at hand. A zero value for atol will result in False if either $a$ or $b$ is zero.

isclose is not defined for non-numeric data types.

Examples

```python
>>> np.isclose([1e10,1e-7], [1.00001e10,1e-8])
array([ True, False])
>>> np.isclose([1e10,1e-8], [1.00001e10,1e-9])
array([ True, True])
>>> np.isclose([1e10,1e-8], [1.0001e10,1e-9])
array([False, True])
>>> np.isclose([1.0, np.nan], [1.0, np.nan])
array([ True, False])
>>> np.isclose([1.0, np.nan], [1.0, np.nan], equal_nan=True)
array([ True, True])
>>> np.isclose([1e-8, 1e-7], [0.0, 0.0])
array([ True, False])
>>> np.isclose([1e-100, 1e-7], [0.0, 0.0], atol=0.0)
array([False, False])
>>> np.isclose([1e-10, 1e-10], [1e-20, 0.0])
array([ True, True])
```
```python
>>> np.isclose([1e-10, 1e-10], [1e-20, 0.999999e-10], atol=0.0)
array([False,  True])
```

```
numpy.array_equal(a1, a2, equal_nan=False)
    True if two arrays have the same shape and elements, False otherwise.

Parameters

    a1, a2
        [array_like] Input arrays.

    equal_nan
        [bool] Whether to compare NaN's as equal. If the dtype of a1 and a2 is complex, values will
        be considered equal if either the real or the imaginary component of a given value is nan.

        New in version 1.19.0.

Returns

    b
        [bool] Returns True if the arrays are equal.

See also:

    allclose
        Returns True if two arrays are element-wise equal within a tolerance.

    array_equiv
        Returns True if input arrays are shape consistent and all elements equal.

Examples

```python
>>> np.array_equal([1, 2], [1, 2])
True
>>> np.array_equal(np.array([1, 2]), np.array([1, 2]))
True
>>> np.array_equal([1, 2], [1, 2, 3])
False
>>> np.array_equal([1, 2], [1, 4])
False
>>> a = np.array([1, np.nan])
>>> np.array_equal(a, a)
False
>>> np.array_equal(a, a, equal_nan=True)
True
```

When `equal_nan` is True, complex values with nan components are considered equal if either the real or the imaginary components are nan.
```python
>>> a = np.array([1 + 1j])
>>> b = a.copy()
>>> a.real = np.nan
>>> b.imag = np.nan
>>> np.array_equal(a, b, equal_nan=True)
True
```

numpy.array_equiv(a1, a2)

Returns True if input arrays are shape consistent and all elements equal.

Shape consistent means they are either the same shape, or one input array can be broadcasted to create the same shape as the other one.

Parameters

a1, a2

[array_like] Input arrays.

Returns

out

[bool] True if equivalent, False otherwise.

Examples

```python
>>> np.array_equiv([1, 2], [1, 2])
True
>>> np.array_equiv([1, 2], [1, 3])
False
```

Showing the shape equivalence:

```python
>>> np.array_equiv([1, 2], [[1, 2], [1, 2]])
True
>>> np.array_equiv([1, 2], [[1, 2, 1, 2], [1, 2, 1, 2]])
False
>>> np.array_equiv([1, 2], [[1, 2], [1, 3]])
False
```

numpy.greater(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, ...])  
Return the truth value of (x1 > x2) element-wise.

Parameters

x1, x2

[ndarray, scalar] Input arrays.

out

[ndarray, None] Array into which the result is placed.  If specified, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to.  If not specified or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned.

where

[bool array] True values in where result is set to True.

casting

[{'same_kind', 'unsafe', 'equiv', 'noconvert', 'strict'}] Data casting rule for numeric array operations.  Default is 'same_kind'.

order

[{'C', 'F', 'A', 'K', 'dna', 'ndn', 'CFA', 'dna'}] Memory order of the result.  Default is 'K'.

dtype

[None] Desired data type (see typecasts) for the operation.  Default is numpy.result_type(x1, x2).

subok

[True] Also new in version 1.15.0.  If False, then the result will be an array with arrays as entries instead of a 1-D array (so for matrices the result will be a matrix, for ndarrays it will be an ndarray).

signature

[None] The desired array signature like "[F]" or "[CF]".  If None, then the default signature is returned.  Default is None.

extobj

[None] Python object used as an extension type for the created arrays.  If None, the default extension type is used.  If subok is False, then extobj is passed to the base class as an extras argument.

```

```
x1, x2

[array_like] Input arrays. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Output array, element-wise comparison of x1 and x2. Typically of type bool, unless dtype=object is passed. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

greater_equal, less, less_equal, equal, not_equal

Examples

```python
>>> np.greater([[4,2],[2,2]])
array([[ True, False]])
```

The > operator can be used as a shorthand for np.greater on ndarrays.

```python
>>> a = np.array([[4, 2]])
>>> b = np.array([[2, 2]])
>>> a > b
array([[ True, False]])
```

code

```python
numpy.greater_equal(x1, x2, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True)
```

Return the truth value of (x1 >= x2) element-wise.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] Input arrays. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).
out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns
out
[bool or ndarray of bool] Output array, element-wise comparison of x1 and x2. Typically of type bool, unless dtype=object is passed. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:
greater, less, less_equal, equal, not_equal

Examples

```python
>>> np.greater_equal([4, 2, 1], [2, 2, 2])
array([ True, True, False])
```

The >= operator can be used as a shorthand for np.greater_equal on ndarrays.

```python
>>> a = np.array([4, 2, 1])
>>> b = np.array([2, 2, 2])
>>> a >= b
array([ True, True, False])
```

`numpy.less` (x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'less'>

Return the truth value of (x1 < x2) element-wise.

Parameters

x1, x2
array_like] Input arrays. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.
where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Output array, element-wise comparison of x1 and x2. Typically of type bool, unless dtype=object is passed. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

greater, less_equal, greater_equal, equal, not_equal

Examples

```python
>>> np.less([1, 2], [2, 2])
array([False, True])
```

The < operator can be used as a shorthand for np.less on ndarrays.

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2])
>>> b = np.array([2, 2])
>>> a < b
array([False, True])
```

numpy.less_equal(x1, x2, *, out=None, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True) = <ufunc 'less_equal'>

Return the truth value of (x1 <= x2) element-wise.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] Input arrays. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.
**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Output array, element-wise comparison of x1 and x2. Typically of type bool, unless dtype=object is passed. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

greater, less, greater_equal, equal, not_equal

Examples

```python
>>> np.less_equal([4, 2, 1], [2, 2, 2])
array([False, True, True])
```

The <= operator can be used as a shorthand for np.less_equal on ndarrays.

```python
>>> a = np.array([4, 2, 1])
>>> b = np.array([2, 2, 2])
>>> a <= b
array([False, True, True])
```

numpy.equal(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'equal'>

Return (x1 == x2) element-wise.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] Input arrays. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns
out

[ndarray or scalar] Output array, element-wise comparison of \(x1\) and \(x2\). Typically of type bool, unless dtype=object is passed. This is a scalar if both \(x1\) and \(x2\) are scalars.

See also:

not_equal, greater_equal, less_equal, greater, less

Examples

```python
>>> np.equal([0, 1, 3], np.arange(3))
array([ True,  True, False])
```

What is compared are values, not types. So an int (1) and an array of length one can evaluate as True:

```python
>>> np.equal(1, np.ones(1))
array([ True])
```

The == operator can be used as a shorthand for np.equal on ndarrays.

```python
>>> a = np.array([2, 4, 6])
>>> b = np.array([2, 4, 2])
>>> a == b
array([ True,  True, False])
```

numpy.not_equal \((x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting=’same_kind’, order=’K’, dtype=None, subok=True)\) = <ufunc ‘not_equal’>

Return \((x1 != x2)\) element-wise.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] Input arrays. If \(x1\.shape \neq x2\.shape\), they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns
out

[ndarray or scalar] Output array, element-wise comparison of x1 and x2. Typically of type bool, unless dtype=object is passed. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

equal, greater, greater_equal, less, less_equal

Examples

```python
>>> np.not_equal([1., 2.], [1., 3.])
array([False, True])
>>> np.not_equal([1, 2], [[1, 3], [1, 4]])
array([[False, True],
       [False, True]])
```

The != operator can be used as a shorthand for np.not_equal on ndarrays.

```python
>>> a = np.array([1., 2.])
>>> b = np.array([1., 3.])
>>> a != b
array([False, True])
```

## 4.18 Mathematical functions

### 4.18.1 Trigonometric functions

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<td>Convert angles from radians to degrees.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
numpy.sin(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'sin'>
```

Trigonometric sine, element-wise.

**Parameters**

- `x`
[array_like] Angle, in radians (2\pi rad equals 360 degrees).

out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y
[array_like] The sine of each element of x. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

arcsin, sinh, cos

Notes

The sine is one of the fundamental functions of trigonometry (the mathematical study of triangles). Consider a circle of radius 1 centered on the origin. A ray comes in from the +x axis, makes an angle at the origin (measured counter-clockwise from that axis), and departs from the origin. The y coordinate of the outgoing ray’s intersection with the unit circle is the sine of that angle. It ranges from -1 for x = 3\pi/2 to +1 for \pi/2. The function has zeroes where the angle is a multiple of \pi. Sines of angles between \pi and 2\pi are negative. The numerous properties of the sine and related functions are included in any standard trigonometry text.

Examples

Print sine of one angle:

```python
>>> np.sin(np.pi/2)
1.0
```

Print sines of an array of angles given in degrees:

```python
>>> np.sin(np.array((0., 30., 45., 60., 90.)) * np.pi / 180.)
array([ 0.        , 0.5        , 0.70710678, 0.8660254 , 1.        ])
```

Plot the sine function:
```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = np.linspace(-np.pi, np.pi, 201)
>>> plt.plot(x, np.sin(x))
>>> plt.xlabel('Angle [rad]')
>>> plt.ylabel('sin(x)')
>>> plt.axis('tight')
>>> plt.show()
```

```python
numpy.cos(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'cos'>
Cosine element-wise.

Parameters

x
[array_like] Input array in radians.

out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns
```
y

[ndarray] The corresponding cosine values. This is a scalar if \( x \) is a scalar.

Notes

If \( out \) is provided, the function writes the result into it, and returns a reference to \( out \). (See Examples)

References


Examples

```python
>>> np.cos(np.array([0, np.pi/2, np.pi]))
array([ 1.00000000e+00, 6.12303177e-17, -1.00000000e+00])

>>> # Example of providing the optional output parameter
>>> out1 = np.array([0], dtype='d')
>>> out2 = np.cos([0.1], out1)
>>> out2 is out1
True

>>> # Example of ValueError due to provision of shape mis-matched `out`
>>> np.cos(np.zeros((3,3)),np.zeros((2,2)))
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: operands could not be broadcast together with shapes (3,3) (2,2)
```

```
numpy.tan(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'tan'>

Compute tangent element-wise.

Equivalent to \( \text{np.sin}(x)/\text{np.cos}(x) \) element-wise.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input array.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the \( out \) array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the \( out \) array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \( out \) array is created via the default \( out=None \), locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

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Returns

\[ y \]

[ndarray] The corresponding tangent values. This is a scalar if \( x \) is a scalar.

Notes

If \( out \) is provided, the function writes the result into it, and returns a reference to \( out \). (See Examples)

References


Examples

```python
>>> from math import pi
>>> np.tan(np.array([-pi,pi/2,pi]))
array([-1.22460635e-16, 1.63317787e+16, -1.22460635e-16])
>>> # Example of providing the optional output parameter illustrating
>>> # that what is returned is a reference to said parameter
>>> out1 = np.array([0], dtype='d')
>>> out2 = np.cos([0.1], out1)
>>> out2 is out1
True
>>> # Example of ValueError due to provision of shape mis-matched 'out'
>>> np.cos(np.zeros((3,3)),np.zeros((2,2)))
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: operands could not be broadcast together with shapes (3,3) (2,2)
```

**numpy.arcsin** (\( x, \), \( out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True [signature, extobj] \) = <ufunc 'arcsin'>

Inverse sine, element-wise.

Parameters

\[ x \]

[array_like] y-coordinate on the unit circle.

\[ out \]

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

\[ where \]

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the \( out \) array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the \( out \) array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \( out \) array is created via the default \( out=None \), locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.
**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

angle

[ndarray] The inverse sine of each element in x, in radians and in the closed interval \([-\pi/2, \pi/2]\). This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

\(\sin\), \(\cos\), \(\arccos\), \(\tan\), \(\arctan\), \(\arctan2\), emath.arcsin

Notes

arcsin is a multivalued function: for each \(x\) there are infinitely many numbers \(z\) such that \(\sin(z) = x\). The convention is to return the angle \(z\) whose real part lies in \([-\pi/2, \pi/2]\).

For real-valued input data types, arcsin always returns real output. For each value that cannot be expressed as a real number or infinity, it yields nan and sets the invalid floating point error flag.

For complex-valued input, arcsin is a complex analytic function that has, by convention, the branch cuts \([-\infty, -1]\) and \([1, \infty]\) and is continuous from above on the former and from below on the latter.

The inverse sine is also known as \(asin\) or \(\sin^{-1}\).

References


Examples

```python
>>> np.arcsin(1)  # pi/2
1.5707963267948966
>>> np.arcsin(-1)  # -pi/2
-1.5707963267948966
>>> np.arcsin(0)
0.0
```

numpy.arccos (x[, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]]) = <ufunc 'arccos'>

Trigonometric inverse cosine, element-wise.

The inverse of \(\cos\) so that, if \(y = \cos(x)\), then \(x = \arccos(y)\).

Parameters

- \(x\) [array_like] x-coordinate on the unit circle. For real arguments, the domain is [-1, 1].
out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

angle

[ndarray] The angle of the ray intersecting the unit circle at the given x-coordinate in radians [0, pi]. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

cos, arctan, arcsin, emath.arccos

Notes

arccos is a multivalued function: for each x there are infinitely many numbers z such that \( \cos(z) = x \). The convention is to return the angle z whose real part lies in [0, pi].

For real-valued input data types, arccos always returns real output. For each value that cannot be expressed as a real number or infinity, it yields nan and sets the invalid floating point error flag.

For complex-valued input, arccos is a complex analytic function that has branch cuts [-inf, -1] and [1, inf] and is continuous from above on the former and from below on the latter.

The inverse cos is also known as acos or cos^-1.

References

Examples

We expect the arccos of 1 to be 0, and of -1 to be pi:

```python
>>> np.arccos([1, -1])
array([0. , 3.14159265])
```

Plot arccos:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = np.linspace(-1, 1, num=100)
>>> plt.plot(x, np.arccos(x))
>>> plt.axis('tight')
>>> plt.show()
```

![Plot of arccos function](image)

```
numpy.arctan(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'arctan'>
```

Trigonometric inverse tangent, element-wise.

The inverse of tan, so that if $y = \tan(x)$ then $x = \arctan(y)$.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  - [array_like]

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain
its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \texttt{out} array is created via the default \texttt{out=None}, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the \textit{ufunc docs}.

\textbf{Returns}

\texttt{out}

[ndarray or scalar] Out has the same shape as \texttt{x}. Its real part is in \([-\pi/2, \pi/2]\) (arctan(+/-inf) returns +/-\pi/2). This is a scalar if \texttt{x} is a scalar.

\textbf{See also:}

arctan2

The “four quadrant” arctan of the angle formed by \((x, y)\) and the positive \(x\)-axis.

angle

Argument of complex values.

\textbf{Notes}

\texttt{arctan} is a multi-valued function: for each \(x\) there are infinitely many numbers \(z\) such that \(\tan(z) = x\). The convention is to return the angle \(z\) whose real part lies in \([-\pi/2, \pi/2]\).

For real-valued input data types, \texttt{arctan} always returns real output. For each value that cannot be expressed as a real number or infinity, it yields \texttt{nan} and sets the \texttt{invalid} floating point error flag.

For complex-valued input, \texttt{arctan} is a complex analytic function that has \([1j, \inf j]\) and \([-1j, -\inf j]\) as branch cuts, and is continuous from the left on the former and from the right on the latter.

The inverse tangent is also known as \texttt{atan} or \texttt{tan^{-1}}.

\textbf{References}


\textbf{Examples}

We expect the arctan of 0 to be 0, and of 1 to be \(\pi/4\):

\begin{verbatim}
>>> np.arctan([0, 1])
array([ 0. , 0.78539816])

>>> np.pi/4
0.78539816339744828
\end{verbatim}

Plot arctan:
```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = np.linspace(-10, 10)
>>> plt.plot(x, np.arctan(x))
>>> plt.axis('tight')
>>> plt.show()
```

```python
numpy.hypot(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature=None, extobj=None) = <ufunc 'hypot'>
```

Given the “legs” of a right triangle, return its hypotenuse.

Equivalent to sqrt(x1**2 + x2**2), element-wise. If x1 or x2 is scalar_like (i.e., unambiguously cast-able to a scalar type), it is broadcast for use with each element of the other argument. (See Examples)

**Parameters**

- **x1, x2**

  [array_like] Leg of the triangle(s). If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**

  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**

  [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwargs

  For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

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The hypotenuse of the triangle(s). This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

Examples

```python
>>> np.hypot(3*np.ones((3, 3)), 4*np.ones((3, 3)))
array([[ 5.,  5.,  5.],
       [ 5.,  5.,  5.],
       [ 5.,  5.,  5.]])
```

Example showing broadcast of scalar_like argument:

```python
>>> np.hypot(3*np.ones((3, 3)), [4])
array([[ 5.,  5.,  5.],
       [ 5.,  5.,  5.],
       [ 5.,  5.,  5.]])
```

numpy.arctan2 (x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting=‘same_kind’, order=‘K’, dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc ‘arctan2’>

Element-wise arctangent of \( \frac{x1}{x2} \) choosing the quadrant correctly.

The quadrant (i.e., branch) is chosen so that \( \arctan2(x1, x2) \) is the signed angle in radians between the ray ending at the origin and passing through the point \((1,0)\), and the ray ending at the origin and passing through the point \((x2,x1)\). (Note the role reversal: the “y-coordinate” is the first function parameter, the “x-coordinate” is the second.) By IEEE convention, this function is defined for \( x2 = +/-0 \) and for either or both of \( x1 \) and \( x2 = +/-\infty \) (see Notes for specific values).

This function is not defined for complex-valued arguments; for the so-called argument of complex values, use \( \text{angle} \).

Parameters

- **x1**
  [array_like, real-valued] y-coordinates.

- **x2**
  [array_like, real-valued] x-coordinates. If \( x1.shape \neq x2.shape \), they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwarg**
  For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.
Returns

angle

[array] Array of angles in radians, in the range [-pi, pi]. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

arctan, tan, angle

Notes

arctan2 is identical to the atan2 function of the underlying C library. The following special values are defined in the C standard: [1]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>x1</th>
<th>x2</th>
<th>arctan2(x1, x2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+/- 0</td>
<td>+0</td>
<td>+/- 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- 0</td>
<td>-0</td>
<td>+/- pi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 0</td>
<td>+/- inf</td>
<td>+0 / +pi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 0</td>
<td>+/- inf</td>
<td>-0 / -pi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- inf</td>
<td>+inf</td>
<td>+/- (pi/4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- inf</td>
<td>-inf</td>
<td>+/- (3*pi/4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that +0 and -0 are distinct floating point numbers, as are +inf and -inf.

References

[1]

Examples

Consider four points in different quadrants:

```python
>>> x = np.array([-1, +1, +1, -1])
>>> y = np.array([-1, -1, +1, +1])
>>> np.arctan2(y, x) * 180 / np.pi
array([-135., -45., 45., 135.])
```

Note the order of the parameters. arctan2 is defined also when x2 = 0 and at several other special points, obtaining values in the range [-pi, pi]:

```python
>>> np.arctan2([1, -1], [0, 0])
array([ 1.57079633, -1.57079633])
```

Convert angles from radians to degrees.

Parameters
```python
x

[array_like] Input array in radians.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is
stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None,
a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have
length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the con-
dition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain
its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None,
locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray of floats] The corresponding degree values; if out was supplied this is a reference to
it. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

```
out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y
[ndarray] The corresponding radian values. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:
deg2rad
equivalent function

Examples
Convert a degree array to radians

```python
>>> deg = np.arange(12.)*30.
>>> np.radians(deg)
array([ 0. , 0.52359878, 1.04719755, 1.57079633, 2.0943951 , 2.61799388,
       3.14159265, 3.66519143, 4.1887902 , 4.71238898, 5.23598776, 5.75958653])
```

```python
>>> out = np.zeros((deg.shape))
>>> ret = np.radians(deg, out)
>>> ret is out
True
```

numpy.unwrap(p, discont=None, axis=-1, *, period=6.283185307179586)

Unwrap by taking the complement of large deltas with respect to the period.

This unwraps a signal p by changing elements which have an absolute difference from their predecessor of more than max(discont, period/2) to their period-complementary values.

For the default case where period is 2π and is discont is π, this unwraps a radian phase p such that adjacent differences are never greater than π by adding 2kπ for some integer k.

Parameters

p
[array_like] Input array.
discont

[float, optional] Maximum discontinuity between values, default is \( \text{period}/2 \). Values below \( \text{period}/2 \) are treated as if they were \( \text{period}/2 \). To have an effect different from the default, \( \text{discont} \) should be larger than \( \text{period}/2 \).

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which unwrap will operate, default is the last axis.

period: float, optional

Size of the range over which the input wraps. By default, it is \( 2 \pi \).

New in version 1.21.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Output array.

See also:

\text{rad2deg}, \text{deg2rad}

Notes

If the discontinuity in \( p \) is smaller than \( \text{period}/2 \), but larger than \( \text{discont} \), no unwrapping is done because taking the complement would only make the discontinuity larger.

Examples

\begin{verbatim}
>>> phase = np.linspace(0, np.pi, num=5)
>>> phase[3:] += np.pi
>>> phase
array([ 0.        ,  0.78539816,  1.57079633,  5.49778714,  6.28318531]) # may vary
>>> np.unwrap(phase)
array([ 0.        ,  0.78539816,  1.57079633, -0.78539816,  0.        ]) # may vary
>>> np.unwrap([0, 1, 2, -1, 0], period=4)
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> np.unwrap([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 1, 2, 3], period=6)
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
>>> np.unwrap([2, 3, 4, 5, 2, 3, 4, 5], period=4)
array([2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
>>> phase_deg = np.mod(np.linspace(0, 720, 19), 360) - 180
>>> np.unwrap(phase_deg, period=360)
\end{verbatim}

\text{numpy.\text{deg2rad}}(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'deg2rad'>

Convert angles from degrees to radians.

Parameters
deg2rad(x)

Convert angles from radians to degrees.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Angle in radians.

Returns

y

[ndarray] The corresponding angle in radians. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

* rad2deg
  Convert angles from radians to degrees.
  *

*numpy.rad2deg*

Convert angles from radians to degrees.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Angle in radians.
out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] The corresponding angle in degrees. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

deg2rad

Convert angles from degrees to radians.

unwrap

Remove large jumps in angle by wrapping.

Notes

New in version 1.3.0.

rad2deg(x) is \(180 \times x / \pi\).

Examples

```python
>>> np.rad2deg(np.pi/2)
90.0
```

4.18.2 Hyperbolic functions

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<td>Hyperbolic sine, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
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<td>cosh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Hyperbolic cosine, element-wise.</td>
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<td>tanh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
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<td>arcsinh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
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<td>arccosh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Inverse hyperbolic cosine, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arctanh(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Inverse hyperbolic tangent element-wise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
numpy.sinh(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'sinh'>

Hyperbolic sine, element-wise.

Equivalent to 1/2 * (np.exp(x) - np.exp(-x)) or -1j * np.sin(1j*x).

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input array.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] The corresponding hyperbolic sine values. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

Notes

If out is provided, the function writes the result into it, and returns a reference to out. (See Examples)

References


Examples

```python
>>> np.sinh(0)
0.0
>>> np.sinh(np.pi*1j/2)
1j
>>> np.sinh(np.pi*1j)  # (exact value is 0)
1.2246063538223773e-016j
>>> # Discrepancy due to vagaries of floating point arithmetic.
```
>>> # Example of providing the optional output parameter
>>> out1 = np.array([0], dtype='d')
>>> out2 = np.sinh([0.1], out1)
>>> out2 is out1
True

>>> # Example of ValueError due to provision of shape mis-matched 'out'
>>> np.sinh(np.zeros((3,3)),np.zeros((2,2)))
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: operands could not be broadcast together with shapes (3,3) (2,2)

numpy.cosh(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'cosh'>

Hyperbolic cosine, element-wise.

Equivalent to 1/2 * (np.exp(x) + np.exp(-x)) and np.cos(1j*x).

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input array.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Output array of same shape as x. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

Examples

>>> np.cosh(0)
1.0

The hyperbolic cosine describes the shape of a hanging cable:
```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = np.linspace(-4, 4, 1000)
>>> plt.plot(x, np.cosh(x))
>>> plt.show()
```

```
numpy.tanh(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'tanh'>

Compute hyperbolic tangent element-wise.

Equivalent to np.sinh(x)/np.cosh(x) or -1j * np.tan(1j*x).

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input array.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y
```

4.18. Mathematical functions
The corresponding hyperbolic tangent values. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

Notes

If out is provided, the function writes the result into it, and returns a reference to out. (See Examples)

References

[1], [2]

Examples

```python
>>> np.tanh((0, np.pi*1j, np.pi*1j/2))
array([ 0. +0.00000000e+00j, 0. -1.22460635e-16j, 0. +1.63317787e+16j])

>>> # Example of providing the optional output parameter illustrating
>>> # that what is returned is a reference to said parameter
>>> out1 = np.array([0], dtype='d')
>>> out2 = np.tanh([0.1], out1)
>>> out2 is out1
True

>>> # Example of ValueError due to provision of shape mis-matched 'out'
>>> np.tanh(np.zeros((3,3)),np.zeros((2,2)))
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: operands could not be broadcast together with shapes (3,3) (2,2)
```

numpy.arcsinh(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'arcsinh'>

Inverse hyperbolic sine element-wise.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input array.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.
Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Array of the same shape as \( x \). This is a scalar if \( x \) is a scalar.

Notes

\texttt{arcsinh} is a multivalued function: for each \( x \) there are infinitely many numbers \( z \) such that \( \sinh(z) = x \). The convention is to return the \( z \) whose imaginary part lies in \([-\pi/2, \pi/2]\).

For real-valued input data types, \texttt{arcsinh} always returns real output. For each value that cannot be expressed as a real number or infinity, it returns \texttt{nan} and sets the \texttt{invalid} floating point error flag.

For complex-valued input, \texttt{arccos} is a complex analytical function that has branch cuts \([1j, \infty j]\) and \([-1j, -\infty j]\) and is continuous from the right on the former and from the left on the latter.

The inverse hyperbolic sine is also known as \texttt{asinh} or \texttt{sinh\(^{-1}\)}.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

```python
>>> np.arcsinh(np.array([np.e, 10.0]))
array([ 1.72538256, 2.99822295])
```

\texttt{numpy.arccosh}(x, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = \texttt{ufunc 'arccosh'}

Inverse hyperbolic cosine, element-wise.

Parameters

\( x \)

[array_like] Input array.

\texttt{out}

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

\texttt{where}

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the \texttt{out} array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the \texttt{out} array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \texttt{out} array is created via the default \texttt{out=None}, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**\texttt{**kw\texttt{args}}

For other keyword-only arguments, see the \texttt{ufunc docs}.

Returns
arccosh

[ndarray] Array of the same shape as x. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

cosh, arcsinh, sinh, arctanh, tanh

Notes

arccosh is a multivalued function: for each x there are infinitely many numbers z such that cosh(z) = x. The convention is to return the z whose imaginary part lies in [-pi, pi] and the real part in [0, inf].

For real-valued input data types, arccosh always returns real output. For each value that cannot be expressed as a real number or infinity, it yields nan and sets the invalid floating point error flag.

For complex-valued input, arccosh is a complex analytical function that has a branch cut [-inf, 1] and is continuous from above on it.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

```python
>>> np.arccosh([np.e, 10.0])
array([1.65745445, 2.99322285])
>>> np.arccosh(1)
0.0
```

numpy.arctanh(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'arctanh'>

Inverse hyperbolic tangent element-wise.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input array.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.
Returns

```
out
```

[ndarray or scalar] Array of the same shape as x. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

```
emath.arctanh
```

Notes

arctanh is a multivalued function: for each x there are infinitely many numbers z such that \( \tanh(z) = x \). The convention is to return the z whose imaginary part lies in \([-\pi/2, \pi/2]\).

For real-valued input data types, arctanh always returns real output. For each value that cannot be expressed as a real number or infinity, it yields \( \text{nan} \) and sets the invalid floating point error flag.

For complex-valued input, arctanh is a complex analytical function that has branch cuts \([-1, -\infty]\) and \([1, \infty]\) and is continuous from above on the former and from below on the latter.

The inverse hyperbolic tangent is also known as atanh or \( \tanh^{-1} \).

References

[1], [2]

Examples

```
>>> np.arctanh([0, -0.5])
array([ 0. , -0.54930614])
```

4.18.3 Rounding

<table>
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<td>around(a[, decimals, out])</td>
<td>Evenly round to the given number of decimals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>round_(a[, decimals, out])</td>
<td>Round an array to the given number of decimals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rint(x, [out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Round elements of the array to the nearest integer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fix(x[, out])</td>
<td>Round to nearest integer towards zero.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floor(x, [out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Return the floor of the input, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ceil(x, [out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Return the ceiling of the input, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trunc(x, [out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Return the truncated value of the input, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```
numpy.around (a, decimals=0, out=None)
```

Evenly round to the given number of decimals.

Parameters

```
a
```

[array_like] Input data.

```
decimals
```

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[int, optional] Number of decimal places to round to (default: 0). If decimals is negative, it specifies the number of positions to the left of the decimal point.

out

[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type of the output values will be cast if necessary. See Output type determination for more details.

Returns

rounded_array

[ndarray] An array of the same type as a, containing the rounded values. Unless out was specified, a new array is created. A reference to the result is returned.

The real and imaginary parts of complex numbers are rounded separately. The result of rounding a float is a float.

See also:

ndarray.round
equivalent method
ceil, fix, floor, rint, trunc

Notes

For values exactly halfway between rounded decimal values, NumPy rounds to the nearest even value. Thus 1.5 and 2.5 round to 2.0, -0.5 and 0.5 round to 0.0, etc.

np.around uses a fast but sometimes inexact algorithm to round floating-point datatypes. For positive decimals it is equivalent to np.true_divide(np.rint(a * 10**decimals), 10**decimals), which has error due to the inexact representation of decimal fractions in the IEEE floating point standard [1] and errors introduced when scaling by powers of ten. For instance, note the extra “1” in the following:

```python
>>> np.round(56294995342131.5, 3)
56294995342131.51
```

If your goal is to print such values with a fixed number of decimals, it is preferable to use numpy’s float printing routines to limit the number of printed decimals:

```python
>>> np.format_float_positional(56294995342131.5, precision=3)
'56294995342131.5'
```

The float printing routines use an accurate but much more computationally demanding algorithm to compute the number of digits after the decimal point.

Alternatively, Python’s builtin `round` function uses a more accurate but slower algorithm for 64-bit floating point values:

```python
>>> round(56294995342131.5, 3)
56294995342131.5
>>> np.round(16.055, 2), round(16.055, 2)  # equals 16.0549999999999997
(16.06, 16.05)
```
References

[1],[2]

Examples

```python
>>> np.around([0.37, 1.64])
array([0., 2.])
>>> np.around([0.37, 1.64], decimals=1)
array([0.4, 1.6])
>>> np.around([1.5, 2.5, 3.5, 4.5])  # rounds to nearest even value
array([2, 2, 4, 4])
>>> np.around([1, 2, 3, 11], decimals=1)  # ndarray of ints is returned
array([ 1, 2, 3, 11])
>>> np.around([1, 2, 3, 11], decimals=-1)
array([ 0, 0, 0, 10])
```

numpy.round_(a, decimals=0, out=None)
Round an array to the given number of decimals.

See also:

around
equivalent function; see for details.

numpy.rint(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True,
signature, extobj) = <ufunc 'rint'>
Round elements of the array to the nearest integer.

Parameters

x
[array_like] Input array.

out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out
[ndarray or scalar] Output array is same shape and type as x. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.
See also:

*fix*, *ceil*, *floor*, *trunc*

Notes

For values exactly halfway between rounded decimal values, NumPy rounds to the nearest even value. Thus 1.5 and 2.5 round to 2.0, -0.5 and 0.5 round to 0.0, etc.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([-1.7, -1.5, -0.2, 0.2, 1.5, 1.7, 2.0])
>>> np.rint(a)
array([-2., -2., -0., 0., 2., 2., 2.])
```

**numpy.fix(x, out=None)**

Round to nearest integer towards zero.

Round an array of floats element-wise to nearest integer towards zero. The rounded values are returned as floats.

Parameters

- `x`  
  [array_like] An array of floats to be rounded

- `out`  
  [ndarray, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the input broadcasts to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned.

Returns

- `out`  
  [ndarray of floats] A float array with the same dimensions as the input. If second argument is not supplied then a float array is returned with the rounded values.

  If a second argument is supplied the result is stored there. The return value `out` is then a reference to that array.

See also:

*rint*, *trunc*, *floor*, *ceil*

**around**

Round to given number of decimals
Examples

```python
>>> np.fix(3.14)
3.0
>>> np.fix(3)
3.0
>>> np.fix([2.1, 2.9, -2.1, -2.9])
array([ 2., 2., -2., -2.])
```

`numpy.floor(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj ] = <ufunc 'floor'>

Return the floor of the input, element-wise.

The floor of the scalar \( x \) is the largest integer \( i \), such that \( i \leq x \). It is often denoted as \( \lfloor x \rfloor \).

Parameters

- **x**
  - [array_like] Input data.
- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.
- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.
- **kwargs**
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

- **y**
  - [ndarray or scalar] The floor of each element in \( x \). This is a scalar if \( x \) is a scalar.

See also:

- `ceil`, `trunc`, `rint`, `fix`
Notes

Some spreadsheet programs calculate the “floor-towards-zero”, where \( \text{floor}(-2.5) == -2 \). NumPy instead uses the definition of \( \text{floor} \) where \( \text{floor}(-2.5) == -3 \). The “floor-towards-zero” function is called \text{fix} in NumPy.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([-1.7, -1.5, -0.2, 0.2, 1.5, 1.7, 2.0])
>>> np.floor(a)
anarray([-2., -2., -1.,  0.,  1.,  1.,  2.])
```

numpy.\texttt{ceil}(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting=’same_kind’, order=’K’, dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc ’ceil’>

Return the ceiling of the input, element-wise.

The ceiling of the scalar \( x \) is the smallest integer \( i \), such that \( i \geq x \). It is often denoted as \( \lceil x \rceil \).

Parameters

- \( x \)
  - [array_like] Input data.
- \( \text{out} \)
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.
- \( \text{where} \)
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the \text{out} array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the \text{out} array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \text{out} array is created via the default \text{out}=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.
- **\text{kwargs}**
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the \text{ufunc docs}.

Returns

- \( y \)
  - [ndarray or scalar] The ceiling of each element in \( x \), with \text{float} dtype. This is a scalar if \( x \) is a scalar.

See also:

- \text{floor}, \text{trunc}, \text{rint}, \text{fix}
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([-1.7, -1.5, -0.2, 0.2, 1.5, 1.7, 2.0])
>>> np.ceil(a)
array([-1., -1., -0., 1., 2., 2., 2.])
```

```
numpy.trunc(x, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, **kwargs)
```

Return the truncated value of the input, element-wise.

The truncated value of the scalar \( x \) is the nearest integer \( i \) which is closer to zero than \( x \) is. In short, the fractional part of the signed number \( x \) is discarded.

**Parameters**

- \( x \) [array_like] Input data.

- \( out \) [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- \( where \) [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the \( out \) array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the \( out \) array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \( out \) array is created via the default \( out=None \), locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- **kwargs
  For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- \( y \) [ndarray or scalar] The truncated value of each element in \( x \). This is a scalar if \( x \) is a scalar.

**See also:**

- `ceil`, `floor`, `rint`, `fix`

**Notes**

New in version 1.3.0.
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([-1.7, -1.5, -0.2, 0.2, 1.5, 1.7, 2.0])
>>> np.trunc(a)
array([-1., -1., -0., 0., 1., 1., 2.])
```

4.18.4 Sums, products, differences

- `prod(a[, axis, dtype, out, keepdims, ...])`: Return the product of array elements over a given axis.
- `sum(a[, axis, dtype, out, keepdims, ...])`: Sum of array elements over a given axis.
- `nansum(a[, axis, dtype, out, keepdims])`: Return the sum of array elements over a given axis treating Not a Numbers (NaNs) as ones.
- `cumprod(a[, axis, dtype, out])`: Return the cumulative product of elements along a given axis.
- `cumsum(a[, axis, dtype, out])`: Return the cumulative sum of the elements along a given axis.
- `nancumprod(a[, axis, dtype, out])`: Return the cumulative product of array elements over a given axis treating Not a Numbers (NaNs) as one.
- `nancumsum(a[, axis, dtype, out])`: Return the cumulative sum of array elements over a given axis treating Not a Numbers (NaNs) as zero.
- `diff(a[, n, axis, prepend, append])`: Calculate the n-th discrete difference along the given axis.
- `ediff1d(ary[, to_end, to_begin])`: The differences between consecutive elements of an array.
- `gradient(f, *varargs[, axis, edge_order])`: Return the gradient of an N-dimensional array.
- `cross(a, b[, axisa, axisb, axisc, axis])`: Return the cross product of two (arrays of) vectors.
- `trapz(y[, x, dx, axis])`: Integrate along the given axis using the composite trapezoidal rule.

```python
numpy.prod (a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>, initial=<no value>, where=<no value>)
```

Return the product of array elements over a given axis.

Parameters

- `a` [array_like] Input data.
- `axis` [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which a product is performed. The default, axis=None, will calculate the product of all the elements in the input array. If axis is negative it counts from the last to the first axis.
- `dtype` [dtypes, optional] The type of the returned array, as well as of the accumulator in which the elements are multiplied. The dtype of `a` is used by default unless `a` has an integer dtypes of less precision than the default platform integer. In that case, if `a` is signed then the platform integer...
is used while if $a$ is unsigned then an unsigned integer of the same precision as the platform integer is used.

**out**

[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type of the output values will be cast if necessary.

**keepdims**

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

If the default value is passed, then keepdims will not be passed through to the prod method of sub-classes of ndarray, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class’ method does not implement keepdims any exceptions will be raised.

**initial**

[scalar, optional] The starting value for this product. See reduce for details.

New in version 1.15.0.

**where**

[array_like of bool, optional] Elements to include in the product. See reduce for details.

New in version 1.17.0.

**Returns**

**product_along_axis**

[ndarray, see dtype parameter above.] An array shaped as $a$ but with the specified axis removed. Returns a reference to out if specified.

**See also:**

**ndarray.prod**

equivalent method

**Output type determination**

**Notes**

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow. That means that, on a 32-bit platform:

```python
>>> x = np.array([536870910, 536870910, 536870910, 536870910])
>>> np.prod(x)
16 # may vary
```

The product of an empty array is the neutral element 1:

```python
>>> np.prod([])
1.0
```
Examples

By default, calculate the product of all elements:

```python
>>> np.prod([1., 2.])
2.0
```

Even when the input array is two-dimensional:

```python
>>> np.prod([[1., 2.],[3., 4.]])
24.0
```

But we can also specify the axis over which to multiply:

```python
>>> np.prod([[1., 2.],[3., 4.]], axis=1)
array([ 2., 12.])
```

Or select specific elements to include:

```python
>>> np.prod([1., np.nan, 3.], where=[True, False, True])
3.0
```

If the type of `x` is unsigned, then the output type is the unsigned platform integer:

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.uint8)
>>> np.prod(x).dtype == np.uint
True
```

If `x` is of a signed integer type, then the output type is the default platform integer:

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=np.int8)
>>> np.prod(x).dtype == int
True
```

You can also start the product with a value other than one:

```python
>>> np.prod([1, 2], initial=5)
10
```

**numpy.sum(a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>, initial=<no value>, where=<no value>)**

Sum of array elements over a given axis.

**Parameters**

- `a`
    - [array_like] Elements to sum.

- `axis`
    - [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which a sum is performed. The default, axis=None, will sum all of the elements of the input array. If axis is negative it counts from the last to the first axis.
    
    New in version 1.7.0.

    If axis is a tuple of ints, a sum is performed on all of the axes specified in the tuple instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.
**dtype**

[dttype, optional] The type of the returned array and of the accumulator in which the elements are summed. The dtype of a is used by default unless a has an integer dtype of less precision than the default platform integer. In that case, if a is signed then the platform integer is used while if a is unsigned then an unsigned integer of the same precision as the platform integer is used.

**out**

[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type of the output values will be cast if necessary.

**keepdims**

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

If the default value is passed, then keepdims will not be passed through to the sum method of sub-classes of ndarray, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class' method does not implement keepdims any exceptions will be raised.

**initial**

[scalar, optional] Starting value for the sum. See reduce for details.

New in version 1.15.0.

**where**

[array_like of bool, optional] Elements to include in the sum. See reduce for details.

New in version 1.17.0.

**Returns**

**sum_along_axis**

[ndarray] An array with the same shape as a, with the specified axis removed. If a is a 0-d array, or if axis is None, a scalar is returned. If an output array is specified, a reference to out is returned.

**See also:**

**ndarray.sum**

Equivalent method.

**add.reduce**

Equivalent functionality of add.

**cumsum**

Cumulative sum of array elements.

**trapz**

Integration of array values using the composite trapezoidal rule.

**mean, average**
Notes

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow.

The sum of an empty array is the neutral element 0:

```python
>>> np.sum([])
0.0
```

For floating point numbers the numerical precision of `sum` (and `np.add.reduce`) is in general limited by directly adding each number individually to the result causing rounding errors in every step. However, often numpy will use a numerically better approach (partial pairwise summation) leading to improved precision in many use-cases. This improved precision is always provided when `no axis` is given. When `axis` is given, it will depend on which axis is summed. Technically, to provide the best speed possible, the improved precision is only used when the summation is along the fast axis in memory. Note that the exact precision may vary depending on other parameters. In contrast to NumPy, Python’s `math.fsum` function uses a slower but more precise approach to summation. Especially when summing a large number of lower precision floating point numbers, such as `float32`, numerical errors can become significant. In such cases it can be advisable to use `dtype=’float64’` to use a higher precision for the output.

Examples

```python
>>> np.sum([0.5, 1.5])
2.0
>>> np.sum([0.5, 0.7, 0.2, 1.5], dtype=np.int32)
1
>>> np.sum([[0, 1], [0, 5]])
6
>>> np.sum([[0, 1], [0, 5]], axis=0)
array([0, 6])
>>> np.sum([[0, 1], [0, 5]], axis=1)
array([1, 5])
```

If the accumulator is too small, overflow occurs:

```python
>>> np.ones(128, dtype=np.int8).sum(dtype=np.int8)
-128
```

You can also start the sum with a value other than zero:

```python
>>> np.sum([10], initial=5)
15
```

`numpy.nanprod(a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)`

Return the product of array elements over a given axis treating Not a Numbers (NaNs) as ones.

One is returned for slices that are all-NaN or empty.

New in version 1.10.0.

Parameters

- `a`

  [array_like] Array containing numbers whose product is desired. If `a` is not an array, a conversion is attempted.
axis

[(int, tuple of int, None), optional] Axis or axes along which the product is computed. The default is to compute the product of the flattened array.

dtype

[data-type, optional] The type of the returned array and of the accumulator in which the elements are summed. By default, the dtype of \( a \) is used. An exception is when \( a \) has an integer type with less precision than the platform \((u)\text{intp}\). In that case, the default will be either \((u)\text{int32}\) or \((u)\text{int64}\) depending on whether the platform is 32 or 64 bits. For inexact inputs, dtype must be inexact.

out

[ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. The default is None. If provided, it must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type will be cast if necessary. See Output type determination for more details. The casting of NaN to integer can yield unexpected results.

keepdims

[bool, optional] If True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original \( arr \).

Returns

nanprod

[ndarray] A new array holding the result is returned unless \( out \) is specified, in which case it is returned.

See also:

numpy.prod

Product across array propagating NaNs.

isnan

Show which elements are NaN.

Examples

```python
>>> np.nanprod(1)
1
>>> np.nanprod([1])
1
>>> np.nanprod([1, np.nan])
1.0
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, np.nan]])
>>> np.nanprod(a)
6.0
>>> np.nanprod(a, axis=0)
array([3., 2.])
```

4.18. Mathematical functions
Parameters

a

[array_like] Array containing numbers whose sum is desired. If a is not an array, a conversion is attempted.

axis

[[int, tuple of int, None], optional] Axis or axes along which the sum is computed. The default is to compute the sum of the flattened array.

dtype

[data-type, optional] The type of the returned array and of the accumulator in which the elements are summed. By default, the dtype of a is used. An exception is when a has an integer type with less precision than the platform (u)intp. In that case, the default will be either (u)int32 or (u)int64 depending on whether the platform is 32 or 64 bits. For inexact inputs, dtype must be inexact.

New in version 1.8.0.

out

[ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. The default is None. If provided, it must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type will be cast if necessary. See Output type determination for more details. The casting of NaN to integer can yield unexpected results.

New in version 1.8.0.

keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original a.

If the value is anything but the default, then keepdims will be passed through to the mean or sum methods of sub-classes of ndarray. If the sub-classes methods does not implement keepdims any exceptions will be raised.

New in version 1.8.0.

Returns

nansum

[ndarray.] A new array holding the result is returned unless out is specified, in which it is returned. The result has the same size as a, and the same shape as a if axis is not None or a is a 1-d array.

See also:

numpy.sum

Sum across array propagating NaNs.

isnan

Show which elements are NaN.
**isfinite**

Show which elements are not NaN or +/-inf.

**Notes**

If both positive and negative infinity are present, the sum will be Not A Number (NaN).

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.nansum(1)
1
>>> np.nansum([1])
1.0
>>> a = np.array([[1, 1], [1, np.nan]])
>>> np.nansum(a)
3.0
>>> np.nansum(a, axis=0)
array([2., 1.])
>>> np.nansum([1, np.nan, np.inf])
inf
>>> np.nansum([1, np.nan, np.NINF])
-inf
>>> from numpy.testing import suppress_warnings
>>> with suppress_warnings() as sup:
...     sup.filter(RuntimeWarning)
...     np.nansum([1, np.nan, np.inf, -np.inf])  # both +/- infinity present
nan
```

**numpy.cumprod** *(a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)*

Return the cumulative product of elements along a given axis.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [array_like] Input array.

- **axis**
  
  [int, optional] Axis along which the cumulative product is computed. By default the input is flattened.

- **dtype**
  
  [dtype, optional] Type of the returned array, as well as of the accumulator in which the elements are multiplied. If *dtype* is not specified, it defaults to the dtype of *a*, unless *a* has an integer dtype with a precision less than that of the default platform integer. In that case, the default platform integer is used instead.

- **out**
  
  [ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output but the type of the resulting values will be cast if necessary.
Returns

cumprod

[ndarray] A new array holding the result is returned unless out is specified, in which case a reference to out is returned.

See also:

Output type determination

Notes

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> np.cumprod(a)  # intermediate results 1, 1*2
...  # total product 1*2*3 = 6
array([1, 2, 6])
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6])
>>> np.cumprod(a, dtype=float)  # specify type of output
array([ 1., 2., 6., 24., 120., 720.])
```

The cumulative product for each column (i.e., over the rows) of `a`:

```python
>>> np.cumprod(a, axis=0)
array([[ 1.,  2.,  3.],
       [ 4., 10., 18.]])
```

The cumulative product for each row (i.e. over the columns) of `a`:

```python
>>> np.cumprod(a, axis=1)
array([[ 1.,  2.,  6.],
       [ 4., 20., 120.]])
```

```
numpy.cumsum(a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)
Return the cumulative sum of the elements along a given axis.

Parameters

a
[array_like] Input array.

axis
[int, optional] Axis along which the cumulative sum is computed. The default (None) is to compute the cumsum over the flattened array.

dtype
[dtypes, optional] Type of the returned array and of the accumulator in which the elements are summed. If `dtype` is not specified, it defaults to the dtype of `a`, unless `a` has an integer dtype with a precision less than that of the default platform integer. In that case, the default platform integer is used.
```
out

[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output but the type will be cast if necessary. See *Output type determination* for more details.

Returns

cumsum_along_axis

[ndarray.] A new array holding the result is returned unless `out` is specified, in which case a reference to `out` is returned. The result has the same size as `a`, and the same shape as `a` if `axis` is not None or `a` is a 1-d array.

See also:

*sum*

Sum array elements.

*trapz*

Integration of array values using the composite trapezoidal rule.

*diff*

Calculate the n-th discrete difference along given axis.

Notes

Arithmetic is modular when using integer types, and no error is raised on overflow.

cumsum(a)[-1] may not be equal to `sum(a)` for floating-point values since `sum` may use a pairwise summation routine, reducing the roundoff-error. See *sum* for more information.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]])
>>> a
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [4, 5, 6]])
>>> np.cumsum(a)
array([ 1, 3, 6, 10, 15, 21])
>>> np.cumsum(a, dtype=float)  # specifies type of output value(s)
array([ 1., 3., 6., 10., 15., 21.])

>>> np.cumsum(a, axis=0)  # sum over rows for each of the 3 columns
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [5, 7, 9]])
>>> np.cumsum(a, axis=1)  # sum over columns for each of the 2 rows
array([[ 1, 3, 6],
       [ 4, 9, 15]])
```

cumsum(b)[-1] may not be equal to `sum(b)`
```python
>>> b = np.array([1, 2e-9, 3e-9] * 1000000)
>>> b.cumsum()[-1]
1000000.0050045159
>>> b.sum()
1000000.0050000029
```

```python
numpy.nancumprod(a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)
```

Return the cumulative product of array elements over a given axis treating Not a Numbers (NaNs) as one. The cumulative product does not change when NaNs are encountered and leading NaNs are replaced by ones.

Ones are returned for slices that are all-NaN or empty.

New in version 1.12.0.

**Parameters**

- `a`
  - [array_like] Input array.

- `axis`
  - [int, optional] Axis along which the cumulative product is computed. By default the input is flattened.

- `dtype`
  - [dtype, optional] Type of the returned array, as well as of the accumulator in which the elements are multiplied. If `dtype` is not specified, it defaults to the dtype of `a`, unless `a` has an integer dtype with a precision less than that of the default platform integer. In that case, the default platform integer is used instead.

- `out`
  - [ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output but the type of the resulting values will be cast if necessary.

**Returns**

- `nancumprod`
  - [ndarray] A new array holding the result is returned unless `out` is specified, in which case it is returned.

**See also:**

- `numpy.cumprod`
  - Cumulative product across array propagating NaNs.

- `isnan`
  - Show which elements are NaN.
Examples

```python
>>> np.nancumprod(1)
array([1])
>>> np.nancumprod([1])
array([1])
>>> np.nancumprod([1, np.nan])
array([1])
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, np.nan]])
>>> np.nancumprod(a)
array([1., 2., 6., 6.])
>>> np.nancumprod(a, axis=0)
array([[1., 2.],
       [3., 2.]])
>>> np.nancumprod(a, axis=1)
array([[1., 2.],
       [3., 3.]])
```

numpy.nancumsum(a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None)

Return the cumulative sum of array elements over a given axis treating Not a Numbers (NaNs) as zero. The cumulative sum does not change when NaNs are encountered and leading NaNs are replaced by zeros.

Zeros are returned for slices that are all-NaN or empty.

New in version 1.12.0.

Parameters

- **a**
  
  [array_like] Input array.

- **axis**
  
  [int, optional] Axis along which the cumulative sum is computed. The default (None) is to compute the cumsum over the flattened array.

- **dtype**
  
  [dtype, optional] Type of the returned array and of the accumulator in which the elements are summed. If `dtype` is not specified, it defaults to the dtype of `a`, unless `a` has an integer `dtype` with a precision less than that of the default platform integer. In that case, the default platform integer is used.

- **out**
  
  [ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output but the type will be cast if necessary. See `Output type determination` for more details.

Returns

- **nancumsum**
  
  [ndarray.] A new array holding the result is returned unless `out` is specified, in which it is returned. The result has the same size as `a`, and the same shape as `a` if `axis` is not None or `a` is a 1-d array.

See also:
**numpy.cumsum**

Cumulative sum across array propagating NaNs.

**isnan**

Show which elements are NaN.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.nancumsum(1)
array([1])
>>> np.nancumsum([1])
array([1])
>>> np.nancumsum([1, np.nan])
array([1, 1])
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, np.nan]])
>>> np.nancumsum(a)
array([[1, 2], [4, 2]])
>>> np.nancumsum(a, axis=1)
array([[1, 3], [3, 3]])
```

**numpy.diff**

(a, n=1, axis=-1, prepend=<no value>, append=<no value>)

Calculate the n-th discrete difference along the given axis.

The first difference is given by \( \text{out}[i] = a[i+1] - a[i] \) along the given axis, higher differences are calculated by using `diff` recursively.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [array_like] Input array

- **n**
  
  [int, optional] The number of times values are differenced. If zero, the input is returned as-is.

- **axis**
  
  [int, optional] The axis along which the difference is taken, default is the last axis.

- **prepend, append**
  
  [array_like, optional] Values to prepend or append to `a` along axis prior to performing the difference. Scalar values are expanded to arrays with length 1 in the direction of axis and the shape of the input array in along all other axes. Otherwise the dimension and shape must match `a` except along axis.

**Returns**

- **diff**
  
  [ndarray] The n-th differences. The shape of the output is the same as `a` except along `axis` where the dimension is smaller by `n`. The type of the output is the same as the type of the
difference between any two elements of \( a \). This is the same as the type of \( a \) in most cases. A notable exception is `datetime64`, which results in a `timedelta64` output array.

See also:

`gradient`, `ediff1d`, `cumsum`

Notes

Type is preserved for boolean arrays, so the result will contain `False` when consecutive elements are the same and `True` when they differ.

For unsigned integer arrays, the results will also be unsigned. This should not be surprising, as the result is consistent with calculating the difference directly:

```python
>>> u8_arr = np.array([1, 0], dtype=np.uint8)
>>> np.diff(u8_arr)
array([255], dtype=uint8)
>>> u8_arr[1,...] - u8_arr[0,...]
255
```

If this is not desirable, then the array should be cast to a larger integer type first:

```python
>>> i16_arr = u8_arr.astype(np.int16)
>>> np.diff(i16_arr)
array([-1], dtype=int16)
```

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 4, 7, 0])
>>> np.diff(x)
array([1, 2, 3, -7])
>>> np.diff(x, n=2)
array([1, 1, -10])
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1, 3, 6, 10], [0, 5, 6, 8]])
>>> np.diff(x)
array([[2, 3, 4],
      [5, 1, 2]])
>>> np.diff(x, axis=0)
array([[-1,  2,  0, -2]])
```

```python
>>> x = np.arange('1066-10-13', '1066-10-16', dtype=np.datetime64)
>>> np.diff(x)
array([1, 1], dtype='timedelta64[D]')
```

`numpy.ediff1d(ary, to_end=None, to_begin=None)`

The differences between consecutive elements of an array.

**Parameters**

- `ary`

  [array_like] If necessary, will be flattened before the differences are taken.
to_end

[array_like, optional] Number(s) to append at the end of the returned differences.

to_begin

[array_like, optional] Number(s) to prepend at the beginning of the returned differences.

Returns

diff1d

[ndarray] The differences. Loosely, this is ary.flat[1:] - ary.flat[:-1].

See also:

diff, gradient

Notes

When applied to masked arrays, this function drops the mask information if the to_begin and/or to_end parameters are used.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 4, 7, 0])
>>> np.ediff1d(x)
array([1, 2, 3, -7])
```

```python
>>> np.ediff1d(x, to_begin=-99, to_end=np.array([88, 99]))
array([-99, 1, 2, ..., -7, 88, 99])
```

The returned array is always 1D.

```python
>>> y = [[1, 2, 4], [1, 6, 24]]
>>> np.ediff1d(y)
array([[1, 2, -3, 5, 18]])
```

numpy.gradient (f, *varargs, axis=None, edge_order=1)

Return the gradient of an N-dimensional array.

The gradient is computed using second order accurate central differences in the interior points and either first or second order accurate one-sides (forward or backwards) differences at the boundaries. The returned gradient hence has the same shape as the input array.

Parameters

f

[array_like] An N-dimensional array containing samples of a scalar function.

varargs

[list of scalar or array, optional] Spacing between f values. Default unitary spacing for all dimensions. Spacing can be specified using:

1. single scalar to specify a sample distance for all dimensions.
2. N scalars to specify a constant sample distance for each dimension. i.e. \( dx, dy, dz, \ldots \)

3. N arrays to specify the coordinates of the values along each dimension of F. The length of the array must match the size of the corresponding dimension

4. Any combination of N scalars/arrays with the meaning of 2. and 3.

If \( \text{axis} \) is given, the number of varargs must equal the number of axes. Default: 1.

**edge_order**

\[ \{1, 2\}, \text{optional} \] Gradient is calculated using N-th order accurate differences at the boundaries. Default: 1.

New in version 1.9.1.

**axis**

\[ \text{None or int or tuple of ints, optional} \] Gradient is calculated only along the given axis or axes. The default (axis = None) is to calculate the gradient for all the axes of the input array. axis may be negative, in which case it counts from the last to the first axis.

New in version 1.11.0.

**Returns**

**gradient**

\[ \text{ndarray or list of ndarray} \] A list of ndarrays (or a single ndarray if there is only one dimension) corresponding to the derivatives of f with respect to each dimension. Each derivative has the same shape as f.

**Notes**

Assuming that \( f \in C^3 \) (i.e., \( f \) has at least 3 continuous derivatives) and let \( h_s \) be a non-homogeneous stepsize, we minimize the “consistency error” \( \eta_i \) between the true gradient and its estimate from a linear combination of the neighboring grid-points:

\[
\eta_i = f^{(1)}_i - [\alpha f (x_i) + \beta f (x_i + h_d) + \gamma f (x_i - h_s)]
\]

By substituting \( f(x_i + h_d) \) and \( f(x_i - h_s) \) with their Taylor series expansion, this translates into solving the following linear system:

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha + \beta + \gamma &= 0 \\
\beta h_d - \gamma h_s &= 1 \\
\beta h_d^2 + \gamma h_s^2 &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

The resulting approximation of \( f^{(1)}_i \) is the following:

\[
\hat{f}^{(1)}_i = \frac{h^2_s f (x_i) + (h^2_d - h^2_s) f (x_i) - h^2_d f (x_i - h_s)}{h_s h_d (h_d + h_s)} + \mathcal{O} \left( \frac{h dh^2_s + h_s h_d^2}{h_d + h_s} \right)
\]

It is worth noting that if \( h_s = h_d \) (i.e., data are evenly spaced) we find the standard second order approximation:

\[
\hat{f}^{(1)}_i = \frac{f (x_{i+1}) - f (x_{i-1})}{2h} + \mathcal{O} (h^2)
\]

With a similar procedure the forward/backward approximations used for boundaries can be derived.
References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

```python
>>> f = np.array([1, 2, 4, 7, 11, 16], dtype=float)
>>> np.gradient(f)
array([1. , 1.5, 2.5, 3.5, 4.5, 5. ])
>>> np.gradient(f, 2)
array([0.5 , 0.75, 1.25, 1.75, 2.25, 2.5 ])

Spacing can be also specified with an array that represents the coordinates of the values F along the dimensions. For instance a uniform spacing:

```python
>>> x = np.arange(f.size)
>>> np.gradient(f, x)
array([1. , 1.5, 2.5, 3.5, 4.5, 5. ])
```  
Or a non uniform one:

```python
>>> x = np.array([0., 1., 1.5, 3.5, 4., 6.], dtype=float)
>>> np.gradient(f, x)
array([1. , 3. , 3.5, 6.7, 6.9, 2.5])
```

For two dimensional arrays, the return will be two arrays ordered by axis. In this example the first array stands for the gradient in rows and the second one in columns direction:

```python
>>> np.gradient(np.array([[1, 2, 6], [3, 4, 5]], dtype=float))
[array([[ 2., 2., -1.],
       [ 2., 2., -1.]]), array([[1. , 2.5, 4. ],
        [1. , 1. , 1. ]])]
```

In this example the spacing is also specified: uniform for axis=0 and non uniform for axis=1

```python
>>> dx = 2.
>>> y = [1., 1.5, 3.5]
>>> np.gradient(np.array([[1, 2, 6], [3, 4, 5]], dtype=float), dx, y)
[array([[ 1. , 1. , -0.5],
       [ 1. , 1. , -0.5]]), array([[2. , 2., 2. ],
        [2. , 1.7, 0.5]])]
```

It is possible to specify how boundaries are treated using `edge_order`

```python
>>> x = np.array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> f = x**2
>>> np.gradient(f, edge_order=1)
array([1., 2., 4., 6., 7.])
>>> np.gradient(f, edge_order=2)
array([0., 2., 4., 6., 8.])
```

The `axis` keyword can be used to specify a subset of axes of which the gradient is calculated

```python
>>> np.gradient(np.array([[1, 2, 6], [3, 4, 5]], dtype=float), axis=0)
array([[ 2., 2., -1.],
       [ 2., 2., -1.]])
```
numpy.cross(a, b, axisa=-1, axisb=-1, axisc=-1, axis=None)

Return the cross product of two (arrays of) vectors.

The cross product of $a$ and $b$ in $R^3$ is a vector perpendicular to both $a$ and $b$. If $a$ and $b$ are arrays of vectors, the vectors are defined by the last axis of $a$ and $b$ by default, and these axes can have dimensions 2 or 3. Where the dimension of either $a$ or $b$ is 2, the third component of the input vector is assumed to be zero and the cross product calculated accordingly. In cases where both input vectors have dimension 2, the $z$-component of the cross product is returned.

**Parameters**

- a
  - [array_like] Components of the first vector(s).
- b
  - [array_like] Components of the second vector(s).
- axisa
  - [int, optional] Axis of $a$ that defines the vector(s). By default, the last axis.
- axisb
  - [int, optional] Axis of $b$ that defines the vector(s). By default, the last axis.
- axisc
  - [int, optional] Axis of $c$ containing the cross product vector(s). Ignored if both input vectors have dimension 2, as the return is scalar. By default, the last axis.
- axis
  - [int, optional] If defined, the axis of $a$, $b$ and $c$ that defines the vector(s) and cross product(s). Overrides axisa, axisb and axisc.

**Returns**

- c
  - [ndarray] Vector cross product(s).

**Raises**

- [ValueError]
  - When the dimension of the vector(s) in $a$ and/or $b$ does not equal 2 or 3.

**See also:**

- inner
  - Inner product
- outer
  - Outer product.
- ix_
  - Construct index arrays.
Notes

New in version 1.9.0.

Supports full broadcasting of the inputs.

Examples

Vector cross-product.

```python
>>> x = [1, 2, 3]
>>> y = [4, 5, 6]
>>> np.cross(x, y)
array([-3, 6, -3])
```

One vector with dimension 2.

```python
>>> x = [1, 2]
>>> y = [4, 5, 6]
>>> np.cross(x, y)
array([12, -6, -3])
```

Equivalently:

```python
>>> x = [1, 2, 0]
>>> y = [4, 5, 6]
>>> np.cross(x, y)
array([12, -6, -3])
```

Both vectors with dimension 2.

```python
>>> x = [1,2]
>>> y = [4,5]
>>> np.cross(x, y)
array(-3)
```

Multiple vector cross-products. Note that the direction of the cross product vector is defined by the right-hand rule.

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1,2,3], [4,5,6]])
>>> y = np.array([[4,5,6], [1,2,3]])
>>> np.cross(x, y)
array([[-3, 6, -3],
       [ 3, -6, 3]])
```

The orientation of c can be changed using the axisc keyword.

```python
>>> np.cross(x, y, axisc=0)
array([[3, -6, 3]],
      [6, -3, -6],
     [-3, 3]])
```

Change the vector definition of x and y using axisa and axish.

```python
>>> x = np.array([[1,2,3], [4,5,6], [7,8,9]])
>>> y = np.array([[7,8,9], [4,5,6], [1,2,3]])
>>> np.cross(x, y)
array([[ -6, 12, -6],
       [ 12, -6, -6],
       [ -6, 12, -6]])
```

(continues on next page)
```
[ 0, 0, 0],
[ 6, -12, 6])
>>> np.cross(x, y, axisa=0, axisb=0)
array([[24, -48, 24],
       [30, -60, 30],
       [36, -72, 36]])
```

```
numpy.trapz(y, x=None, dx=1.0, axis=-1)
```

Integrate along the given axis using the composite trapezoidal rule.

If `x` is provided, the integration happens in sequence along its elements - they are not sorted.

Integrate `y(x)` along each 1d slice on the given axis, compute \( \int y(x) dx \). When `x` is specified, this integrates along the parametric curve, computing \( \int_t y(t) \frac{dx}{dt} \bigg|_{x=x(t)} dt \).

Parameters

- `y`
  - `[array_like]` Input array to integrate.
- `x`
  - `[array_like, optional]` The sample points corresponding to the `y` values. If `x` is None, the sample points are assumed to be evenly spaced `dx` apart. The default is None.
- `dx`
  - `[scalar, optional]` The spacing between sample points when `x` is None. The default is 1.
- `axis`
  - `[int, optional]` The axis along which to integrate.

Returns

- `trapz`
  - `[float or ndarray]` Definite integral of `y` = n-dimensional array as approximated along a single axis by the trapezoidal rule. If `y` is a 1-dimensional array, then the result is a float. If `n` is greater than 1, then the result is an `n-1` dimensional array.

See also:

- `sum`, `cumsum`

Notes

Image [2] illustrates trapezoidal rule – y-axis locations of points will be taken from `y` array, by default x-axis distances between points will be 1.0, alternatively they can be provided with `x` array or with `dx` scalar. Return value will be equal to combined area under the red lines.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

```python
>>> np.trapz([1, 2, 3])
4.0
>>> np.trapz([1, 2, 3], x=[4, 6, 8])
8.0
>>> np.trapz([1, 2, 3], dx=2)
8.0
```

Using a decreasing `x` corresponds to integrating in reverse:

```python
>>> np.trapz([1, 2, 3], x=[8, 6, 4])
-8.0
```

More generally `x` is used to integrate along a parametric curve. This finds the area of a circle, noting we repeat the sample which closes the curve:

```python
>>> theta = np.linspace(0, 2 * np.pi, num=1000, endpoint=True)
>>> np.trapz(np.cos(theta), x=np.sin(theta))
3.141571941375841
```

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3)
>>> a
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5]])
>>> np.trapz(a, axis=0)
array([1.5, 2.5, 3.5])
>>> np.trapz(a, axis=1)
array([2., 8.])
```

4.18.5 Exponents and logarithms

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numpy.exp(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature, extobj)=<ufunc 'exp'>

Calculate the exponential of all elements in the input array.

Parameters

x
[array_like] Input values.

out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out
[ndarray or scalar] Output array, element-wise exponential of x. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

expm1
Calculate \(\exp(x) - 1\) for all elements in the array.

exp2
Calculate \(2**x\) for all elements in the array.

Notes

The irrational number \(e\) is also known as Euler's number. It is approximately 2.718281, and is the base of the natural logarithm, \(\ln\) (this means that, if \(x = \ln y = \log_e y\), then \(e^x = y\). For real input, \(\exp(x)\) is always positive.

For complex arguments, \(x = a + ib\), we can write \(e^x = e^a e^{ib}\). The first term, \(e^a\), is already known (it is the real argument, described above). The second term, \(e^{ib}\), is \(\cos b + i \sin b\), a function with magnitude 1 and a periodic phase.

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References

[1], [2]

Examples

Plot the magnitude and phase of $\exp(x)$ in the complex plane:

```
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

>>> x = np.linspace(-2*np.pi, 2*np.pi, 100)
>>> xx = x + 1j * x[:, np.newaxis] # a + ib over complex plane
>>> out = np.exp(xx)

>>> plt.subplot(121)
>>> plt.imshow(np.abs(out),
... extent=[-2*np.pi, 2*np.pi, -2*np.pi, 2*np.pi], cmap='gray')
>>> plt.title('Magnitude of $\exp(x)$')

>>> plt.subplot(122)
>>> plt.imshow(np.angle(out),
... extent=[-2*np.pi, 2*np.pi, -2*np.pi, 2*np.pi], cmap='hsv')
>>> plt.title('Phase (angle) of $\exp(x)$')
>>> plt.show()
```

```
5
 0 5
5.0
2.5
0.0
2.5
5.0
```

```
5
 0 5
5.0
2.5
0.0
2.5
5.0
```

```
numpy.exp1(x, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'exp1'>
```

Calculate $\exp(x) - 1$ for all elements in the array.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  - [array_like] Input values.
out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns
out
[ndarray or scalar] Element-wise exponential minus one: out = exp(x) − 1. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

log1p

log(1 + x), the inverse of expm1.

Notes
This function provides greater precision than exp(x) − 1 for small values of x.

Examples
The true value of exp(1e-10) − 1 is 1.00000000005e-10 to about 32 significant digits. This example shows the superiority of expm1 in this case.

```python
>>> np.expm1(1e-10)
1.00000000005e-10
```

```python
cpython .exp2 (x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'exp2'>
Calculate 2**p for all p in the input array.

Parameters

x
[array_like] Input values.
out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Element-wise $2^x$. This is a scalar if $x$ is a scalar.

See also:

power

Notes

New in version 1.3.0.

Examples

```python
>>> np.exp2([2, 3])
array([ 4.,  8.])
```

```
numpy.log(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'log'>
```

Natural logarithm, element-wise.

The natural logarithm $\log$ is the inverse of the exponential function, so that $\log(e^x) = x$. The natural logarithm is logarithm in base $e$.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input value.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.
where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] The natural logarithm of x, element-wise. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

\texttt{log10, log2, log1p, emath.log}

Notes

Logarithm is a multivalued function: for each \( x \) there is an infinite number of \( z \) such that \( \exp(z) = x \). The convention is to return the \( z \) whose imaginary part lies in \([-\pi, \pi]\).

For real-valued input data types, \( \log \) always returns real output. For each value that cannot be expressed as a real number or infinity, it yields \( \text{nan} \) and sets the \textit{invalid} floating point error flag.

For complex-valued input, \( \log \) is a complex analytical function that has a branch cut \([-\infty, 0]\) and is continuous from above on it. \( \log \) handles the floating-point negative zero as an infinitesimal negative number, conforming to the C99 standard.

References

[1],[2]

Examples

```python
>>> np.log([1, np.e, np.e**2, 0])
array([ 0., 1., 2., -Inf])
```

\texttt{numpy.log10 (x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj])} = <ufunc 'log10'>

Return the base 10 logarithm of the input array, element-wise.

Parameters

\( x \)

[array_like] Input values.

\( \text{out} \)

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None,
a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

**where**

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs**

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] The logarithm to the base 10 of x, element-wise. NaNs are returned where x is negative. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

emath.log10

Notes

Logarithm is a multivalued function: for each x there is an infinite number of z such that $10^z = x$. The convention is to return the $z$ whose imaginary part lies in $[-\pi, \pi]$.

For real-valued input data types, log10 always returns real output. For each value that cannot be expressed as a real number or infinity, it yields nan and sets the invalid floating point error flag.

For complex-valued input, log10 is a complex analytical function that has a branch cut [-inf, 0] and is continuous from above on it. log10 handles the floating-point negative zero as an infinitesimal negative number, conforming to the C99 standard.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

```python
>>> np.log10([1e-15, -3.])
array([-15., nan])
```

numpy.log2 (x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'log2'>

Base-2 logarithm of x.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input values.
out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y
[ndarray] Base-2 logarithm of x. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

log, log10, log1p, emath.log2

Notes

New in version 1.3.0.

Logarithm is a multivalued function: for each x there is an infinite number of z such that \(2^z = x\). The convention is to return the z whose imaginary part lies in \([-\pi, \pi]\).

For real-valued input data types, log2 always returns real output. For each value that cannot be expressed as a real number or infinity, it yields nan and sets the invalid floating point error flag.

For complex-valued input, log2 is a complex analytical function that has a branch cut \([-\infty, 0]\) and is continuous from above on it. log2 handles the floating-point negative zero as an infinitesimal negative number, conforming to the C99 standard.

Examples

>>> x = np.array([0, 1, 2, 2**4])
>>> np.log2(x)
array([-Inf, 0., 1., 4.])

>>> xi = np.array([0+1.j, 1, 2+0.j, 4.j])
>>> np.log2(xi)
array([ 0.+.26618007j, 0.+0.j , 1.+0.j , 2.+2.26618007j])

numpy.log1p(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting=’same_kind’, order=’K’, dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc ‘log1p’>

Return the natural logarithm of one plus the input array, element-wise.

Calculates \(\log(1 + x)\).
Parameters

x

[array_like] Input values.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] Natural logarithm of $1 + x$, element-wise. This is a scalar if $x$ is a scalar.

See also:

expm1

$\exp(x) - 1$, the inverse of $\log1p$.

Notes

For real-valued input, $\log1p$ is accurate also for $x$ so small that $1 + x == 1$ in floating-point accuracy.

Logarithm is a multivalued function: for each $x$ there is an infinite number of $z$ such that $\exp(z) = 1 + x$. The convention is to return the $z$ whose imaginary part lies in $[-\pi, \pi]$.

For real-valued input data types, $\log1p$ always returns real output. For each value that cannot be expressed as a real number or infinity, it yields nan and sets the invalid floating point error flag.

For complex-valued input, $\log1p$ is a complex analytical function that has a branch cut $[-\infty, -1]$ and is continuous from above on it. $\log1p$ handles the floating-point negative zero as an infinitesimal negative number, conforming to the C99 standard.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

```python
>>> np.log1p(1e-99)
1e-99
>>> np.log(1 + 1e-99)
0.0
```

```python
numpy.logaddexp(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature=None, extobj=None) = <ufunc 'logaddexp'>
```

Logarithm of the sum of exponentiations of the inputs.

Calculates \( \log(\exp(x_1) + \exp(x_2)) \). This function is useful in statistics where the calculated probabilities of events may be so small as to exceed the range of normal floating point numbers. In such cases the logarithm of the calculated probability is stored. This function allows adding probabilities stored in such a fashion.

Parameters

- **x1, x2**
  [array_like] Input values. If \( x1.shape != x2.shape \), they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwargs
  For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

- **result**
  [ndarray] Logarithm of \( \exp(x_1) + \exp(x_2) \). This is a scalar if both \( x1 \) and \( x2 \) are scalars.

See also:

- **logaddexp2**
  Logarithm of the sum of exponentiations of inputs in base 2.
Notes

New in version 1.3.0.

Examples

```python
>>> prob1 = np.log(1e-50)
>>> prob2 = np.log(2.5e-50)
>>> prob12 = np.logaddexp(prob1, prob2)
>>> prob12
-113.87649168120691
>>> np.exp(prob12)
3.5000000000000057e-50
```

`numpy.logaddexp2` `(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature, extobj) = <ufunc 'logaddexp2'>`

Logarithm of the sum of exponentiations of the inputs in base-2.

Calculates \( \log_2(2^{x_1} + 2^{x_2}) \). This function is useful in machine learning when the calculated probabilities of events may be so small as to exceed the range of normal floating point numbers. In such cases the base-2 logarithm of the calculated probability can be used instead. This function allows adding probabilities stored in such a fashion.

Parameters

- `x1, x2`  
  [array_like] Input values. If `x1.shape != x2.shape`, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- `out`  
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- `where`  
  [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the `out` array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the `out` array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized `out` array is created via the default `out=None`, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- `**kwargs`  
  For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

- `result`  
  [ndarray] Base-2 logarithm of \( 2^{x_1} + 2^{x_2} \). This is a scalar if both `x1` and `x2` are scalars.

See also:
`logaddexp`

Logarithm of the sum of exponentiations of the inputs.

**Notes**

New in version 1.3.0.

**Examples**

```python
>>> prob1 = np.log2(1e-50)
>>> prob2 = np.log2(2.5e-50)
>>> prob12 = np.logaddexp2(prob1, prob2)
>>> prob1, prob2, prob12
(-166.09640474436813, -164.77447664948076, -164.28904982231052)
>>> 2**prob12
3.4999999999999914e-50
```

### 4.18.6 Other special functions

<table>
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<tr>
<th><code>i0(x)</code></th>
<th>Modified Bessel function of the first kind, order 0.</th>
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<tr>
<td><code>sinc(x)</code></td>
<td>Return the normalized sinc function.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**numpy.i0(x)**

Modified Bessel function of the first kind, order 0.

Usually denoted $I_0$.

**Parameters**

- `x`  
  [array_like of float] Argument of the Bessel function.

**Returns**

- `out`  
  [ndarray, shape = x.shape, dtype = float] The modified Bessel function evaluated at each of the elements of `x`.

**See also:**

`scipy.special.i0, scipy.special.iv, scipy.special.ive`
Notes

The scipy implementation is recommended over this function: it is a proper ufunc written in C, and more than an order of magnitude faster.

We use the algorithm published by Clenshaw [1] and referenced by Abramowitz and Stegun [2], for which the function domain is partitioned into the two intervals [0,8] and (8,inf), and Chebyshev polynomial expansions are employed in each interval. Relative error on the domain [0,30] using IEEE arithmetic is documented [3] as having a peak of 5.8e-16 with an rms of 1.4e-16 (n = 30000).

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

```python
>>> np.i0(0.)
array(1.0)
>>> np.i0([0, 1, 2, 3])
array([1. , 1.26606588, 2.2795853 , 4.88079259])
```

`numpy.sinc(x)`

Return the normalized sinc function.

The sinc function is \( \sin(\pi x) / (\pi x) \).

**Note:** Note the normalization factor of \( \pi \) used in the definition. This is the most commonly used definition in signal processing. Use \( \text{sinc}(x / \text{np.pi}) \) to obtain the unnormalized sinc function \( \sin(x) / x \) that is more common in mathematics.

Parameters

- **x**
  - [ndarray] Array (possibly multi-dimensional) of values for which to calculate sinc(x).

Returns

- **out**
  - [ndarray] sinc(x), which has the same shape as the input.

Notes

sinc(0) is the limit value 1.

The name sinc is short for “sine cardinal” or “sinus cardinalis”.

The sinc function is used in various signal processing applications, including in anti-aliasing, in the construction of a Lanczos resampling filter, and in interpolation.

For bandlimited interpolation of discrete-time signals, the ideal interpolation kernel is proportional to the sinc function.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = np.linspace(-4, 4, 41)
>>> np.sinc(x)
array([-3.89804309e-17, -4.92362781e-02, -8.40918587e-02, # may vary
     -8.90384387e-02, -5.84680802e-02, 3.89804309e-17,
     6.68206631e-02, 1.16434881e-01, 1.26137788e-01,
     8.50444803e-02, -3.89804309e-17, -1.03943254e-01,
    -1.89206682e-01, -2.16236208e-01, -1.55914881e-01,
     3.89804309e-17, 2.33872321e-01, 5.04551152e-01,
     7.56826729e-01, 9.35489284e-01, 1.00000000e+00,
     9.35489284e-01, 7.56826729e-01, 5.04551152e-01,
    -2.33872321e-01, 3.89804309e-17, -1.55914881e-01,
    -2.16236208e-01, -1.89206682e-01, -1.03943254e-01,
    -3.89804309e-17, 8.50444803e-02, 1.26137788e-01,
    -1.6434881e-01, 6.68206631e-02, 3.89804309e-17,
    -5.84680802e-02, -8.90384387e-02, -8.40918587e-02,
    -4.92362781e-02, -3.89804309e-17])
```

```python
>>> plt.plot(x, np.sinc(x))
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.title("Sinc Function")
Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Sinc Function')
>>> plt.ylabel("Amplitude")
Text(0.5, 0.5, 'Amplitude')
>>> plt.xlabel("X")
Text(0.5, 0, 'X')
>>> plt.show()
```

4.18. Mathematical functions
### 4.18.7 Floating point routines

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td><code>signbit(x, out=None, where=True, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Returns element-wise True where signbit is set (less than zero).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>copysign(x1, x2, out=None, where=True, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Change the sign of x1 to that of x2, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>frexp(x, out1, out2, where=True, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Decompose the elements of x into mantissa and twos exponent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ldexp(x1, x2, out=None, where=True, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Returns (x_1 \times 2^{x_2}), element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nextafter(x1, x2, out=None, where=True, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Return the next floating-point value after x1 towards x2, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>spacing(x, out=None, where=True, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Return the distance between x and the nearest adjacent number.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**numpy.signbit**

\[\text{numpy.signbit}(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = \text{<ufunc 'signbit'>}\]

Returns element-wise True where signbit is set (less than zero).

**Parameters**

- **x**
  - [array_like] The input value(s).
- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.
- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

****kwargs**

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- **result**
  - [ndarray of bool] Output array, or reference to out if that was supplied. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.
Examples

```
>>> np.signbit(-1.2)
True
>>> np.signbit(np.array([1, -2.3, 2.1]))
array([False,  True, False])
```

numpy.copysign(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'copysign'>

Change the sign of x1 to that of x2, element-wise.

If x2 is a scalar, its sign will be copied to all elements of x1.

Parameters

- **x1**
  - [array_like] Values to change the sign of.

- **x2**
  - [array_like] The sign of x2 is copied to x1. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwarg**s**
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

- **out**
  - [ndarray or scalar] The values of x1 with the sign of x2. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

Examples

```
>>> np.copysign(1.3, -1)
-1.3
>>> 1/np.copysign(0, 1)
inf
>>> 1/np.copysign(0, -1)
-inf
```
```python
>>> np.copysign([-1, 0, 1], -1.1)
array([-1., -0., -1.])
>>> np.copysign([-1, 0, 1], np.arange(3)-1)
array([-1., 0., 1.])
```

```python
numpy.frexp(x[, out1, out2], /[, out=(None, None)], *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature, extobj) = <ufunc 'frexp'>
```

Decompose the elements of x into mantissa and twos exponent.

Returns *(mantissa, exponent)*, where \( x = \text{mantissa} \times 2^{\text{exponent}} \). The mantissa lies in the open interval(-1, 1), while the twos exponent is a signed integer.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  - [array_like] Array of numbers to be decomposed.

- **out1**
  - [ndarray, optional] Output array for the mantissa. Must have the same shape as x.

- **out2**
  - [ndarray, optional] Output array for the exponent. Must have the same shape as x.

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwargs
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- **mantissa**
  - [ndarray] Floating values between -1 and 1. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

- **exponent**
  - [ndarray] Integer exponents of 2. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

**See also:**

- **ldexp**
  - Compute \( y = x_1 \times 2^{x_2} \), the inverse of frexp.
**Notes**

Complex dtypes are not supported, they will raise a TypeError.

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.arange(9)
>>> y1, y2 = np.frexp(x)
>>> y1
array([ 0. , 0.5 , 0.5 , 0.75 , 0.5 , 0.625, 0.75 , 0.875,
       0.5 ])
>>> y2
array([0, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 3, 4])
>>> y1 * 2**y2
array([ 0., 1., 2., 3., 4., 5., 6., 7., 8.])
```

numpy.ldexp(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'ldexp'>

Returns \(x_1 \times 2^{x_2}\), element-wise.

**Parameters**

- **x1**
  - [array_like] Array of multipliers.

- **x2**
  - [array_like, int] Array of twos exponents. If \(x_1.shape != x_2.shape\), they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the `out` array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the `out` array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized `out` array is created via the default `out=None`, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwargs
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- **y**
  - [ndarray or scalar] The result of \(x_1 \times 2^{x_2}\). This is a scalar if both \(x_1\) and \(x_2\) are scalars.

See also:
frexp

Return \((y_1, y_2)\) from \(x = y_1 \times 2^{y_2}\), inverse to \(\text{ldexp}\).

Notes

Complex dtypes are not supported, they will raise a TypeError.

\(\text{ldexp}\) is useful as the inverse of \(\text{frexp}\), if used by itself it is more clear to simply use the expression \(x_1 \times 2^{x_2}\).

Examples

```python
>>> np.ldexp(5, np.arange(4))
array([ 5., 10., 20., 40.], dtype=float16)

>>> x = np.arange(6)
>>> np.ldexp(*np.frexp(x))
array([ 0.,  1.,  2.,  3.,  4.,  5.])
```

numpy.nextafter \((x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj])\) = <ufunc 'nextafter'>

Return the next floating-point value after \(x1\) towards \(x2\), element-wise.

Parameters

\(x1\)

[array_like] Values to find the next representable value of.

\(x2\)

[array_like] The direction where to look for the next representable value of \(x1\). If \(x1.shape != x2.shape\), they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

\(out\)

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

\(where\)

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the \(out\) array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the \(out\) array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \(out\) array is created via the default \(out=None\), locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

\(**kwargs\)

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns
out
[ndarray or scalar] The next representable values of \( x1 \) in the direction of \( x2 \). This is a scalar if both \( x1 \) and \( x2 \) are scalars.

Examples

```python
>>> eps = np.finfo(np.float64).eps
>>> np.nextafter(1, 2) == eps + 1
True
>>> np.nextafter([1, 2], [2, 1]) == [eps + 1, 2 - eps]
array([ True,  True])
```

The function `numpy.spacing` returns the distance between \( x \) and the nearest adjacent number.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  [array_like] Values to find the spacing of.

- **out**
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an unitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwargs
  For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- **out**
  [ndarray or scalar] The spacing of values of \( x \). This is a scalar if \( x \) is a scalar.

**Notes**

It can be considered as a generalization of EPS: \( \text{spacing}(\text{np.float64}(1)) = \text{np.finfo}(\text{np.float64}).\text{eps} \), and there should not be any representable number between \( x + \text{spacing}(x) \) and \( x \) for any finite \( x \).

Spacing of \( +\infty \) and NaN is NaN.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

Examples

```python
>>> np.spacing(1) == np.finfo(np.float64).eps
True
```

4.18.8 Rational routines

```
lcm(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature=None, extobj=None) = <ufunc 'lcm'>
```

Returns the lowest common multiple of \( |x_1| \) and \( |x_2| \).

Parameters

- `x1, x2`
  - [array_like, int] Arrays of values. If \( x_1.shape != x_2.shape \), they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

Returns

- `y`
  - [ndarray or scalar] The lowest common multiple of the absolute value of the inputs. This is a scalar if both \( x_1 \) and \( x_2 \) are scalars.

See also:

- `gcd`

  The greatest common divisor

Examples

```python
>>> np.lcm(12, 20)
60
>>> np.lcm.reduce([3, 12, 20])
60
>>> np.lcm.reduce([40, 12, 20])
120
>>> np.lcm(np.arange(6), 20)
array([0, 20, 20, 60, 20, 20])
```

```
gcd(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature=None, extobj=None) = <ufunc 'gcd'>
```

Returns the greatest common divisor of \( |x_1| \) and \( |x_2| \).

Parameters

- `x1, x2`

Examples

```python
```
Array of values. If \( x1.shape != x2.shape \), they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

**Returns**

\[ y \]

[ndarray or scalar] The greatest common divisor of the absolute value of the inputs. This is a scalar if both \( x1 \) and \( x2 \) are scalars.

**See also:**

\[ lcm \]

The lowest common multiple.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.gcd(12, 20)
4
>>> np.gcd.reduce([15, 25, 35])
5
>>> np.gcd(np.arange(6), 20)
array([20, 1, 2, 1, 4, 5])
```

### 4.18.9 Arithmetic operations

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<th>Description</th>
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<td>Add arguments element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>reciprocal(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the reciprocal of the argument, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>positive(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Numerical positive, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>negative(x, /[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Numerical negative, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>multiply(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Multiply arguments element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>divide(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Returns a true division of the inputs, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>power(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>First array elements raised to powers from second array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>subtract(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Subtract arguments, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>true_divide(x1, x2, /[, out, where, ...])</code></td>
<td>Returns a true division of the inputs, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>floor_divide(x1, x2, /[, out, where, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the largest integer smaller or equal to the division of the inputs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>float_power(x1, x2, /[, out, where, ...])</code></td>
<td>First array elements raised to powers from second array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>fmod(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the element-wise remainder of division.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>mod(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return element-wise remainder of division.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>modf(x[, out1, out2], /[, out, where, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return the fractional and integral parts of an array, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>remainder(x1, x2, /[, out, where, casting, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return element-wise remainder of division.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>divmod(x1, x2[, out1, out2], /[, out, ...])</code></td>
<td>Return element-wise quotient and remainder simultaneously.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Add arguments element-wise.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] The arrays to be added. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

add

[ndarray or scalar] The sum of x1 and x2, element-wise. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

Notes

Equivalent to x1 + x2 in terms of array broadcasting.

Examples

```python
>>> np.add(1.0, 4.0)
5.0
>>> x1 = np.arange(9.0).reshape((3, 3))
>>> x2 = np.arange(3.0)
>>> np.add(x1, x2)
array([[ 0.,  2.,  4.],
       [ 3.,  5.,  7.],
       [ 6.,  8., 10.]])
```

The + operator can be used as a shorthand for np.add on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.arange(9.0).reshape((3, 3))
>>> x2 = np.arange(3.0)
>>> x1 + x2
array([[ 0.,  2.,  4.],
```

(continues on next page)
numpy.reciprocal(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'reciprocal'>

Return the reciprocal of the argument, element-wise.

Parameters

x
[array_like] Input array.

out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y
[ndarray] Return array. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

Notes

Note: This function is not designed to work with integers.

For integer arguments with absolute value larger than 1 the result is always zero because of the way Python handles integer division. For integer zero the result is an overflow.
Examples

```python
>>> np.reciprocal(2.)
0.5
>>> np.reciprocal([1, 2., 3.33])
array([ 1.   ,  0.5  ,  0.30030033])
```

```
numpy.positive(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'positive'>
```

Numerical positive, element-wise.

New in version 1.13.0.

Parameters

- x
  - [array_like or scalar] Input array.

Returns

- y
  - [ndarray or scalar] Returned array or scalar: \( y = +x \). This is a scalar if \( x \) is a scalar.

Notes

Equivalent to \( x.copy() \), but only defined for types that support arithmetic.

Examples

```python
>>> x1 = np.array(([1., -1.]))
>>> np.positive(x1)
array([ 1., -1.])
```

The unary `+` operator can be used as a shorthand for `np.positive` on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.array(([1., -1.]))
>>> +x1
array([ 1., -1.])
```

```
numpy.negative(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'negative'>
```

Numerical negative, element-wise.

Parameters

- x
  - [array_like or scalar] Input array.

- out
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.
where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[array_like or scalar] Returned array or scalar: y = -x. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

Examples

```python
>>> np.negative([1.,-1.])
array([-1., 1.])
```

The unary - operator can be used as a shorthand for np.negative on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.array([[1., -1.]])
>>> -x1
array([-1., 1.])
```

numpy.multiply(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'multiply'>

Multiply arguments element-wise.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] Input arrays to be multiplied. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns
y

[ndarray] The product of x1 and x2, element-wise. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

Notes

Equivalent to x1 * x2 in terms of array broadcasting.

Examples

```python
>>> np.multiply(2.0, 4.0)
8.0
```

```python
>>> x1 = np.arange(9.0).reshape((3, 3))
>>> x2 = np.arange(3.0)
>>> np.multiply(x1, x2)
array([[ 0.,  1.,  4.],
       [ 0.,  4., 10.],
       [ 0.,  7., 16.]])
```

The * operator can be used as a shorthand for np.multiply on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.arange(9.0).reshape((3, 3))
>>> x2 = np.arange(3.0)
>>> x1 * x2
array([[ 0.,  1.,  4.],
       [ 0.,  4., 10.],
       [ 0.,  7., 16.]])
```

numpy.divide(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'true_divide'>

Returns a true division of the inputs, element-wise.

Instead of the Python traditional ‘floor division’, this returns a true division. True division adjusts the output type to present the best answer, regardless of input types.

Parameters

x1

[array_like] Dividend array.

x2

[array_like] Divisor array. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain
its original value. Note that if an uninitialized `out` array is created via the default `out=None`, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] This is a scalar if both `x1` and `x2` are scalars.

Notes

In Python, `//` is the floor division operator and `/` the true division operator. The `true_divide(x1, x2)` function is equivalent to true division in Python.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> np.true_divide(x, 4)
array([ 0. , 0.25, 0.5 , 0.75, 1. ])

>>> x/4
array([ 0. , 0.25, 0.5 , 0.75, 1. ])

>>> x//4
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 1])
```

The `/` operator can be used as a shorthand for `np.true_divide` on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> x / 4
array([0. , 0.25, 0.5 , 0.75, 1. ])
```

First array elements raised to powers from second array, element-wise.

Raise each base in `x1` to the positionally-corresponding power in `x2`. `x1` and `x2` must be broadcastable to the same shape. Note that an integer type raised to a negative integer power will raise a ValueError.

Parameters

`x1`

[array_like] The bases.

`x2`

[array_like] The exponents. If `x1.shape != x2.shape`, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

`out`

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None,
a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] The bases in x1 raised to the exponents in x2. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

float_power

power function that promotes integers to float

Examples

Cube each element in an array.

```
>>> x1 = np.arange(6)
>>> x1
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
>>> np.power(x1, 3)
array([ 0, 1, 8, 27, 64, 125])
```

Raise the bases to different exponents.

```
>>> x2 = [1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 3.0, 2.0, 1.0]
>>> np.power(x1, x2)
array([ 0., 1., 8., 27., 16., 5.])
```

The effect of broadcasting.

```
>>> x2 = np.array([[1, 2, 3, 3, 2, 1], [1, 2, 3, 3, 2, 1]])
>>> x2
array([[1, 2, 3, 3, 2, 1],
       [1, 2, 3, 3, 2, 1]])
>>> np.power(x1, x2)
array([[ 0, 1, 8, 27, 16, 5],
       [ 0, 1, 8, 27, 16, 5]])
```

The ** operator can be used as a shorthand for np.power on ndarrays.
>>> x2 = np.array([1, 2, 3, 3, 2, 1])
>>> x1 = np.arange(6)
>>> x1 ** x2
array([ 0,  1,  8, 27, 16,  5])

numpy.subtract (x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'subtract'>

Subtract arguments, element-wise.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] The arrays to be subtracted from each other. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] The difference of x1 and x2, element-wise. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

Notes

Equivalent to x1 - x2 in terms of array broadcasting.

Examples

>>> np.subtract(1.0, 4.0)
-3.0

>>> x1 = np.arange(9.0).reshape((3, 3))
>>> x2 = np.arange(3.0)
>>> np.subtract(x1, x2)
array([[ 0.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 3.,  3.,  3.],
       [ 6.,  6.,  6.]])
The `-` operator can be used as a shorthand for `np.subtract` on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.arange(9.0).reshape((3, 3))
>>> x2 = np.arange(3.0)
>>> x1 - x2
array([[0., 0., 0.],
       [3., 3., 3.],
       [6., 6., 6.]])
```

```python
numpy.true_divide(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature=None, extobj=None) = <ufunc 'true_divide'>
```

Returns a true division of the inputs, element-wise.

Instead of the Python traditional 'floor division', this returns a true division. True division adjusts the output type to present the best answer, regardless of input types.

**Parameters**

- `x1`
  [array_like] Dividend array.

- `x2`
  [array_like] Divisor array. If `x1.shape != x2.shape`, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- `out`
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- `where`
  [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the `out` array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the `out` array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized `out` array is created via the default `out=None`, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- **kwargs

  For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- `out`
  [ndarray or scalar] This is a scalar if both `x1` and `x2` are scalars.
Notes

In Python, // is the floor division operator and / the true division operator. The `true_divide(x1, x2)` function is equivalent to true division in Python.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> np.true_divide(x, 4)
array([ 0. , 0.25, 0.5 , 0.75, 1. ])

>>> x/4
array([ 0. , 0.25, 0.5 , 0.75, 1. ])

>>> x//4
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 1])
```

The / operator can be used as a shorthand for `np.true_divide` on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> x / 4
array([0. , 0.25, 0.5 , 0.75, 1. ])
```

`numpy.floor_divide(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'floor_divide'>`

Return the largest integer smaller or equal to the division of the inputs. It is equivalent to the Python // operator and pairs with the Python % (remainder), function so that \( a = a \ % \ b + b \times (a \ // \ b) \) up to roundoff.

Parameters

- **x1**
  
  [array_like] Numerator.

- **x2**
  
  [array_like] Denominator. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  
  [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwargs
  
  For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

```python
y
[ndarray] y = floor(x1/x2) This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

- remainder
  Remainder complementary to floor_divide.

- divmod
  Simultaneous floor division and remainder.

- divide
  Standard division.

- floor
  Round a number to the nearest integer toward minus infinity.

- ceil
  Round a number to the nearest integer toward infinity.

Examples

```python
>>> np.floor_divide(7, 3)
2
>>> np.floor_divide([1, 2, 3, 4], 2.5)
array([ 0., 0., 1., 1.])
```

The `//` operator can be used as a shorthand for `np.floor_divide` on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> x1 // 2.5
array([0., 0., 1., 1.])
```

```python
numpy.float_power(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature=None, extobj=None) = <ufunc 'float_power'>
```

First array elements raised to powers from second array, element-wise.

Raise each base in `x1` to the positionally-corresponding power in `x2`. `x1` and `x2` must be broadcastable to the same shape. This differs from the power function in that integers, float16, and float32 are promoted to floats with a minimum precision of float64 so that the result is always inexact. The intent is that the function will return a usable result for negative powers and seldom overflow for positive powers.

New in version 1.12.0.

Parameters

- `x1`
  [array_like] The bases.

- `x2`
  [array_like] The exponents. If `x1.shape != x2.shape`, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).
out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] The bases in x1 raised to the exponents in x2. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

power

power function that preserves type

Examples

Cube each element in a list.

```
>>> x1 = range(6)
>>> x1
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
>>> np.float_power(x1, 3)
array([ 0., 1., 8., 27., 64., 125.])
```

Raise the bases to different exponents.

```
>>> x2 = [1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 3.0, 2.0, 1.0]
>>> np.float_power(x1, x2)
array([ 0., 1., 8., 27., 16., 5.])
```

The effect of broadcasting.

```
>>> x2 = np.array([[1, 2, 3, 3, 2, 1], [1, 2, 3, 2, 1]])
>>> x2
array([[1, 2, 3, 3, 2, 1],
       [1, 2, 3, 2, 1]])
>>> np.float_power(x1, x2)
array([[ 0., 1., 8., 27., 16., 5.],
       [ 0., 1., 8., 27., 16., 5.]])
```
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

\[
\text{numpy.fmod}(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting=\text{\textquoteleft}same\_kind\textquoteright, order=\text{\textquoteleft}K\textquoteright, dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc \text{\textquoteleft}fmod\textquoteright>
\]

Return the element-wise remainder of division.

This is the NumPy implementation of the C library function fmod, the remainder has the same sign as the dividend \(x1\). It is equivalent to the Matlab(TM) rem function and should not be confused with the Python modulus operator \(x1 \mod x2\).

**Parameters**

- **x1**
  - [array_like] Dividend.

- **x2**
  - [array_like] Divisor. If \(x1.shape \neq x2.shape\), they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwargs
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- **y**
  - [array_like] The remainder of the division of \(x1\) by \(x2\). This is a scalar if both \(x1\) and \(x2\) are scalars.

**See also:**

- \textit{remainder}
  
  Equivalent to the Python \% operator.

- \textit{divide}
Notes

The result of the modulo operation for negative dividend and divisors is bound by conventions. For fmod, the sign of result is the sign of the dividend, while for remainder the sign of the result is the sign of the divisor. The fmod function is equivalent to the Matlab(TM) rem function.

Examples

```python
>>> np.fmod([-3, -2, -1, 1, 2, 3], 2)
array([-1, 0, -1, 1, 0, 1])
>>> np.remainder([-3, -2, -1, 1, 2, 3], 2)
array([1, 0, 1, 0, 1])
```

```python
>>> np.fmod(5, 3)
array(2)
```

```python
>>> a = np.arange(-3, 3).reshape(3, 2)
>>> a
array([[-3, -2],
       [-1, 0],
       [ 1, 2]])
>>> np.fmod(a, [2, 2])
array([[-1, 0],
       [-1, 0],
       [ 1, 0]])
```

```
np.mod(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'remainder'>
```

Return element-wise remainder of division.

Computes the remainder complementary to the floor_divide function. It is equivalent to the Python modulus operator"x1 % x2" and has the same sign as the divisor x2. The MATLAB function equivalent to np.remainder is mod.

**Warning:** This should not be confused with:

- Python 3.7's math.remainder and C's remainder, which computes the IEEE remainder, which are the complement to round(x1 / x2).
- The MATLAB rem function and or the C % operator which is the complement to int(x1 / x2).

**Parameters**

- **x1**
  
  [array_like] Dividend array.

- **x2**
  
  [array_like] Divisor array. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None,
a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

**where**

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] The element-wise remainder of the quotient floor_divide(x1, x2). This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

floor_divide

Equivalent of Python // operator.

divmod

Simultaneous floor division and remainder.

fmod

Equivalent of the MATLAB rem function.

divide, floor

Notes

Returns 0 when x2 is 0 and both x1 and x2 are (arrays of) integers. mod is an alias of remainder.

Examples

```python
>>> np.remainder([4, 7], [2, 3])
array([0, 1])
>>> np.remainder(np.arange(7), 5)
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 0, 1])
```

The % operator can be used as a shorthand for np.remainder on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x1 = np.arange(7)
>>> x1 % 5
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 0, 1])
```

numpy.modf(x[, out1, out2[, out=(None, None)]], *[, where=True, casting=’same_kind’, order=’K’, dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]]) = <ufunc 'modf'>

Return the fractional and integral parts of an array, element-wise.

The fractional and integral parts are negative if the given number is negative.
Parameters

x
[array_like] Input array.

out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y1
[ndarray] Fractional part of x. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

y2
[ndarray] Integral part of x. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

divmod
divmod(x, 1) is equivalent to modf with the return values switched, except it always has a positive remainder.

Notes

For integer input the return values are floats.

Examples

```python
>>> np.modf([0, 3.5])
(array([ 0. , 0.5]), array([ 0., 3.]))
>>> np.modf(-0.5)
(-0.5, -0)
```

numpy.remainder (x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'remainder'>

Return element-wise remainder of division.
Computes the remainder complementary to the `floor_divide` function. It is equivalent to the Python modulus operator `x1 % x2` and has the same sign as the divisor `x2`. The MATLAB function equivalent to `np.remainder` is `mod`.

**Warning:** This should not be confused with:
- Python 3.7’s `math.remainder` and C’s `remainder`, which computes the IEEE remainder, which are the complement to `round(x1 / x2)`.
- The MATLAB `rem` function and or the C `%` operator which is the complement to `int(x1 / x2)`.

**Parameters**

- `x1` [array_like] Dividend array.
- `x2` [array_like] Divisor array. If `x1.shape != x2.shape`, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).
- `out` [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.
- `where` [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the `out` array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the `out` array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized `out` array is created via the default `out=None`, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.
- **kwargs For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- `y` [ndarray] The element-wise remainder of the quotient `floor_divide(x1, x2)`. This is a scalar if both `x1` and `x2` are scalars.

**See also:**

- `floor_divide` Equivalent of Python `//` operator.
- `divmod` Simultaneous floor division and remainder.
- `fmod` Equivalent of the MATLAB `rem` function.
**divide, floor**

**Notes**

Returns 0 when \(x_2\) is 0 and both \(x_1\) and \(x_2\) are (arrays of) integers. \texttt{mod} is an alias of \texttt{remainder}.

**Examples**

```python
gnp.remainder([4, 7], [2, 3])
array([0, 1])
gnp.remainder(np.arange(7), 5)
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 0, 1])
```

The \(\%\) operator can be used as a shorthand for \texttt{np.remainder} on ndarrays.

```python
tax1 = np.arange(7)
tax1 \% 5
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 0, 1])
```

\texttt{numpy.divmod}(\texttt{x1}, \texttt{x2}, \texttt{out1}, \texttt{out2}, \\ *, \texttt{where}=\texttt{True}, \texttt{casting}='\texttt{same_kind}', \texttt{order}=\texttt{\textquotesingle\text{K}\textquotesingle}', \\ \texttt{dtype}=\texttt{None}, \texttt{subok}=\texttt{True}, \texttt{signature}, \texttt{extobj}) = <\texttt{ufunc} \texttt{\textquotesingle\text{divmod}\textquotesingle}>

Return element-wise quotient and remainder simultaneously.

New in version 1.13.0.

\texttt{np.divmod}(\texttt{x}, \texttt{y}) is equivalent to (\texttt{x} // \texttt{y}, \texttt{x} \texttt{\%} \texttt{y}), but faster because it avoids redundant work. It is used to implement the Python built-in function \texttt{divmod} on NumPy arrays.

**Parameters**

\texttt{x1}

[array_like] Dividend array.

\texttt{x2}

[array_like] Divisor array. If \texttt{x1.shape} \neq \texttt{x2.shape}, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

\texttt{out}

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

\texttt{where}

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the \texttt{out} array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the \texttt{out} array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \texttt{out} array is created via the default \texttt{out=\text{None}}, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the \texttt{ufunc docs}.

**Returns**
out1

[ndarray] Element-wise quotient resulting from floor division. This is a scalar if both \( x_1 \) and \( x_2 \) are scalars.

out2

[ndarray] Element-wise remainder from floor division. This is a scalar if both \( x_1 \) and \( x_2 \) are scalars.

See also:

floor_divide

Equivalent to Python’s `//` operator.

remainder

Equivalent to Python’s `%` operator.

modf

Equivalent to \( \text{divmod}(x, 1) \) for positive \( x \) with the return values switched.

Examples

```python
>>> np.divmod(np.arange(5), 3)
(array([0, 0, 0, 1, 1]), array([0, 1, 2, 0, 1]))
```

The `divmod` function can be used as a shorthand for `np.divmod` on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> divmod(x, 3)
(array([0, 0, 0, 1, 1]), array([0, 1, 2, 0, 1]))
```

4.18.10 Handling complex numbers

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<td>angle(z[, deg])</td>
<td>Return the angle of the complex argument.</td>
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<tr>
<td>real(val)</td>
<td>Return the real part of the complex argument.</td>
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<tr>
<td>imag(val)</td>
<td>Return the imaginary part of the complex argument.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conj(x[, out, where, casting, order, ...])</td>
<td>Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conjugate(x[, out, where, casting, ...])</td>
<td>Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
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**numpy.angle(z, deg=False)**

Return the angle of the complex argument.

**Parameters**

- **z**
  - [array_like] A complex number or sequence of complex numbers.

- **deg**
  - [bool, optional] Return angle in degrees if True, radians if False (default).

**Returns**

- [array_like] The angle(s) of the complex argument(s).
angle
[ndarray or scalar] The counterclockwise angle from the positive real axis on the complex plane in the range (-π, π], with dtype as numpy.float64.

Changed in version 1.16.0: This function works on subclasses of ndarray like `ma.array`.

See also:

arctan2
absolute

Notes

Although the angle of the complex number 0 is undefined, `numpy.angle(0)` returns the value 0.

Examples

```python
>>> np.angle([1.0, 1.0j, 1+1j])
array([0.        , 1.57079633, 0.78539816]) # may vary

>>> np.angle(1+1j, deg=True)
45.0
```

numpy.real(val)
Return the real part of the complex argument.

Parameters

val

[array_like] Input array.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] The real component of the complex argument. If `val` is real, the type of `val` is used for the output. If `val` has complex elements, the returned type is float.

See also:

real_if_close, imag, angle

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([1+2j, 3+4j, 5+6j])
>>> a.real
array([1., 3., 5.])
>>> a.real = 9
>>> a
array([9.+2.j, 9.+4.j, 9.+6.j])
>>> a.real = np.array([9, 8, 7])
>>> a
```

(continues on next page)
```python
array([9.+2.j, 8.+4.j, 7.+6.j])
>>> np.real(1 + 1j)
1.0
```

**numpy.imag(val)**

Return the imaginary part of the complex argument.

**Parameters**

- **val**
  - [array_like] Input array.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray or scalar] The imaginary component of the complex argument. If `val` is real, the type of `val` is used for the output. If `val` has complex elements, the returned type is float.

**See also:**

`real, angle, real_if_close`

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([1+2j, 3+4j, 5+6j])
>>> a.imag
array([2., 4., 6.])
>>> a.imag = np.array([8, 10, 12])
>>> a
array([1. +8.j, 3.+10.j, 5.+12.j])
>>> np.imag(1 + 1j)
1.0
```

**numpy.conj(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'conjugate'>**

Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.

The complex conjugate of a complex number is obtained by changing the sign of its imaginary part.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  - [array_like] Input value.

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the `out` array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the `out` array will retain
its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \texttt{out} array is created via the default \texttt{out=None}, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the \texttt{ufunc docs}.

Returns

\texttt{y}

[\texttt{ndarray}] The complex conjugate of \texttt{x}, with same dtype as \texttt{y}. This is a scalar if \texttt{x} is a scalar.

Notes

\texttt{conj} is an alias for \texttt{conjugate}:

\begin{Verbatim}
>>> \texttt{np.conj is np.conjugate}
\texttt{True}
\end{Verbatim}

Examples

\begin{Verbatim}
>>> \texttt{np.conjugate(1+2j)}
\texttt{(1-2j)}

>>> \texttt{x = np.eye(2) + 1j * np.eye(2)}
>>> \texttt{np.conjugate(x)}
\texttt{array([[ 1.-1.j,  0.-0.j],
             [ 0.-0.j,  1.-1.j]])}
\end{Verbatim}

\texttt{numpy.conjugate} (\texttt{x}, \texttt{kind}, \texttt{where=True}, \texttt{casting='same_kind'}, \texttt{order='K'}, \texttt{dtype=None}, \texttt{subok=True}[, \texttt{signature}, \texttt{extobj}]) = \texttt{<ufunc 'conjugate'>}

Return the complex conjugate, element-wise.

The complex conjugate of a complex number is obtained by changing the sign of its imaginary part.

Parameters

\texttt{x}

[array_like] Input value.

\texttt{out}

[\texttt{ndarray}, None, or tuple of \texttt{ndarray} and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

\texttt{where}

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the \texttt{out} array will be set to the \texttt{ufunc} result. Elsewhere, the \texttt{out} array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \texttt{out} array is created via the default \texttt{out=None}, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.
**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

\(y\)  

[ndarray] The complex conjugate of \(x\), with same dtype as \(y\). This is a scalar if \(x\) is a scalar.

Notes

cconj is an alias for conjugate:

```
>>> np.conj is np.conjugate
True
```

Examples

```
>>> np.conjugate(1+2j)
(1-2j)
```

```
>>> x = np.eye(2) + 1j * np.eye(2)
>>> np.conjugate(x)
array([[ 1.-1.j, 0.-0.j],
       [ 0.-0.j, 1.-1.j]])
```

4.18.11 Miscellaneous

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<td>Returns the discrete, linear convolution of two one-dimensional sequences.</td>
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<td>clip(a, a_min, a_max[, out])</td>
<td>Clip (limit) the values in an array.</td>
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<td>sqrt(x[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Return the non-negative square-root of an array, element-wise.</td>
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<td>cbrt(x[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Return the cube-root of an array, element-wise.</td>
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<td>square(x[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Return the element-wise square of the input.</td>
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<td>absolute(x[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Calculate the absolute value element-wise.</td>
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<tr>
<td>fabs(x[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Compute the absolute values element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sign(x[, out, where, casting, order, …])</td>
<td>Returns an element-wise indication of the sign of a number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heaviside(x1, x2[, out, where, casting, …])</td>
<td>Compute the Heaviside step function.</td>
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<tr>
<td>maximum(x1, x2[, out, where, casting, …])</td>
<td>Element-wise maximum of array elements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimum(x1, x2[, out, where, casting, …])</td>
<td>Element-wise minimum of array elements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fmax(x1, x2[, out, where, casting, …])</td>
<td>Element-wise maximum of array elements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fmin(x1, x2[, out, where, casting, …])</td>
<td>Element-wise minimum of array elements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nan_to_num(x[, copy, nan, posinf, neginf])</td>
<td>Replace NaN with zero and infinity with large finite numbers (default behaviour) or with the numbers defined by the user using the nan, posinf and/or neginf keywords.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real_if_close(a[, tol])</td>
<td>If input is complex with all imaginary parts close to zero, return real parts.</td>
</tr>
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Table 88 – continued from previous page

| interp(x, xp, fp[, left, right, period]) | One-dimensional linear interpolation for monotonically increasing sample points. |

numpy.convolve(a, v, mode='full')

Returns the discrete, linear convolution of two one-dimensional sequences.

The convolution operator is often seen in signal processing, where it models the effect of a linear time-invariant system on a signal [1]. In probability theory, the sum of two independent random variables is distributed according to the convolution of their individual distributions.

If v is longer than a, the arrays are swapped before computation.

Parameters

a

[(N,) array_like] First one-dimensional input array.

v

[(M,) array_like] Second one-dimensional input array.

mode

[{'full', 'valid', 'same'}, optional]

‘full’:

By default, mode is ‘full’. This returns the convolution at each point of overlap, with an output shape of (N+M-1,). At the end-points of the convolution, the signals do not overlap completely, and boundary effects may be seen.

‘same’:

Mode ‘same’ returns output of length \( \max(M, N) \). Boundary effects are still visible.

‘valid’:

Mode ‘valid’ returns output of length \( \max(M, N) - \min(M, N) + 1 \). The convolution product is only given for points where the signals overlap completely. Values outside the signal boundary have no effect.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Discrete, linear convolution of a and v.

See also:

scipy.signal.fftconvolve

Convolves two arrays using the Fast Fourier Transform.

scipy.linalg.toeplitz

Used to construct the convolution operator.

polymul

Polynomial multiplication. Same output as convolve, but also accepts poly1d objects as input.
Notes

The discrete convolution operation is defined as

\[(a * v)[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} a[m]v[n - m]\]

It can be shown that a convolution \(x(t) * y(t)\) in time/space is equivalent to the multiplication \(X(f)Y(f)\) in the Fourier domain, after appropriate padding (padding is necessary to prevent circular convolution). Since multiplication is more efficient (faster) than convolution, the function `scipy.signal.fftconvolve` exploits the FFT to calculate the convolution of large data-sets.

References

[1]

Examples

Note how the convolution operator flips the second array before “sliding” the two across one another:

```python
>>> np.convolve([1, 2, 3], [0, 1, 0.5])
array([0. , 1. , 2.5, 4. , 1.5])
```

Only return the middle values of the convolution. Contains boundary effects, where zeros are taken into account:

```python
>>> np.convolve([1,2,3],[0,1,0.5], 'same')
array([1. , 2.5, 4. ])
```

The two arrays are of the same length, so there is only one position where they completely overlap:

```python
>>> np.convolve([1,2,3],[0,1,0.5], 'valid')
array([2.5])
```

`numpy.clip(a, a_min, a_max, out=None, **kwargs)`

Clip the values in an array.

Given an interval, values outside the interval are clipped to the interval edges. For example, if an interval of \([0, 1]\) is specified, values smaller than 0 become 0, and values larger than 1 become 1.

Equivalent to but faster than `np.minimum(a_max, np.maximum(a, a_min))`.

No check is performed to ensure \(a_{\text{min}} < a_{\text{max}}\).

Parameters

- `a`

  [array_like] Array containing elements to clip.

- `a_min, a_max`

  [array_like or None] Minimum and maximum value. If None, clipping is not performed on the corresponding edge. Only one of \(a_{\text{min}}\) and \(a_{\text{max}}\) may be None. Both are broadcast against \(a\).

- `out`

  [ndarray, optional] The results will be placed in this array. It may be the input array for in-place clipping. \(out\) must be of the right shape to hold the output. Its type is preserved.
**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

New in version 1.17.0.

Returns

clipped_array

[ndarray] An array with the elements of $a$, but where values $< a_{\min}$ are replaced with $a_{\min}$, and those $> a_{\max}$ with $a_{\max}$.

See also:

Output type determination

Notes

When $a_{\min}$ is greater than $a_{\max}$, clip returns an array in which all values are equal to $a_{\max}$, as shown in the second example.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(10)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
>>> np.clip(a, 1, 8)
array([1, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 8])
>>> np.clip(a, 8, 1)
array([8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 1, 1])
>>> np.clip(a, 3, 6, out=a)
array([3, 3, 3, 3, 4, 5, 6, 6, 6, 6])
>>> a
array([3, 3, 3, 3, 4, 5, 6, 6, 6, 6])
>>> a = np.arange(10)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
>>> np.clip(a, [3, 4, 1, 1, 4, 4, 4, 4, 4, 8], out=[3, 4, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 8])
```

numpy.sqrt (x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'sqrt'>

Return the non-negative square-root of an array, element-wise.

Parameters

x

[array_like] The values whose square-roots are required.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.
where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] An array of the same shape as x, containing the positive square-root of each element in x. If any element in x is complex, a complex array is returned (and the square-roots of negative reals are calculated). If all of the elements in x are real, so is y, with negative elements returning nan. If out was provided, y is a reference to it. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

See also:

lib.scimath.sqrt

A version which returns complex numbers when given negative reals.

Notes

sqrt has–consistent with common convention–as its branch cut the real “interval” [-inf, 0), and is continuous from above on it. A branch cut is a curve in the complex plane across which a given complex function fails to be continuous.

Examples

```python
>>> np.sqrt([1, 4, 9])
array([ 1., 2., 3.])

>>> np.sqrt([4, -1, -3+4J])
array([ 2.+0.j, 0.+1.j, 1.+2.j])

>>> np.sqrt([4, -1, np.inf])
array([ 2., nan, inf])
```

numpy.cbrt (x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature, extobj) = <ufunc 'cbrt'>

Return the cube-root of an array, element-wise.

New in version 1.10.0.

Parameters

x

[array_like] The values whose cube-roots are required.
out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray] An array of the same shape as x, containing the cube cube-root of each element in x. If out was provided, y is a reference to it. This is a scalar if x is a scalar.

Examples

```python
>>> np.cbrt([1, 8, 27])
array([ 1., 2., 3.])
```

```
np.square (x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj ]]) = <ufunc 'square'>
```

Return the element-wise square of the input.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Input data.

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns
out

[ndarray or scalar] Element-wise \(x \times x\), of the same shape and dtype as \(x\). This is a scalar if \(x\) is a scalar.

See also:

- `numpy.linalg.matrix_power`
- `sqrt`
- `power`

Examples

```python
>>> np.square([-1j, 1])
array([-1.-0.j, 1.+0.j])
```

`numpy.absolute(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'absolute'>`

Calculate the absolute value element-wise.

`np.abs` is a shorthand for this function.

Parameters

- **x**
  [array_like] Input array.

- **out**
  [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- **kwargs**
  For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

- **absolute**
  [ndarray] An ndarray containing the absolute value of each element in \(x\). For complex input, \(a + ib\), the absolute value is \(\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}\). This is a scalar if \(x\) is a scalar.
### Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([-1.2, 1.2])
>>> np.abs(x)
array([1.2, 1.2])
>>> np.abs(1.2 + 1j)
1.5620499351813308
```

Plot the function over \([-10, 10]\):

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = np.linspace(start=-10, stop=10, num=101)
>>> plt.plot(x, np.abs(x))
>>> plt.show()
```

Plot the function over the complex plane:

```python
>>> xx = x + 1j * x[:, np.newaxis]
>>> plt.imshow(np.abs(xx), extent=[-10, 10, -10, 10], cmap='gray')
>>> plt.show()
```

The `abs` function can be used as a shorthand for `np.abs` on ndarrays.

```python
>>> x = np.array([-1.2, 1.2])
>>> abs(x)
array([1.2, 1.2])
```

```python
numpy.fabs (x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'fabs'>
```

Computes the absolute values element-wise.

This function returns the absolute values (positive magnitude) of the data in `x`. Complex values are not handled, use `absolute` to find the absolute values of complex data.

**Parameters**
x
[array_like] The array of numbers for which the absolute values are required. If $x$ is a scalar, the result $y$ will also be a scalar.

out
[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where
[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs
For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y
[ndarray or scalar] The absolute values of $x$, the returned values are always floats. This is a scalar if $x$ is a scalar.

See also:

absolute

Absolute values including complex types.
Examples

```python
>>> np.fabs(-1)
1.0
>>> np.fabs([-1.2, 1.2])
array([ 1.2, 1.2])
```

```
numpy.sign(x, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'sign'>
```

Returns an element-wise indication of the sign of a number.

The `sign` function returns -1 if \( x < 0 \), 0 if \( x=0 \), 1 if \( x > 0 \). nan is returned for nan inputs.

For complex inputs, the `sign` function returns `sign(x.real) + 0j` if \( x.real != 0 \) else `sign(x.imag) + 0j`. complex(nan, 0) is returned for complex nan inputs.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  - [array_like] Input values.

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the `out` array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the `out` array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized `out` array is created via the default `out=None`, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- ****kwargs
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- **y**
  - [ndarray] The sign of \( x \). This is a scalar if \( x \) is a scalar.

**Notes**

There is more than one definition of sign in common use for complex numbers. The definition used here is equivalent to \( x/\sqrt{x \cdot \bar{x}} \) which is different from a common alternative, \( x/|x| \).
Examples

```python
>>> np.sign([-5., 4.5])
array([-1., 1.])
>>> np.sign(0)
0
>>> np.sign(5-2j)
(1+0j)
```

```
numpy.heaviside(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True, signature=None, extobj=None)

Compute the Heaviside step function.
```

The Heaviside step function is defined as:

```
heaviside(x1, x2) = 0  if x1 < 0
                 = x2  if x1 == 0
                 = 1  if x1 > 0
```

where \( x2 \) is often taken to be 0.5, but 0 and 1 are also sometimes used.

Parameters

\( x1 \)

[array_like] Input values.

\( x2 \)

[array_like] The value of the function when \( x1 \) is 0. If \( x1.shape \neq x2.shape \), they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

\( out \)

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

\( where \)

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the \( out \) array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the \( out \) array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized \( out \) array is created via the default \( out=None \), locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

\( out \)

[ndarray or scalar] The output array, element-wise Heaviside step function of \( x1 \). This is a scalar if both \( x1 \) and \( x2 \) are scalars.
Notes

New in version 1.13.0.

References

Examples

```python
>>> np.heaviside([-1.5, 0, 2.0], 0.5)
array([ 0. , 0.5, 1. ])
>>> np.heaviside([-1.5, 0, 2.0], 1)
array([ 0., 1., 1.])
```

```python
numpy.maximum(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'maximum'>
```

Element-wise maximum of array elements.

Compare two arrays and returns a new array containing the element-wise maxima. If one of the elements being compared is a NaN, then that element is returned. If both elements are NaNs then the first is returned. The latter distinction is important for complex NaNs, which are defined as at least one of the real or imaginary parts being a NaN. The net effect is that NaNs are propagated.

**Parameters**

- **x1, x2**
  - [array_like] The arrays holding the elements to be compared. If `x1.shape != x2.shape`, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

- **out**
  - [ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

- **where**
  - [array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default `out=None`, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

- **kwargs**
  - For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

- **y**
  - [ndarray or scalar] The maximum of x1 and x2, element-wise. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:
```
minimum

Element-wise minimum of two arrays, propagates NaNs.

fmax

Element-wise maximum of two arrays, ignores NaNs.

amax

The maximum value of an array along a given axis, propagates NaNs.

nanmax

The maximum value of an array along a given axis, ignores NaNs.

fmin, amin, nanmin

Notes

The maximum is equivalent to np.where(x1 >= x2, x1, x2) when neither x1 nor x2 are nans, but it is faster and does proper broadcasting.

Examples

```python
>>> np.maximum([2, 3, 4], [1, 5, 2])
array([2, 5, 4])
```

```python
>>> np.maximum(np.eye(2), [0.5, 2]) # broadcasting
array([[ 1.,  2.],
       [ 0.5,  2.]])
```

```python
>>> np.maximum([np.nan, 0, np.nan], [0, np.nan, np.nan])
array([nan, nan, nan])
```

```python
>>> np.maximum(np.Inf, 1)
infinf
```

cnumpy.minimum(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'minimum'>

Element-wise minimum of array elements.

Compare two arrays and returns a new array containing the element-wise minima. If one of the elements being compared is a NaN, then that element is returned. If both elements are NaNs then the first is returned. The latter distinction is important for complex NaNs, which are defined as at least one of the real or imaginary parts being a NaN. The net effect is that NaNs are propagated.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] The arrays holding the elements to be compared. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None,
a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

**where**

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs**

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

**Returns**

y

[ndarray or scalar] The minimum of x1 and x2, element-wise. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

maximum

Element-wise maximum of two arrays, propagates NaNs.

fmin

Element-wise minimum of two arrays, ignores NaNs.

amin

The minimum value of an array along a given axis, propagates NaNs.

nanmin

The minimum value of an array along a given axis, ignores NaNs.

fmax, amax, nanmax

**Notes**

The minimum is equivalent to np.where(x1 <= x2, x1, x2) when neither x1 nor x2 are NaNs, but it is faster and does proper broadcasting.

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.minimum([2, 3, 4], [1, 5, 2])
array([1, 3, 2])
```

```python
>>> np.minimum(np.eye(2), [0.5, 2]) # broadcasting
array([[ 0.5,  0.],
       [ 0. ,  1. ]])
```
numpy.fmax(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, extobj]) = <ufunc 'fmax'>

Element-wise maximum of array elements.

Compare two arrays and returns a new array containing the element-wise maxima. If one of the elements being compared is a NaN, then the non-nan element is returned. If both elements are NaNs then the first is returned. The latter distinction is important for complex NaNs, which are defined as at least one of the real or imaginary parts being a NaN. The net effect is that NaNs are ignored when possible.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] The arrays holding the elements to be compared. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.

**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the ufunc docs.

Returns

y

[ndarray or scalar] The maximum of x1 and x2, element-wise. This is a scalar if both x1 and x2 are scalars.

See also:

fmin

Element-wise minimum of two arrays, ignores NaNs.

maximum

Element-wise maximum of two arrays, propagates NaNs.

amax

The maximum value of an array along a given axis, propagates NaNs.
nanmax

The maximum value of an array along a given axis, ignores NaNs.

minimum, amin, nanmin

Notes

New in version 1.3.0.

The fmax is equivalent to np.where(x1 >= x2, x1, x2) when neither x1 nor x2 are NaNs, but it is faster and does proper broadcasting.

Examples

```python
>>> np.fmax([2, 3, 4], [1, 5, 2])
array([ 2., 5., 4.])
```
```
>>> np.fmax(np.eye(2), [0.5, 2])
array([[ 1., 2.],
       [ 0.5, 2.]])
```
```
>>> np.fmax([np.nan, 0, np.nan], [0, np.nan, np.nan])
array([0., 0., nan])
```

numpy.fmin(x1, x2, *, out=None, where=True, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True,
signature, extobj) = <ufunc 'fmin'>

Element-wise minimum of array elements.

Compare two arrays and returns a new array containing the element-wise minima. If one of the elements being compared is a NaN, then the non-nan element is returned. If both elements are NaNs then the first is returned. The latter distinction is important for complex NaNs, which are defined as at least one of the real or imaginary parts being a NaN. The net effect is that NaNs are ignored when possible.

Parameters

x1, x2

[array_like] The arrays holding the elements to be compared. If x1.shape != x2.shape, they must be broadcastable to a common shape (which becomes the shape of the output).

out

[ndarray, None, or tuple of ndarray and None, optional] A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have a shape that the inputs broadcast to. If not provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned. A tuple (possible only as a keyword argument) must have length equal to the number of outputs.

where

[array_like, optional] This condition is broadcast over the input. At locations where the condition is True, the out array will be set to the ufunc result. Elsewhere, the out array will retain its original value. Note that if an uninitialized out array is created via the default out=None, locations within it where the condition is False will remain uninitialized.
**kwargs

For other keyword-only arguments, see the *ufunc docs*.

Returns

\( y \)

[ndarray or scalar] The minimum of \( x_1 \) and \( x_2 \), element-wise. This is a scalar if both \( x_1 \) and \( x_2 \) are scalars.

See also:

*fmax*

Element-wise maximum of two arrays, ignores NaNs.

*minimum*

Element-wise minimum of two arrays, propagates NaNs.

*amin*

The minimum value of an array along a given axis, propagates NaNs.

*namin*

The minimum value of an array along a given axis, ignores NaNs.

*maximum, amax, nanmax*

Notes

New in version 1.3.0.

The fmin is equivalent to np.where\((x_1 \leq x_2, x_1, x_2)\) when neither \( x_1 \) nor \( x_2 \) are NaNs, but it is faster and does proper broadcasting.

Examples

```python
>>> np.fmin([2, 3, 4], [1, 5, 2])
array([1, 3, 2])
```

```python
>>> np.fmin(np.eye(2), [0.5, 2])
array([[ 0.5,  0. ],
       [ 0. ,  1. ]])
```

```python
>>> np.fmin([np.nan, 0, np.nan], [0, np.nan, np.nan])
array([ 0.,  0., nan])
```

**numpy.nan_to_num**(x, copy=True, nan=0.0, posinf=None, neginf=None)

Replace NaN with zero and infinity with large finite numbers (default behaviour) or with the numbers defined by the user using the *nan*, *posinf* and/or *neginf* keywords.

If \( x \) is inexact, NaN is replaced by zero or by the user defined value in *nan* keyword, infinity is replaced by the largest finite floating point values representable by \( x . dtype \) or by the user defined value in *posinf* keyword and -infinity is replaced by the most negative finite floating point values representable by \( x . dtype \) or by the user defined value in *neginf* keyword.
For complex dtypes, the above is applied to each of the real and imaginary components of \( x \) separately. If \( x \) is not inexact, then no replacements are made.

**Parameters**

\( x \)

[scalar or array_like] Input data.

**copy**

[bool, optional] Whether to create a copy of \( x \) (True) or to replace values in-place (False). The in-place operation only occurs if casting to an array does not require a copy. Default is True.

New in version 1.13.

**nan**

[int, float, optional] Value to be used to fill NaN values. If no value is passed then NaN values will be replaced with 0.0.

New in version 1.17.

**posinf**

[int, float, optional] Value to be used to fill positive infinity values. If no value is passed then positive infinity values will be replaced with a very large number.

New in version 1.17.

**neginf**

[int, float, optional] Value to be used to fill negative infinity values. If no value is passed then negative infinity values will be replaced with a very small (or negative) number.

New in version 1.17.

**Returns**

**out**

[ndarray] \( x \), with the non-finite values replaced. If \( copy \) is False, this may be \( x \) itself.

**See also:**

**isinf**

Shows which elements are positive or negative infinity.

**isneginf**

Shows which elements are negative infinity.

**isposinf**

Shows which elements are positive infinity.

**isnan**

Shows which elements are Not a Number (NaN).

**isfinite**

Shows which elements are finite (not NaN, not infinity)
Notes

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754). This means that Not a Number is not equivalent to infinity.

Examples

```python
>>> np.nan_to_num(np.inf)
1.7976931348623157e+308
>>> np.nan_to_num(-np.inf)
-1.7976931348623157e+308
>>> np.nan_to_num(np.nan)
0.0
>>> x = np.array([np.inf, -np.inf, np.nan, -128, 128])
>>> np.nan_to_num(x)
array([1.79769313e+308, -1.79769313e+308, 0.00000000e+000, # may vary
      -1.28000000e+002, 1.28000000e+002])
>>> y = np.array([(complex(np.inf, np.nan), np.nan, complex(np.nan, np.inf))])
>>> np.nan_to_num(y)
array([1.79769313e+308 +0.00000000e+000j, # may vary
      0.00000000e+000 +0.00000000e+000j,  # may vary
      0.00000000e+000 +1.79769313e+308j])
>>> np.nan_to_num(y, nan=111111, posinf=222222)
array([222222. +111111.j, 111111. +0.j, 111111.+222222.j])
```

`numpy.real_if_close(a, tol=100)`

If input is complex with all imaginary parts close to zero, return real parts.

“Close to zero” is defined as `tol * (machine epsilon of the type for a)`.

Parameters

- `a`
  [array_like] Input array.

- `tol`
  [float] Tolerance in machine epsilons for the complex part of the elements in the array.

Returns

- `out`
  [ndarray] If `a` is real, the type of `a` is used for the output. If `a` has complex elements, the returned type is float.

See also:

`real, imag, angle`
Notes

Machine epsilon varies from machine to machine and between data types but Python floats on most platforms have a machine epsilon equal to 2.2204460492503131e-16. You can use `np.finfo(float).eps` to print out the machine epsilon for floats.

Examples

```python
>>> np.finfo(float).eps
2.2204460492503131e-16  # may vary

>>> np.real_if_close([2.1 + 4e-14j, 5.2 + 3e-15j], tol=1000)
array([2.1, 5.2])

>>> np.real_if_close([2.1 + 4e-13j, 5.2 + 3e-15j], tol=1000)
array([2.1+4.e-13j, 5.2 + 3e-15j])
```

`numpy.interp(x, xp, fp, left=None, right=None, period=None)`

One-dimensional linear interpolation for monotonically increasing sample points.

Returns the one-dimensional piecewise linear interpolant to a function with given discrete data points `(xp, fp)`, evaluated at `x`.

Parameters

- `x`  
  [array_like] The x-coordinates at which to evaluate the interpolated values.

- `xp`  
  [1-D sequence of floats] The x-coordinates of the data points, must be increasing if argument `period` is not specified. Otherwise, `xp` is internally sorted after normalizing the periodic boundaries with `xp = xp % period`.

- `fp`  
  [1-D sequence of float or complex] The y-coordinates of the data points, same length as `xp`.

- `left`  
  [optional float or complex corresponding to `fp`] Value to return for `x < xp[0]`, default is `fp[0]`.

- `right`  
  [optional float or complex corresponding to `fp`] Value to return for `x > xp[-1]`, default is `fp[-1]`.

- `period`  
  [None or float, optional] A period for the x-coordinates. This parameter allows the proper interpolation of angular x-coordinates. Parameters `left` and `right` are ignored if `period` is specified.

New in version 1.10.0.

Returns

- `y`  
  [float or complex (corresponding to `fp`) or ndarray] The interpolated values, same shape as `x`.  

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Raises

ValueError

If \( xp \) and \( fp \) have different length If \( xp \) or \( fp \) are not 1-D sequences If \( period == 0 \)

Warning: The x-coordinate sequence is expected to be increasing, but this is not explicitly enforced. However, if the sequence \( xp \) is non-increasing, interpolation results are meaningless.

Note that, since NaN is unsortable, \( xp \) also cannot contain NaNs.

A simple check for \( xp \) being strictly increasing is:

\[
\text{np.all(np.diff(xp) > 0)}
\]

See also:

\texttt{scipy.interpolate}

Examples

```
>>> xp = [1, 2, 3]
>>> fp = [3, 2, 0]
>>> np.interp(2.5, xp, fp)
1.0
>>> np.interp([0, 1, 1.5, 2.72, 3.14], xp, fp)
array([3. , 3. , 2.5 , 0.56, 0. ])
>>> UNDEF = -99.0
>>> np.interp(3.14, xp, fp, right=UNDEF)
-99.0
```

Plot an interpolant to the sine function:

```
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 2*np.pi, 10)
>>> y = np.sin(x)
>>> xvals = np.linspace(0, 2*np.pi, 50)
>>> yinterp = np.interp(xvals, x, y)
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> plt.plot(x, y, 'o')
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.plot(xvals, yinterp, '-x')
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.show()
```

Interpolation with periodic x-coordinates:

```
>>> x = [-180, -170, -185, 185, -10, -5, 0, 365]
>>> xp = [190, -190, 350, -350]
>>> fp = [5, 10, 3, 4]
>>> np.interp(x, xp, fp, period=360)
array([7.5 , 5. , 8.75, 6.25, 3. , 3.25, 3.5 , 3.75])
```

Complex interpolation:
>>> x = [1.5, 4.0]
>>> xp = [2, 3, 5]
>>> fp = [1.0j, 0, 2+3j]
>>> np.interp(x, xp, fp)
array([0.+1.j, 1.+1.5j])

4.19 Matrix library (numpy.matlib)

This module contains all functions in the numpy namespace, with the following replacement functions that return matrices instead of ndarrays.

Functions that are also in the numpy namespace and return matrices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mat(data[, dtype])</td>
<td>Interprets the input as a matrix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matrix(data[, dtype, copy])</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Replacement functions in matlib

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>empty(shape[, dtype, order])</td>
<td>Return a new matrix of given shape and type, without initializing entries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zeros(shape[, dtype, order])</td>
<td>Return a matrix of given shape and type, filled with zeros.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ones(shape[, dtype, order])</td>
<td>Matrix of ones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eye(n[, M, k, dtype, order])</td>
<td>Return a matrix with ones on the diagonal and zeros elsewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identity(n[, dtype])</td>
<td>Returns the square identity matrix of given size.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.19.1 Matrix library (numpy.matlib)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>repmat(a, m, n)</td>
<td>Repeat a 0-D to 2-D array or matrix MxN times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rand(*args)</td>
<td>Return a matrix of random values with given shape.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>randn(*args)</td>
<td>Return a random matrix with data from the “standard normal” distribution.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
[[{'C', 'F'}, optional] Whether to store multi-dimensional data in row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order in memory.

See also:

eempty_like, zeros

Notes

eempty, unlike zeros, does not set the matrix values to zero, and may therefore be marginally faster. On the other hand, it requires the user to manually set all the values in the array, and should be used with caution.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.matlib
>>> np.matlib.empty((2, 2))  # filled with random data
matrix([[ 6.76425276e-320, 9.79033856e-307],  
         [ 7.39337286e-309, 3.22135945e-309]])
>>> np.matlib.empty((2, 2), dtype=int)
matrix([[ 6600475, 0],  
         [ 6586976, 22740995]])
```

matlib.zeros(shape, dtype=None, order='C')
Return a matrix of given shape and type, filled with zeros.

Parameters

- shape  
  [int or sequence of ints] Shape of the matrix

- dtype  
  [data-type, optional] The desired data-type for the matrix, default is float.

- order  
  [{'C', 'F'}, optional] Whether to store the result in C- or Fortran-contiguous order, default is 'C'.

Returns

- out  
  [matrix] Zero matrix of given shape, dtype, and order.

See also:

enumpy.zeros  
Equivalent array function.
e
matlib.ones  
Return a matrix of ones.
Notes

If shape has length one i.e. \((N,\) or is a scalar \(N\), out becomes a single row matrix of shape \((1, N)\).

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.matlib
>>> np.matlib.zeros((2, 3))
matrix([[0., 0., 0.],
        [0., 0., 0.]])
```

```python
>>> np.matlib.zeros(2)
matrix([[0., 0.]])
```

```
matlib.ones(shape, dtype=\text{\texttt{None}}, order=\text{\texttt{C}})
```
Matrix of ones.

Return a matrix of given shape and type, filled with ones.

Parameters

- **shape**
  
  \([\text{\text{\texttt{sequence of ints, int}}}]\) Shape of the matrix

- **dtype**
  
  \([\text{\text{\texttt{data-type, optional}}}]\) The desired data-type for the matrix, default is np.float64.

- **order**
  
  \([\text{\text{\texttt{C, F}}, \text{\text{\text{\texttt{optional}}}}}]\) Whether to store matrix in C- or Fortran-contiguous order, default is ‘C’.

Returns

- **out**
  
  \([\text{\text{\text{\text{\texttt{matrix}}}}}])\) Matrix of ones of given shape, dtype, and order.

See also:

- **ones**
  
  Array of ones.

- **matlib.zeros**
  
  Zero matrix.
Notes

If shape has length one i.e. (N,), or is a scalar N, out becomes a single row matrix of shape (1, N).

Examples

```python
>>> np.matlib.ones((2, 3))
matrix([[1., 1., 1.],
        [1., 1., 1.]])
```

```python
>>> np.matlib.ones(2)
matrix([[1., 1.]])
```

matlib.eye(n, M=None, k=0, dtype=float, order='C')
Return a matrix with ones on the diagonal and zeros elsewhere.

Parameters

n
[int] Number of rows in the output.

M
[int, optional] Number of columns in the output, defaults to n.

k
[int, optional] Index of the diagonal: 0 refers to the main diagonal, a positive value refers to an upper diagonal, and a negative value to a lower diagonal.

dtype
[dtype, optional] Data-type of the returned matrix.

order
[{'C', 'F'}, optional] Whether the output should be stored in row-major (C-style) or column-major (Fortran-style) order in memory.

Returns

I
[matrix] A n x M matrix where all elements are equal to zero, except for the k-th diagonal, whose values are equal to one.

See also:

numpy.eye
Equivalent array function.

identity
Square identity matrix.
Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.matlib
>>> np.matlib.eye(3, k=1, dtype=float)
matrix([[0., 1., 0.],
        [0., 0., 1.],
        [0., 0., 0.]])
```

`matlib.identity(n, dtype=None)`
Returns the square identity matrix of given size.

**Parameters**

- **n**
  [int] Size of the returned identity matrix.

- **dtype**
  [data-type, optional] Data-type of the output. Defaults to `float`.

**Returns**

- **out**
  [matrix] $n \times n$ matrix with its main diagonal set to one, and all other elements zero.

**See also:**

`numpy.identity`
Equivalent array function.

`matlib.eye`
More general matrix identity function.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.matlib
>>> np.matlib.identity(3, dtype=int)
matrix([[1, 0, 0],
        [0, 1, 0],
        [0, 0, 1]])
```

`matlib.repmat(a, m, n)`
Repeat a 0-D to 2-D array or matrix $M \times N$ times.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  [array_like] The array or matrix to be repeated.

- **m, n**
  [int] The number of times a is repeated along the first and second axes.

**Returns**
out

[ndarray] The result of repeating a.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.matlib
>>> a0 = np.array(1)
>>> np.matlib.repmat(a0, 2, 3)
array([[1, 1, 1],
       [1, 1, 1]])

>>> a1 = np.arange(4)
>>> np.matlib.repmat(a1, 2, 2)
array([[0, 1, 2, 3, 0, 1, 2, 3],
       [0, 1, 2, 3, 0, 1, 2, 3]])

>>> a2 = np.asmatrix(np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3))
>>> np.matlib.repmat(a2, 2, 3)
matrix([[0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2],
        [3, 4, 5, 3, 4, 5, 3, 4, 5],
        [0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2],
        [3, 4, 5, 3, 4, 5, 3, 4, 5]])
```

`matlib.rand(*args)`

Return a matrix of random values with given shape.

Create a matrix of the given shape and propagate it with random samples from a uniform distribution over `[0, 1]`.

Parameters

*args

[Arguments] Shape of the output. If given as N integers, each integer specifies the size of one dimension. If given as a tuple, this tuple gives the complete shape.

Returns

out

[ndarray] The matrix of random values with shape given by *args.

See also:

`randn, numpy.random.RandomState.rand`
Examples

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> import numpy.matlib
>>> np.matlib.rand(2, 3)
matrix([[0.69646919, 0.28613933, 0.22685145],
        [0.55131477, 0.71946897, 0.42310646]])
>>> np.matlib.rand((2, 3))
matrix([[0.9807642 , 0.68462974, 0.4809319 ],
        [0.39211752, 0.34317802, 0.72904971]])
```

If the first argument is a tuple, other arguments are ignored:

```python
>>> np.matlib.rand((2, 3), 4)
matrix([[0.43857224, 0.0596779 , 0.39804426],
        [0.73799541, 0.18249173, 0.17545176]])
```

```python
matlib.randn(*args)
```
Return a random matrix with data from the “standard normal” distribution.

`randn` generates a matrix filled with random floats sampled from a univariate “normal” (Gaussian) distribution of mean 0 and variance 1.

**Parameters**

*args

[Arguments] Shape of the output. If given as N integers, each integer specifies the size of one dimension. If given as a tuple, this tuple gives the complete shape.

**Returns**

Z

[matrix of floats] A matrix of floating-point samples drawn from the standard normal distribution.

See also:

`rand`, `numpy.random.RandomState.randn`

**Notes**

For random samples from \(N(\mu, \sigma^2)\), use:

\[
sigma * \text{np.matlib.randn}(...) + \mu
\]
Examples

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> import numpy.matlib
>>> np.matlib.randn(1)
matrix([[ 1.0856306]])
>>> np.matlib.randn(1, 2, 3)
matrix([[ 0.99734545, 0.2829785 , -1.50629471],
        [-0.57860025, 1.65143654, -2.42667924]])
```

Two-by-four matrix of samples from $N(3, 6.25)$:

```python
>>> 2.5 * np.matlib.randn((2, 4)) + 3
matrix([[ 1.92771843, 6.16484065, 0.83314899, 1.30278462],
        [2.76322758, 6.72847407, 1.40274501, 1.8900451 ]])
```

4.20 Miscellaneous routines

4.20.1 Performance tuning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>setbufsize(size)</td>
<td>Set the size of the buffer used in ufuncs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getbufsize()</td>
<td>Return the size of the buffer used in ufuncs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
numpy.getbufsize()
```

Return the size of the buffer used in ufuncs.

Returns

getbufsize

[ int ] Size of ufunc buffer in bytes.

4.20.2 Memory ranges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shares_memory(a, b[, max_work])</td>
<td>Determine if two arrays share memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may_share_memory(a, b[, max_work])</td>
<td>Determine if two arrays might share memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>byte_bounds(a)</td>
<td>Returns pointers to the end-points of an array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
numpy.shares_memory (a, b, max_work=None)
```

Determine if two arrays share memory.

**Warning:** This function can be exponentially slow for some inputs, unless max_work is set to a finite number or MAY_SHARE_BOUNDS. If in doubt, use `numpy.may_share_memory` instead.

**Parameters**

- `a, b`

  [ndarray] Input arrays
**max_work**

[int, optional] Effort to spend on solving the overlap problem (maximum number of candidate solutions to consider). The following special values are recognized:

- **max_work=MAY_SHARE_EXACT (default)**
  The problem is solved exactly. In this case, the function returns True only if there is an element shared between the arrays. Finding the exact solution may take extremely long in some cases.

- **max_work=MAY_SHARE_BOUNDS**
  Only the memory bounds of `a` and `b` are checked.

**Returns**

- **out**
  [bool]

**Raises**

- **numpy.TooHardError**
  Exceeded max_work.

**See also:**

- **may_share_memory**

**Examples**

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> np.shares_memory(x, np.array([5, 6, 7]))
False
>>> np.shares_memory(x[::2], x)
True
>>> np.shares_memory(x[::2], x[1::2])
False
```

Checking whether two arrays share memory is NP-complete, and runtime may increase exponentially in the number of dimensions. Hence, **max_work** should generally be set to a finite number, as it is possible to construct examples that take extremely long to run:

```python
>>> from numpy.lib.stride_tricks import as_strided
>>> x = np.zeros([192163377], dtype=np.int8)
>>> x1 = as_strided(x, strides=(36674, 61119, 85569), shape=(1049, 1049, 1049))
>>> x2 = as_strided(x[64023025:], strides=(12223, 12224, 1), shape=(1049, 1049, ...))
>>> np.shares_memory(x1, x2, max_work=1000)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
numpy.TooHardError: Exceeded max_work
```

Running `np.shares_memory(x1, x2)` without **max_work** set takes around 1 minute for this case. It is possible to find problems that take still significantly longer.
numpy\texttt{.may\_share\_memory}(a, b, max\_work=\texttt{None})

Determine if two arrays might share memory

A return of True does not necessarily mean that the two arrays share any element. It just means that they might. Only the memory bounds of \(a\) and \(b\) are checked by default.

**Parameters**

\(a, b\)

[ndarray] Input arrays

\texttt{max\_work}

[int, optional] Effort to spend on solving the overlap problem. See \texttt{shares\_memory} for details. Default for \texttt{may\_share\_memory} is to do a bounds check.

**Returns**

\texttt{out}

[bool]

**See also:**

\texttt{shares\_memory}

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.may_share_memory(np.array([1, 2]), np.array([5, 8, 9]))
False
>>> x = np.zeros([3, 4])
>>> np.may_share_memory(x[:, 0], x[:, 1])
True
```

numpy\texttt{.byte\_bounds}(\(a\))

Returns pointers to the end-points of an array.

**Parameters**

\(a\)

[ndarray] Input array. It must conform to the Python-side of the array interface.

**Returns**

\((\texttt{low}, \texttt{high})\)

[tuple of 2 integers] The first integer is the first byte of the array, the second integer is just past the last byte of the array. If \(a\) is not contiguous it will not use every byte between the \((\texttt{low}, \texttt{high})\) values.
Examples

```python
>>> I = np.eye(2, dtype='f'); I.dtype
dtype('float32')
>>> low, high = np.byte_bounds(I)
>>> high - low == I.size*I.itemsize
True
>>> I = np.eye(2); I.dtype
dtype('float64')
>>> low, high = np.byte_bounds(I)
>>> high - low == I.size*I.itemsize
True
```

4.20.3 Array mixins

```python
lib.mixins.NDArrayOperatorsMixin() Mixin defining all operator special methods using __array_ufunc__.
```

```python
class numpy.lib.mixins.NDArrayOperatorsMixin
Mixin defining all operator special methods using __array_ufunc__.
```

This class implements the special methods for almost all of Python's builtin operators defined in the `operator` module, including comparisons (==, >, etc.) and arithmetic (+, *, -, etc.), by deferring to the `__array_ufunc__` method, which subclasses must implement.

It is useful for writing classes that do not inherit from `numpy.ndarray`, but that should support arithmetic and numpy universal functions like arrays as described in A Mechanism for Overriding Ufuncs.

As an trivial example, consider this implementation of an `ArrayLike` class that simply wraps a NumPy array and ensures that the result of any arithmetic operation is also an `ArrayLike` object:

```python
class ArrayLike(np.lib.mixins.NDArrayOperatorsMixin):
    def __init__(self, value):
        self.value = np.asarray(value)

    # One might also consider adding the built-in list type to this
    # list, to support operations like np.add(array_like, list)
    _HANDLED_TYPES = (np.ndarray, numbers.Number)

    def __array_ufunc__(self, ufunc, method, *inputs, **kwargs):
        out = kwargs.get('out', ())
        for x in inputs + out:
            # Only support operations with instances of _HANDLED_TYPES.
            # Use ArrayLike instead of type(self) for isinstance to
            # allow subclasses that don't override __array_ufunc__ to
            # handle ArrayLike objects.
            if not isinstance(x, self._HANDLED_TYPES + (ArrayLike,)):
                return NotImplemented

            # Defer to the implementation of the ufunc on unwrapped values.
            inputs = tuple(x.value if isinstance(x, ArrayLike) else x
                            for x in inputs)
            if out:
                kwargs['out'] = tuple(
                    x.value if isinstance(x, ArrayLike) else x
                    for x in outputs)

(continues on next page)
```
In interactions between `ArrayLike` objects and numbers or numpy arrays, the result is always another `ArrayLike`:

```python
>>> x = ArrayLike([1, 2, 3])
>>> x - 1
ArrayLike(array([0, 1, 2]))
>>> 1 - x
ArrayLike(array([ 0, -1, -2]))
>>> np.arange(3) - x
ArrayLike(array([-1, -1, -1]))
>>> x - np.arange(3)
ArrayLike(array([1, 1, 1]))
```

Note that unlike `numpy.ndarray`, `ArrayLike` does not allow operations with arbitrary, unrecognized types. This ensures that interactions with `ArrayLike` preserve a well-defined casting hierarchy.

New in version 1.13.

### 4.20.4 NumPy version comparison

```python
```

```python
class numpy.lib.NumpyVersion(vstring)
Parse and compare numpy version strings.
```

NumPy has the following versioning scheme (numbers given are examples; they can be > 9 in principle):

- Released version: ‘1.8.0’, ‘1.8.1’, etc.
- Alpha: ‘1.8.0a1’, ‘1.8.0a2’, etc.
- Beta: ‘1.8.0b1’, ‘1.8.0b2’, etc.
- Release candidates: ‘1.8.0rc1’, ‘1.8.0rc2’, etc.
- Development versions: ‘1.8.0.dev-f1234afa’ (git commit hash appended)
- Development versions after a1: ‘1.8.0a1.dev-f1234afa’, ‘1.8.0b1.dev-f1234afa’, ‘1.8.1rc1.dev-f1234afa’, etc.
- Development versions (no git hash available): ‘1.8.0.dev-Unknown’
Comparing needs to be done against a valid version string or other `NumpyVersion` instance. Note that all development versions of the same (pre-)release compare equal.

New in version 1.9.0.

**Parameters**

`vstring`

[str] NumPy version string (np.__version__).

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.lib import NumpyVersion
>>> if NumpyVersion(np.__version__) < '1.7.0':
...     print('skip')
>>> # skip
```

```python
>>> NumpyVersion('1.7')  # raises ValueError, add ".0"
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ... ValueError: Not a valid numpy version string
```

### 4.20.5 Utility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>get_include()</code></td>
<td>Return the directory that contains the NumPy *.h header files.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>show_config()</code></td>
<td>Show libraries in the system on which NumPy was built.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>deprecate(*args, **kwargs)</code></td>
<td>Issues a DeprecationWarning, adds warning to <code>old_name</code>'s docstring, rebinds <code>old_name.__name__</code> and returns the new function object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>deprecate_with_doc(msg)</code></td>
<td>Deprecates a function and includes the deprecation in its docstring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>broadcast_shapes(*args)</code></td>
<td>Broadcast the input shapes into a single shape.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**numpy.get_include()**

Return the directory that contains the NumPy *.h header files.

Extension modules that need to compile against NumPy should use this function to locate the appropriate include directory.

**Notes**

When using `distutils`, for example in `setup.py`.

```python
import numpy as np
...
Extension('extension_name', ...
    include_dirs=[np.get_include()])
...```
numpy.show_config()

Show libraries in the system on which NumPy was built.

Print information about various resources (libraries, library directories, include directories, etc.) in the system on which NumPy was built.

See also:

get_include

Returns the directory containing NumPy C header files.

Notes

Classes specifying the information to be printed are defined in the numpy.distutils.system_info module.

Information may include:

- **language**: language used to write the libraries (mostly C or f77)
- **libraries**: names of libraries found in the system
- **library_dirs**: directories containing the libraries
- **include_dirs**: directories containing library header files
- **src_dirs**: directories containing library source files
- **define_macros**: preprocessor macros used by distutils.setup

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> np.show_config()
blas_opt_info:
  language = c
  define_macros = [('HAVE_CBLAS', None)]
  libraries = ['openblas', 'openblas']
  library_dirs = ['/usr/local/lib']
```

numpy.deprecate(*args, **kwargs)

Issues a DeprecationWarning, adds warning to old_name’s docstring, rebinds old_name.__name__ and returns the new function object.

This function may also be used as a decorator.

Parameters

- **func**
  
  [function] The function to be deprecated.

- **old_name**
  
  [str, optional] The name of the function to be deprecated. Default is None, in which case the name of func is used.
new_name

[str, optional] The new name for the function. Default is None, in which case the deprecation message is that old_name is deprecated. If given, the deprecation message is that old_name is deprecated and new_name should be used instead.

message

[str, optional] Additional explanation of the deprecation. Displayed in the docstring after the warning.

Returns

old_func

[function] The deprecated function.

Examples

Note that olduint returns a value after printing Deprecation Warning:

```python
>>> olduint = np.deprecate(np.uint)
DeprecationWarning: `uint64` is deprecated! # may vary
>>> olduint(6)
6
```

numpy.deprecate_with_doc(msg)

Deprecates a function and includes the deprecation in its docstring.

This function is used as a decorator. It returns an object that can be used to issue a DeprecationWarning, by passing the to-be decorated function as argument, this adds warning to the to-be decorated function’s docstring and returns the new function object.

Parameters

msg

[str] Additional explanation of the deprecation. Displayed in the docstring after the warning.

Returns

obj

[object]

See also:

deprecate

Decorate a function such that it issues a DeprecationWarning.

numpy.broadcast_shapes(*args)

Broadcast the input shapes into a single shape.

Learn more about broadcasting here.

New in version 1.20.0.

Parameters
`*args`

[tuples of ints, or ints] The shapes to be broadcast against each other.

**Returns**

tuple

Broadcasted shape.

**Raises**

**ValueError**

If the shapes are not compatible and cannot be broadcast according to NumPy's broadcasting rules.

**See also:**

`broadcast`

`broadcast_arrays`

`broadcast_to`

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.broadcast_shapes((1, 2), (3, 1), (3, 2))
(3, 2)

>>> np.broadcast_shapes((6, 7), (5, 6, 1), (7,), (5, 1, 7))
(5, 6, 7)
```

### 4.20.6 Matlab-like Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>who([vardict])</code></td>
<td>Print the NumPy arrays in the given dictionary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>disp(msg[, device, linefeed])</code></td>
<td>Display a message on a device.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
numpy.who(vardict=None)
```

Print the NumPy arrays in the given dictionary.

If there is no dictionary passed in or `vardict` is None then returns NumPy arrays in the `globals()` dictionary (all NumPy arrays in the namespace).

**Parameters**

vardict

[dict, optional] A dictionary possibly containing ndarrays. Default is `globals()`.

**Returns**

out

[None] Returns 'None'.

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Prints out the name, shape, bytes and type of all of the ndarrays present in `vardict`.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(10)
>>> b = np.ones(20)
>>> np.who()
Name  Shape  Bytes  Type
a     10      80  int64
b     20     160  float64
Upper bound on total bytes = 240
```

```python
>>> d = {'x': np.arange(2.0), 'y': np.arange(3.0), 'txt': 'Some str', ... 'idx':5}
>>> np.who(d)
Name  Shape  Bytes  Type
x     2      16  float64
y     3      24  float64
Upper bound on total bytes = 40
```

`numpy.disp(mesg, device=None, linefeed=True)`

Display a message on a device.

Parameters

- **mesg**
  
  [str] Message to display.

- **device**
  
  [object] Device to write message. If None, defaults to `sys.stdout` which is very similar to `print`. `device` needs to have `write()` and `flush()` methods.

- **linefeed**
  
  [bool, optional] Option whether to print a line feed or not. Defaults to True.

Raises

- **AttributeError**
  
  If `device` does not have a `write()` or `flush()` method.
Examples

Besides `sys.stdout`, a file-like object can also be used as it has both required methods:

```python
>>> from io import StringIO
>>> buf = StringIO()
>>> npdisp(u"Display" in a file', device=buf)
>>> buf.getvalue()
'"Display" in a file\n'
```

4.21 Padding Arrays

```
pad(array, pad_width[, mode]) Pad an array.

numpy.pad(array, pad_width, mode='constant', **kwargs)
Pad an array.

Parameters

array
[array_like of rank N] The array to pad.

pad_width
[sequence, array_like, int] Number of values padded to the edges of each axis. ((before_1, after_1), ... (before_N, after_N)) unique pad widths for each axis. ((before, after),) yields same before and after pad for each axis. (pad,) or int is a shortcut for before = after = pad width for all axes.

mode
[str or function, optional] One of the following string values or a user supplied function.

'constant' (default)
Pads with a constant value.

'edge'
Pads with the edge values of array.

'linear_ramp'
Pads with the linear ramp between end_value and the array edge value.

'maximum'
Pads with the maximum value of all or part of the vector along each axis.

'mean'
Pads with the mean value of all or part of the vector along each axis.

'median'
Pads with the median value of all or part of the vector along each axis.

'minimum'
Pads with the minimum value of all or part of the vector along each axis.
```
'reflect'
Pads with the reflection of the vector mirrored on the first and last values of the vector along each axis.

'symmetric'
Pads with the reflection of the vector mirrored along the edge of the array.

'wrap'
Pads with the wrap of the vector along the axis. The first values are used to pad the end and the end values are used to pad the beginning.

'empty'
Pads with undefined values.
New in version 1.17.

<function>
Padding function, see Notes.

stat_length
[sequence or int, optional] Used in 'maximum', 'mean', 'median', and 'minimum'. Number of values at edge of each axis used to calculate the statistic value.

((before_1, after_1), ... (before_N, after_N)) unique statistic lengths for each axis.

((before, after),) yields same before and after statistic lengths for each axis.

(stat_length,) or int is a shortcut for before = after = statistic length for all axes.
Default is None, to use the entire axis.

constant_values
[sequence or scalar, optional] Used in 'constant'. The values to set the padded values for each axis.

((before_1, after_1), ... (before_N, after_N)) unique pad constants for each axis.

((before, after),) yields same before and after constants for each axis.

(constant,) or constant is a shortcut for before = after = constant for all axes.
Default is 0.

end_values
[sequence or scalar, optional] Used in 'linear_ramp'. The values used for the ending value of the linear_ramp and that will form the edge of the padded array.

((before_1, after_1), ... (before_N, after_N)) unique end values for each axis.

((before, after),) yields same before and after end values for each axis.

(constant,) or constant is a shortcut for before = after = constant for all axes.
Default is 0.
reflect_type

[{'even', 'odd'}, optional] Used in 'reflect', and 'symmetric'. The 'even' style is the default with an unaltered reflection around the edge value. For the 'odd' style, the extended part of the array is created by subtracting the reflected values from two times the edge value.

Returns

pad

[ndarray] Padded array of rank equal to array with shape increased according to pad_width.

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

For an array with rank greater than 1, some of the padding of later axes is calculated from padding of previous axes. This is easiest to think about with a rank 2 array where the corners of the padded array are calculated by using padded values from the first axis.

The padding function, if used, should modify a rank 1 array in-place. It has the following signature:

```
padding_func(vector, iaxis_pad_width, iaxis, kwargs)
```

where

vector

[ndarray] A rank 1 array already padded with zeros. Padded values are vector[:iaxis_pad_width[0]] and vector[-iaxis_pad_width[1]:].

iaxis_pad_width

[tuple] A 2-tuple of ints, iaxis_pad_width[0] represents the number of values padded at the beginning of vector where iaxis_pad_width[1] represents the number of values padded at the end of vector.

iaxis

[int] The axis currently being calculated.

kwargs

[dict] Any keyword arguments the function requires.

Examples

```python
>>> a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
>>> np.pad(a, (2, 3), 'constant', constant_values=(4, 6))
array([4, 4, 1, ..., 6, 6, 6])
```

```python
>>> np.pad(a, (2, 3), 'edge')
array([1, 1, 1, ..., 5, 5, 5])
```

```python
>>> np.pad(a, (2, 3), 'linear_ramp', end_values=(5, -4))
array([ 5, 3, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 2, -1, -4])
```
>>> np.pad(a, (2,), 'maximum')
array([5, 5, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 5, 5])

>>> np.pad(a, (2,), 'mean')
array([3, 3, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 3, 3])

>>> np.pad(a, (2,), 'median')
array([3, 3, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 3, 3])

>>> a = [[1, 2], [3, 4]]
>>> np.pad(a, ((3, 2), (2, 3)), 'minimum')
array([[1, 1, 1, 2, 1, 1, 1],
       [1, 1, 1, 2, 1, 1, 1],
       [1, 1, 1, 2, 1, 1, 1],
       [3, 3, 3, 4, 3, 3, 3],
       [1, 1, 1, 2, 1, 1, 1],
       [1, 1, 1, 2, 1, 1, 1]])

>>> a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
>>> np.pad(a, (2, 3), 'reflect')
array([3, 2, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 4, 3])

>>> np.pad(a, (2, 3), 'reflect', reflect_type='odd')
array([-1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8])

>>> np.pad(a, (2, 3), 'symmetric')
array([2, 1, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 5, 4, 3])

>>> np.pad(a, (2, 3), 'symmetric', reflect_type='odd')
array([0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 5, 6, 7])

>>> def pad_with(vector, pad_width, iaxis, kwargs):
...     pad_value = kwargs.get('padder', 10)
...     vector[:pad_width[0]] = pad_value
...     vector[-pad_width[1]:] = pad_value
>>> a = np.arange(6)
>>> a = a.reshape((2, 3))
>>> np.pad(a, 2, pad_with)
array([[10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10],
       [10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10],
       [10, 0, 1, 2, 10, 10],
       [10, 3, 4, 5, 10, 10],
       [10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10],
       [10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10]])

>>> np.pad(a, 2, pad_with, padder=100)
array([[100, 100, 100, 100, 100, 100],
       [100, 100, 100, 100, 100, 100],
       [100, 0, 1, 2, 100, 100],
       [100, 3, 4, 5, 100, 100],
       [100, 100, 100, 100, 100, 100],
       [100, 100, 100, 100, 100, 100]])
4.22 Polynomials

Polynomials in NumPy can be created, manipulated, and even fitted using the convenience classes of the numpy.polynomial package, introduced in NumPy 1.4.

Prior to NumPy 1.4, numpy.poly1d was the class of choice and it is still available in order to maintain backward compatibility. However, the newer polynomial package is more complete and its convenience classes provide a more consistent, better-behaved interface for working with polynomial expressions. Therefore numpy.polynomial is recommended for new coding.

Note: Terminology

The term polynomial module refers to the old API defined in numpy.lib.polynomial, which includes the numpy.poly1d class and the polynomial functions prefixed with poly accessible from the numpy namespace (e.g. numpy.polyadd, numpy.polyval, numpy.polyfit, etc.).

The term polynomial package refers to the new API defined in numpy.polynomial, which includes the convenience classes for the different kinds of polynomials (numpy.polynomial.Polynomial, numpy.polynomial.Chebyshev, etc.).

4.22.1 Transitioning from numpy.poly1d to numpy.polynomial

As noted above, the poly1d class and associated functions defined in numpy.lib.polynomial, such as numpy.polyfit and numpy.poly, are considered legacy and should not be used in new code. Since NumPy version 1.4, the numpy.polynomial package is preferred for working with polynomials.

Quick Reference

The following table highlights some of the main differences between the legacy polynomial module and the polynomial package for common tasks. The Polynomial class is imported for brevity:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How to...</th>
<th>Legacy (numpy.poly1d)</th>
<th>numpy.polynomial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Create a polynomial object from coefficients(^1)</td>
<td>p = np.poly1d([1, 2, 3])</td>
<td>p = Polynomial([3, 2, 1])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create a polynomial object from roots</td>
<td>r = np.poly([-1, 1])</td>
<td>p = Polynomial.fromroots([-1, 1])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fit a polynomial of degree deg to data</td>
<td>np.polyfit(x, y, deg)</td>
<td>Polynomial.fit(x, y, deg)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) Note the reversed ordering of the coefficients
Transition Guide

There are significant differences between `numpy.lib.polynomial` and `numpy.polynomial`. The most significant difference is the ordering of the coefficients for the polynomial expressions. The various routines in `numpy.polynomial` all deal with series whose coefficients go from degree zero upward, which is the reverse order of the `poly1d` convention. The easy way to remember this is that indices correspond to degree, i.e., `coef[i]` is the coefficient of the term of degree `i`.

Though the difference in convention may be confusing, it is straightforward to convert from the legacy polynomial API to the new. For example, the following demonstrates how you would convert a `numpy.poly1d` instance representing the expression $x^2 + 2x + 3$ to a `Polynomial` instance representing the same expression:

```python
>>> p1d = np.poly1d([1, 2, 3])
>>> p = np.polynomial.Polynomial(p1d.coef[::-1])
```

In addition to the `coef` attribute, polynomials from the polynomial package also have `domain` and `window` attributes. These attributes are most relevant when fitting polynomials to data, though it should be noted that polynomials with different `domain` and `window` attributes are not considered equal, and can't be mixed in arithmetic:

```python
>>> p1 = np.polynomial.Polynomial([1, 2, 3])
>>> p1
Polynomial([1., 2., 3.], domain=[-1, 1], window=[-1, 1])
>>> p2 = np.polynomial.Polynomial([1, 2, 3], domain=[-2, 2])
>>> p1 == p2
False
```

See the documentation for the convenience classes for further details on the `domain` and `window` attributes.

Another major difference between the legacy polynomial module and the polynomial package is polynomial fitting. In the old module, fitting was done via the `polyfit` function. In the polynomial package, the `fit` class method is preferred. For example, consider a simple linear fit to the following data:

```python
In [1]: rng = np.random.default_rng()
In [2]: x = np.arange(10)
In [3]: y = np.arange(10) + rng.standard_normal(10)
```

With the legacy polynomial module, a linear fit (i.e. polynomial of degree 1) could be applied to these data with `polyfit`:

```python
In [4]: np.polyfit(x, y, deg=1)
Out[4]: array([-1.13710724, -0.50899358])
```

With the new polynomial API, the `fit` class method is preferred:

```python
In [5]: p_fitted = np.polynomial.Polynomial.fit(x, y, deg=1)
In [6]: p_fitted
Out[6]: Polynomial([4.60798907, 5.11698258], domain=[0. , 9.0], window=[-1.0, 1.0])
```

Note that the coefficients are given in the `scaled domain` defined by the linear mapping between the `window` and `domain`. `convert` can be used to get the coefficients in the unscaled data domain.
4.22.2 Documentation for the polynomial Package

In addition to standard power series polynomials, the polynomial package provides several additional kinds of polynomials including Chebyshev, Hermite (two subtypes), Laguerre, and Legendre polynomials. Each of these has an associated convenience class available from the `numpy.polynomial` namespace that provides a consistent interface for working with polynomials regardless of their type.

Using the Convenience Classes

The convenience classes provided by the polynomial package are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Provides</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Polynomial</td>
<td>Power series</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chebyshev</td>
<td>Chebyshev series</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legendre</td>
<td>Legendre series</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laguerre</td>
<td>Laguerre series</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hermite</td>
<td>Hermite series</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HermiteE</td>
<td>HermiteE series</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The series in this context are finite sums of the corresponding polynomial basis functions multiplied by coefficients. For instance, a power series looks like

\[ p(x) = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 \]

and has coefficients \([1, 2, 3]\). The Chebyshev series with the same coefficients looks like

\[ p(x) = 1T_0(x) + 2T_1(x) + 3T_2(x) \]

and more generally

\[ p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_iT_i(x) \]

where in this case the \(T_n\) are the Chebyshev functions of degree \(n\), but could just as easily be the basis functions of any of the other classes. The convention for all the classes is that the coefficient \(c[i]\) goes with the basis function of degree \(i\).

All of the classes are immutable and have the same methods, and especially they implement the Python numeric operators `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `%`, `divmod`, `**`, `==`, and `!=`. The last two can be a bit problematic due to floating point roundoff errors. We now give a quick demonstration of the various operations using NumPy version 1.7.0.

Basics

First we need a polynomial class and a polynomial instance to play with. The classes can be imported directly from the polynomial package or from the module of the relevant type. Here we import from the package and use the conventional Polynomial class because of its familiarity:

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import Polynomial as P
>>> p = P([1,2,3])
>>> p
Polynomial([1., 2., 3.], domain=[-1, 1], window=[-1, 1])
```
Note that there are three parts to the long version of the printout. The first is the coefficients, the second is the domain, and the third is the window:

```python
>>> p.coef
array([ 1., 2., 3.])
>>> p.domain
array([-1., 1.])
>>> p.window
array([-1., 1.])
```

Printing a polynomial yields the polynomial expression in a more familiar format:

```python
>>> print(p)
1.0 + 2.0·x¹ + 3.0·x²
```

Note that the string representation of polynomials uses Unicode characters by default (except on Windows) to express powers and subscripts. An ASCII-based representation is also available (default on Windows). The polynomial string format can be toggled at the package-level with the `set_default_printstyle` function:

```python
>>> numpy.polynomial.set_default_printstyle('ascii')
>>> print(p)
1.0 + 2.0 x**1 + 3.0 x**2
```

or controlled for individual polynomial instances with string formatting:

```python
>>> print(f"{p:unicode}")
1.0 + 2.0·x¹ + 3.0·x²
```

We will deal with the domain and window when we get to fitting, for the moment we ignore them and run through the basic algebraic and arithmetic operations.

Addition and Subtraction:

```python
>>> p + p
Polynomial([2., 4., 6.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> p - p
Polynomial([0.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

Multiplication:

```python
>>> p * p
Polynomial([ 1., 4., 10., 12., 9.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

Powers:

```python
>>> p**2
Polynomial([ 1., 4., 10., 12., 9.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

Division:

Floor division, `//`, is the division operator for the polynomial classes, polynomials are treated like integers in this regard. For Python versions < 3.x the `'/'` operator maps to `'//'`, as it does for Python, for later versions the `'/'` will only work for division by scalars. At some point it will be deprecated:

```python
>>> p // P([-1, 1])
Polynomial([5., 3.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

Remainder:
Divmod:

```python
>>> quo, rem = divmod(p, P([-1, 1]))
>>> quo
Polynomial([5., 3.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> rem
Polynomial([6.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

Evaluation:

```python
>>> x = np.arange(5)
>>> p(x)
array([1., 6., 17., 34., 57.])
>>> x = np.arange(6).reshape(3,2)
>>> p(x)
array([[1., 6.],
       [17., 34.],
       [57., 86.]])
```

Substitution:

Substitute a polynomial for x and expand the result. Here we substitute p in itself leading to a new polynomial of degree 4 after expansion. If the polynomials are regarded as functions this is composition of functions:

```python
>>> p(p)
Polynomial([6., 16., 36., 36., 27.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

Roots:

```python
>>> p.roots()
array([-0.33333333-0.47140452j, -0.33333333+0.47140452j])
```

It isn’t always convenient to explicitly use Polynomial instances, so tuples, lists, arrays, and scalars are automatically cast in the arithmetic operations:

```python
>>> p + [1, 2, 3]
Polynomial([2., 4., 6.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> [1, 2, 3] * p
Polynomial([1., 4., 10., 12., 9.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> p / 2
Polynomial([0.5, 1., 1.5], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

Polynomials that differ in domain, window, or class can’t be mixed in arithmetic:

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import Chebyshev as T
>>> p + P([[1], domain=[0,1])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
    File "<string>", line 213, in __add__
TypeError: Domains differ
>>> p + P([1], window=[0,1])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
    File "<string>", line 215, in __add__
```
But different types can be used for substitution. In fact, this is how conversion of Polynomial classes among themselves is done for type, domain, and window casting:

```python
>>> p(T([0, 1]))
Chebyshev([2.5, 2.0, 1.5], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

Which gives the polynomial $p$ in Chebyshev form. This works because $T_1(x) = x$ and substituting $x$ for $x$ doesn't change the original polynomial. However, all the multiplications and divisions will be done using Chebyshev series, hence the type of the result.

It is intended that all polynomial instances are immutable, therefore augmented operations ($+,$ $-$, etc.) and any other functionality that would violate the immutability of a polynomial instance are intentionally unimplemented.

### Calculus

Polynomial instances can be integrated and differentiated:

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import Polynomial as P
>>> p = P([2, 6])
>>> p.integ()
Polynomial([0., 2., 3.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> p.integ(2)
Polynomial([0., 0., 1., 1.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

The first example integrates $p$ once, the second example integrates it twice. By default, the lower bound of the integration and the integration constant are 0, but both can be specified:

```python
>>> p.integ(lbnd=-1)
Polynomial([-1., 2., 3.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> p.integ(lbnd=-1, k=1)
Polynomial([0., 2., 3.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

In the first case the lower bound of the integration is set to -1 and the integration constant is 0. In the second the constant of integration is set to 1 as well. Differentiation is simpler since the only option is the number of times the polynomial is differentiated:

```python
>>> p = P([1, 2, 3])
>>> p.deriv(1)
Polynomial([2., 6.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> p.deriv(2)
Polynomial([6.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```
Other Polynomial Constructors

Constructing polynomials by specifying coefficients is just one way of obtaining a polynomial instance, they may also be created by specifying their roots, by conversion from other polynomial types, and by least squares fits. Fitting is discussed in its own section, the other methods are demonstrated below:

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import Polynomial as P
>>> from numpy.polynomial import Chebyshev as T
>>> p = P.fromroots([1, 2, 3])
>>> p
Polynomial([-6., 11., -6., 1.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> p.convert(kind=T)
Chebyshev([-9., 11.75, -3., 0.25], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

The convert method can also convert domain and window:

```python
>>> p.convert(kind=T, domain=[0, 1])
Chebyshev([-2.4375, 2.96875, -0.5625, 0.03125], domain=[0., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> p.convert(kind=P, domain=[0, 1])
Polynomial([-1.875, 2.875, -1.125, 0.125], domain=[0., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

In numpy versions >= 1.7.0 the `basis` and `cast` class methods are also available. The cast method works like the convert method while the basis method returns the basis polynomial of given degree:

```python
>>> P.basis(3)
Polynomial([0., 0., 0., 1.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> T.cast(p)
Chebyshev([-9., 11.75, -3., 0.25], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
```

Conversions between types can be useful, but it is not recommended for routine use. The loss of numerical precision in passing from a Chebyshev series of degree 50 to a Polynomial series of the same degree can make the results of numerical evaluation essentially random.

Fitting

Fitting is the reason that the `domain` and `window` attributes are part of the convenience classes. To illustrate the problem, the values of the Chebyshev polynomials up to degree 5 are plotted below:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from numpy.polynomial import Chebyshev as T
>>> x = np.linspace(-1, 1, 100)
>>> for i in range(6):
...     ax = plt.plot(x, T.basis(i)(x), lw=2, label=f"$T_{i}$")
...     ...
>>> plt.legend(loc="upper left")
<matplotlib.legend.Legend object at 0x3b3ee10>
>>> plt.show()
```

In the range -1 <= x <= 1 they are nice, equiripple functions lying between +/- 1. The same plots over the range -2 <= x <= 2 look very different:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from numpy.polynomial import Chebyshev as T
>>> x = np.linspace(-2, 2, 100)
>>> for i in range(6):
...     ax = plt.plot(x, T.basis(i)(x), lw=2, label=f"$T_{i}$")
...     ...
```

(continues on next page)
As can be seen, the “good” parts have shrunk to insignificance. In using Chebyshev polynomials for fitting we want to use the region where \( x \) is between -1 and 1 and that is what the window specifies. However, it is unlikely that the data to be fit has all its data points in that interval, so we use domain to specify the interval where the data points lie. When the fit is done, the domain is first mapped to the window by a linear transformation and the usual least squares fit is done using the mapped data points. The window and domain of the fit are part of the returned series and are automatically used when computing values, derivatives, and such. If they aren’t specified in the call the fitting routine will use the default window and the smallest domain that holds all the data points. This is illustrated below for a fit to a noisy sine curve.
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from numpy.polynomial import Chebyshev as T
>>> np.random.seed(11)
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 2*np.pi, 20)
>>> y = np.sin(x) + np.random.normal(scale=1, size=x.shape)
>>> p = T.fit(x, y, 5)
>>> plt.plot(x, y, 'o')
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x2136c10>]
>>> xx, yy = p.linspace()
>>> plt.plot(xx, yy, lw=2)
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x1cf2890>]
>>> p.domain
array([ 0. , 6.28318531])
>>> p.window
array([-1., 1.])
>>> plt.show()

>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from numpy.polynomial import Chebyshev as T
>>> np.random.seed(11)
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 2*np.pi, 20)
>>> y = np.sin(x) + np.random.normal(scale=1, size=x.shape)
>>> p = T.fit(x, y, 5)
>>> plt.plot(x, y, 'o')
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x2136c10>]
>>> xx, yy = p.linspace()
>>> plt.plot(xx, yy, lw=2)
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x1cf2890>]
>>> p.domain
array([ 0. , 6.28318531])
>>> p.window
array([-1., 1.])
>>> plt.show()

Documentation pertaining to specific functions defined for each kind of polynomial individually can be found in the corresponding module documentation:

New in version 1.4.0.
Power Series (numpy.polynomial.polynomial)

This module provides a number of objects (mostly functions) useful for dealing with polynomials, including a Polynomial class that encapsulates the usual arithmetic operations. (General information on how this module represents and works with polynomial objects is in the docstring for its “parent” sub-package, numpy.polynomial).

Classes

Polynomial(coef[, domain, window])

A power series class.

class numpy.polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial(coef, domain=None, window=None)

A power series class.

The Polynomial class provides the standard Python numerical methods `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `%`, `divmod`, `**`, and `()` as well as the attributes and methods listed in the ABCPolyBase documentation.

Parameters

coef

[array_like] Polynomial coefficients in order of increasing degree, i.e., `(1, 2, 3)` give `1 + 2*x + 3*x**2`.

domain

[(2,) array_like, optional] Domain to use. The interval `[domain[0], domain[1]]` is mapped to the interval `[window[0], window[1]]` by shifting and scaling. The default value is [-1, 1].

window

[(2,) array_like, optional] Window, see domain for its use. The default value is [-1, 1].

New in version 1.6.0.

Attributes

basis_name

Methods

_call_(arg)

Call self as a function.

basis(deg[, domain, window])

Series basis polynomial of degree `deg`.

cast(series[, domain, window])

Convert series to series of this class.

convert((domain, kind, window))

Convert series to a different kind and/or domain and/or window.

copy()

Return a copy.

cutdeg(deg)

Truncate series to the given degree.

degree()

The degree of the series.

deriv(m)

Differentiate.

fit(x, y, deg[, domain, rcond, full, w, window])

Least squares fit to data.

fromroots(roots[, domain, window])

Return series instance that has the specified roots.

has_samecoef(other)

Check if coefficients match.

has_samedomain(other)

Check if domains match.
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**method**

```python
polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.__call__(arg)
```

Call self as a function.

**method**

```python
classmethod polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.basis(deg, domain=None, window=None)
```

Series basis polynomial of degree `deg`.

Returns the series representing the basis polynomial of degree `deg`.

New in version 1.7.0.

**Parameters**

- `deg`
  - [int] Degree of the basis polynomial for the series. Must be >= 0.

- `domain`
  - [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

- `window`
  - [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

**Returns**

- `new_series`
  - [series] A series with the coefficient of the `deg` term set to one and all others zero.

**method**

```python
classmethod polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.cast(series, domain=None, window=None)
```

Convert series to series of this class.

The `series` is expected to be an instance of some polynomial series of one of the types supported by by the `numpy.polynomial` module, but could be some other class that supports the `convert` method.

New in version 1.7.0.
Parameters

series

[series] The series instance to be converted.

domain

[None, array_like, optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

window

[None, array_like, optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

[series] A series of the same kind as the calling class and equal to series when evaluated.

See also:

convert

similar instance method

method

polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.convert (domain=None, kind=None, window=None)

Convert series to a different kind and/or domain and/or window.

Parameters

domain

[array_like, optional] The domain of the converted series. If the value is None, the default domain of kind is used.

kind

[class, optional] The polynomial series type class to which the current instance should be converted. If kind is None, then the class of the current instance is used.

window

[array_like, optional] The window of the converted series. If the value is None, the default window of kind is used.

Returns

new_series

[series] The returned class can be of different type than the current instance and/or have a different domain and/or different window.
Notes

Conversion between domains and class types can result in numerically ill defined series.

method

copy

polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.copy()

Return a copy.

Returns

new_series

[series] Copy of self.

method

cutdeg

polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.cutdeg(deg)

Truncate series to the given degree.

Reduce the degree of the series to \( \text{deg} \) by discarding the high order terms. If \( \text{deg} \) is greater than the current degree a copy of the current series is returned. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters

deg

[non-negative int] The series is reduced to degree \( \text{deg} \) by discarding the high order terms. The value of \( \text{deg} \) must be a non-negative integer.

Returns

new_series

[series] New instance of series with reduced degree.

method

degree

polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.degree()

The degree of the series.

New in version 1.5.0.

Returns

degree

[int] Degree of the series, one less than the number of coefficients.

method

deriv

polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.deriv(m=1)

Differentiate.

Return a series instance of that is the derivative of the current series.

Parameters
m
[non-negative int] Find the derivative of order m.

Returns

new_series
[series] A new series representing the derivative. The domain is the same as the domain of
the differentiated series.

method
classmethod polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.fit(x, y, deg, domain=None, rcond=None,
full=False, w=None, window=None)

Leastsquares fit to data.
Return a series instance that is the least squares fit to the data y sampled at x. The domain of the returned
instance can be specified and this will often result in a superior fit with less chance of ill conditioning.

Parameters

x
[array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points (x[i], y[i]).

y
[array_like, shape (M,)] y-coordinates of the M sample points (x[i], y[i]).

deg
[int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If deg is a single integer all terms
up to and including the deg'th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions >= 1.11.0 a
list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.

domain
[[None, [beg, end], []], optional] Domain to use for the returned series. If None, then a
minimal domain that covers the points x is chosen. If [] the class domain is used. The
default value was the class domain in NumPy 1.4 and None in later versions. The [] option
was added in numpy 1.5.0.

rcond
[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative
to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is len(x)*eps, where eps is the
relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.

full
[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default)
just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value
decomposition is also returned.

w
[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None the contribution of each point
(x[i], y[i]) to the fit is weighted by w[i]. Ideally the weights are chosen so that the
errors of the products w[i]*y[i] all have the same variance. The default value is None.

New in version 1.5.0.
window

```python
[[[beg, end]], optional] Window to use for the returned series. The default value is the default
class domain

New in version 1.6.0.
```

**Returns**

**new_series**

```python
[series] A series that represents the least squares fit to the data and has the domain and window
specified in the call. If the coefficients for the unscaled and unshifted basis polynomials are
of interest, do `new_series.convert().coef`.
```

**[resid, rank, sv, rcond]**

```python
[list] These values are only returned if `full = True`

resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit
rank – the numerical rank of the
scaled Vandermonde matrix
sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix
rcond – value of `rcond`.
```

For more details, see `linalg.lstsq`.

**method**

```python
classmethod polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.fromroots(roots, domain=[],
window=None)
```

Return series instance that has the specified roots.

Returns a series representing the product 
\( (x - r[0])*(x - r[1])*...*(x - r[n-1]) \), where 
\( r \) is a list of roots.

**Parameters**

**roots**

```python
[array_like] List of roots.
```

**domain**

```python
[[[], None, array_like], optional] Domain for the resulting series. If None the domain is the
interval from the smallest root to the largest. If [] the domain is the class domain. The default
is [].
```

**window**

```python
[[None, array_like], optional] Window for the returned series. If None the class window is
used. The default is None.
```

**Returns**

**new_series**

```python
[series] Series with the specified roots.
```

**method**

```python
polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.has_samecoef(other)
```

Check if coefficients match.

New in version 1.6.0.
Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the `coef` attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the coefficients are the same, False otherwise.

method
decorator

```
polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial

has_samedomain(self, other)
```

Check if domains match.

New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the `domain` attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the domains are the same, False otherwise.

method
decorator

```
polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial

has_sametype(self, other)
```

Check if types match.

New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

other

[object] Class instance.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if other is same class as self

method
decorator

```
polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial

has_samewindow(self, other)
```

Check if windows match.

New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the `window` attribute.
Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the windows are the same, False otherwise.

method
classmethod polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.identity(domain=None, window=None)

Identity function.

If \( p \) is the returned series, then \( p(x) = x \) for all values of \( x \).

Parameters

domain

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form \([\text{beg, end}]\), where \( \text{beg} \) and \( \text{end} \) are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

window

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be of the form \([\text{beg, end}]\), where \( \text{beg} \) and \( \text{end} \) are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

[series] Series of representing the identity.

method
polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.integ(m=1, k=[], lbnd=None)

Integrate.

Return a series instance that is the definite integral of the current series.

Parameters

m

[non-negative int] The number of integrations to perform.

k

[array_like] Integration constants. The first constant is applied to the first integration, the second to the second, and so on. The list of values must less than or equal to \( m \) in length and any missing values are set to zero.

lbnd

[Scalar] The lower bound of the definite integral.

Returns
**new_series**

[series] A new series representing the integral. The domain is the same as the domain of the integrated series.

**method**

`polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.linspace(n=100, domain=None)`

Return x, y values at equally spaced points in domain.

Returns the x, y values at n linearly spaced points across the domain. Here y is the value of the polynomial at the points x. By default the domain is the same as that of the series instance. This method is intended mostly as a plotting aid.

New in version 1.5.0.

**Parameters**

- **n**
  - [int, optional] Number of point pairs to return. The default value is 100.

- **domain**
  - [[None, array_like], optional] If not None, the specified domain is used instead of that of the calling instance. It should be of the form [beg, end]. The default is None which case the class domain is used.

**Returns**

- **x, y**
  - [ndarray] x is equal to linspace(self.domain[0], self.domain[1], n) and y is the series evaluated at element of x.

**method**

`polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.mapparms()`

Return the mapping parameters.

The returned values define a linear map $off + scl \cdot x$ that is applied to the input arguments before the series is evaluated. The map depends on the domain and window; if the current domain is equal to the window the resulting map is the identity. If the coefficients of the series instance are to be used by themselves outside this class, then the linear function must be substituted for the $x$ in the standard representation of the base polynomials.

**Returns**

- **off, scl**
  - [float or complex] The mapping function is defined by $off + scl \cdot x$. 

---

**4.22. Polynomials**
Notes

If the current domain is the interval \([l_1, r_1]\) and the window is \([l_2, r_2]\), then the linear mapping function \(L\) is defined by the equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
    L(l_1) &= l_2 \\
    L(r_1) &= r_2
\end{align*}
\]

method

\texttt{polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.\texttt{roots}}()

Return the roots of the series polynomial.

Compute the roots for the series. Note that the accuracy of the roots decrease the further outside the domain they lie.

Returns

\texttt{roots}

[ndarray] Array containing the roots of the series.

method

\texttt{polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.\texttt{trim}}(\texttt{tol=0})

Remove trailing coefficients

Remove trailing coefficients until a coefficient is reached whose absolute value greater than \(tol\) or the beginning of the series is reached. If all the coefficients would be removed the series is set to \([0]\). A new series instance is returned with the new coefficients. The current instance remains unchanged.

Parameters

\texttt{tol}

[non-negative number.] All trailing coefficients less than \(tol\) will be removed.

Returns

\texttt{new_series}


method

\texttt{polynomial.polynomial.Polynomial.\texttt{truncate}}(\texttt{size})

Truncate series to length \texttt{size}.

Reduce the series to length \(size\) by discarding the high degree terms. The value of \texttt{size} must be a positive integer. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

Parameters

\texttt{size}

[positive int] The series is reduced to length \texttt{size} by discarding the high degree terms. The value of \texttt{size} must be a positive integer.

Returns
new_series


Constants

polydomain

polynomial.polynomial.polydomain = array([-1, 1])

polyzero

polynomial.polynomial.polyzero = array([0])

polyone

polynomial.polynomial.polyone = array([1])

polyx

polynomial.polynomial.polyx = array([0, 1])

Arithmetic

polyadd(c1, c2) Add one polynomial to another.

polyadd(c1, c2)

polynulx(c) Multiply a polynomial by x.

polynul(c1, c2) Multiply one polynomial by another.

polydiv(c1, c2) Divide one polynomial by another.

polypow(c, pow[, maxpower]) Raise a polynomial to a power.

polyval(x, c[, tensor]) Evaluate a polynomial at points x.

polyval2d(x, y, c) Evaluate a 2-D polynomial at points (x, y).

polyval3d(x, y, z, c) Evaluate a 3-D polynomial at points (x, y, z).

polygrid2d(x, y, c) Evaluate a 2-D polynomial on the Cartesian product of x and y.

polygrid3d(x, y, z, c) Evaluate a 3-D polynomial on the Cartesian product of x, y and z.

polynomial.polynomial.polyadd(c1, c2)

Add one polynomial to another.

Returns

out

[ndarray] The coefficient array representing their sum.

4.22. Polynomials
See also:

polysub, polymulx, polymul, polydiv, polypow

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polynomial as P
>>> c1 = (1,2,3)
>>> c2 = (3,2,1)
>>> sum = P.polyadd(c1,c2); sum
array([4., 4., 4.])
>>> P.polyval(2, sum)  # 4 + 4(2) + 4(2**2)
28.0
```

polynomial.polynomial.polysub(c1, c2)

Subtract one polynomial from another.

Returns the difference of two polynomials c1 - c2. The arguments are sequences of coefficients from lowest order term to highest, i.e., [1,2,3] represents the polynomial 1 + 2x + 3x**2.

Parameters

- **c1, c2**
  
  [array_like] 1-D arrays of polynomial coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

- **out**
  
  [ndarray] Of coefficients representing their difference.

See also:

polyadd, polymulx, polymul, polydiv, polypow

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polynomial as P
>>> c1 = (1,2,3)
>>> c2 = (3,2,1)
>>> P.polysub(c1,c2)
array([-2., 0., 2.])
>>> P.polysub(c2,c1)  # -P.polysub(c1,c2)
array([2., 0., -2.])
```

polynomial.polynomial.polymulx(c)

Multiply a polynomial by x.

Multiply the polynomial c by x, where x is the independent variable.

Parameters

- **c**
  
  [array_like] 1-D array of polynomial coefficients ordered from low to high.
Returns

out

[ndarray] Array representing the result of the multiplication.

See also:

polyadd, polysub, polymul, polydiv, polypow

Notes

New in version 1.5.0.

polynomial.polynomial.polymul(c1, c2)
Multiply one polynomial by another.

Returns the product of two polynomials \( c1 \times c2 \). The arguments are sequences of coefficients, from lowest order term to highest, e.g., \([1,2,3]\) represents the polynomial \( 1 + 2x + 3x^2 \).

Parameters

c1, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of coefficients representing a polynomial, relative to the “standard” basis, and ordered from lowest order term to highest.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Of the coefficients of their product.

See also:

polyadd, polysub, polymulx, polydiv, polypow

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polynomial as P
>>> c1 = (1,2,3)
>>> c2 = (3,2,1)
>>> P.polymul(c1,c2)
array([ 3., 8., 14., 8., 3.])
```

polynomial.polynomial.polydiv(c1, c2)
Divide one polynomial by another.

Returns the quotient-with-remainder of two polynomials \( c1 / c2 \). The arguments are sequences of coefficients, from lowest order term to highest, e.g., \([1,2,3]\) represents \( 1 + 2x + 3x^2 \).

Parameters

c1, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of polynomial coefficients ordered from low to high.
Returns

[quo, rem]

[ndarrays] Of coefficient series representing the quotient and remainder.

See also:

polyadd, polysub, polymulx, polymul, polypow

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polynomial as P
>>> c1 = (1,2,3)
>>> c2 = (3,2,1)
>>> P.polydiv(c1, c2)
(array([3. ]), array([-8., -4.]))
>>> P.polydiv(c2, c1)
(array([ 0.33333333]), array([ 2.66666667, 1.33333333])) # may vary
```

denom = polynomial.polynomial.polypow (c, pow, maxpower=None)

Raise a polynomial to a power.

Returns the polynomial \( c \) raised to the power \( pow \). The argument \( c \) is a sequence of coefficients ordered from low to high. i.e., \([1,2,3]\) is the series \( 1 + 2x + 3x^2 \).

Parameters

- **c**
  
  [array_like] 1-D array of array of series coefficients ordered from low to high degree.

- **pow**
  
  [integer] Power to which the series will be raised

- **maxpower**
  
  [integer, optional] Maximum power allowed. This is mainly to limit growth of the series to unmanageable size. Default is 16

Returns

- **coef**
  
  [ndarray] Power series of power.

See also:

polyadd, polysub, polymulx, polymul, polydiv
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polynomial as P
>>> P.polypow([1,2,3], 2)
array([ 1., 4., 10., 12., 9.])
```

```
 polynomial.polynomial.polyval (x, c, tensor=True)
 Evaluate a polynomial at points x.

 If c is of length n + 1, this function returns the value

 \[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 * x + ... + c_n * x^n \]

 The parameter x is converted to an array only if it is a tuple or a list, otherwise it is treated as a scalar. In either case, either x or its elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of c.

 If c is a 1-D array, then \( p(x) \) will have the same shape as x. If c is multidimensional, then the shape of the result depends on the value of tensor. If tensor is true the shape will be c.shape[1:] + x.shape. If tensor is false the shape will be c.shape[1:]. Note that scalars have shape (,).

 Trailing zeros in the coefficients will be used in the evaluation, so they should be avoided if efficiency is a concern.

 Parameters

 x
 [array_like, compatible object] If x is a list or tuple, it is converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and treated as a scalar. In either case, x or its elements must support addition and multiplication with with themselves and with the elements of c.

 c
 [array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree n are contained in c[n]. If c is multidimensional the remaining indices enumerate multiple polynomials. In the two dimensional case the coefficients may be thought of as stored in the columns of c.

 tensor
 [boolean, optional] If True, the shape of the coefficient array is extended with ones on the right, one for each dimension of x. Scalars have dimension 0 for this action. The result is that every column of coefficients in c is evaluated for every element of x. If False, x is broadcast over the columns of c for the evaluation. This keyword is useful when c is multidimensional. The default value is True.

 New in version 1.7.0.

 Returns

 values
 [ndarray, compatible object] The shape of the returned array is described above.

 See also:

 polyval2d, polygrid2d, polyval3d, polygrid3d
```
Notes

The evaluation uses Horner's method.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.polynomial import polyval
>>> polyval(1, [1,2,3])
6.0
>>> a = np.arange(4).reshape(2,2)
>>> a
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]])
>>> polyval(a, [1,2,3])
array([[ 1.,  6.],
       [17., 34.]])
>>> coef = np.arange(4).reshape(2,2)  # multidimensional coefficients
>>> coef
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]])
>>> polyval([1,2], coef, tensor=True)
array([[2., 4.],
       [4., 7.]])
>>> polyval([1,2], coef, tensor=False)
array([2., 7.])
```

polynomial.polynomial.**polyval2d**(x, y, c)

Evaluate a 2-D polynomial at points (x, y).

This function returns the value

\[ p(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \times^i \times^j \]

The parameters x and y are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either x and y or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of c.

If c has fewer than two dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be c.shape[2:] + x.shape.

Parameters

- **x, y**
  - array_like, compatible objects The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points (x, y), where x and y must have the same shape. If x or y is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

- **c**
  - array_like Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree i,j is contained in c[i,j]. If c has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns
values
[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points formed with pairs of corresponding values from \( x \) and \( y \).

See also:

polyval, polygrid2d, polyval3d, polygrid3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

\[
p(x, y, z) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} \times x^i \times y^j \times z^k
\]

The parameters \( x \), \( y \), and \( z \) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either \( x \), \( y \), and \( z \) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \( c \).

If \( c \) has fewer than 3 dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be \( c.shape[3:] + x.shape \).

Parameters

\( x, y, z \)
[array_like, compatible object] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points \((x, y, z)\), where \( x \), \( y \), and \( z \) must have the same shape. If any of \( x \), \( y \), or \( z \) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and if it isn’t an ndarray it is treated as a scalar.

\( c \)
[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree \( i,j,k \) is contained in \( c_{i,j,k} \). If \( c \) has dimension greater than 3 the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

values
[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the multidimensional polynomial on points formed with triples of corresponding values from \( x \), \( y \), and \( z \).

See also:

polyval, polyval2d, polygrid2d, polygrid3d
Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.polynomial.polygrid2d(x, y, c)

Evaluate a 2-D polynomial on the Cartesian product of x and y.

This function returns the values:

\[ p(a, b) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \times a^i \times b^j \]

where the points \((a, b)\) consist of all pairs formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\) and \(b\) from \(y\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension and \(y\) in the second.

The parameters \(x\) and \(y\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars. In either case, either \(x\) and \(y\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than two dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be \(c\.shape[2:] + x\.shape + y\.shape\).

Parameters

- \(x, y\):
  - [array_like, compatible objects] The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\). If \(x\) or \(y\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

- \(c\):
  - [array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree \(i,j\) are contained in \(c[i,j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

- \(values\):
  - [ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

See also:

- polyval, polyval2d, polyval3d, polygrid3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.polynomial.polygrid3d(x, y, z, c)

Evaluate a 3-D polynomial on the Cartesian product of \(x, y\) and \(z\).

This function returns the values:

\[ p(a, b, c) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} \times a^i \times b^j \times c^k \]
where the points \((a, b, c)\) consist of all triples formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\), \(b\) from \(y\), and \(c\) from \(z\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension, \(y\) in the second, and \(z\) in the third.

The parameters \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as scalars. In either case, either \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than three dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be \(c.shape[3:] + x.shape + y.shape + z.shape\).

**Parameters**

- \(x, y, z\)
  
  [array_like, compatible objects] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\). If \(x\), \(y\), or \(z\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

- \(c\)
  
  [array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree \(i,j\) are contained in \(c[i,j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

**Returns**

- **values**

  [ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

**See also:**

- *polyval*, *polyval2d*, *polygrid2d*, *polyval3d*

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

**Calculus**

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polynomial.polynomial.\textbf{polyder} (c, m=1, scl=1, axis=0)

Differentiate a polynomial.

Returns the polynomial coefficients \(c\) differentiated \(m\) times along \(axis\). At each iteration the result is multiplied by \(scl\) (the scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable). The argument \(c\) is an array of coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., \([1,2,3]\) represents the polynomial \(1 + 2\times + 3\times^2\) while \([[1,2],[1,2]]\) represents \(1 + 1\times + 2\times y + 2\times x\times y\) if \(axis=0\) is \(x\) and \(axis=1\) is \(y\).

**Parameters**

- \(c\)

  [array_like] Array of polynomial coefficients. If \(c\) is multidimensional the different axis correspond to different variables with the degree in each axis given by the corresponding index.
m

[int, optional] Number of derivatives taken, must be non-negative. (Default: 1)

scl

[scalar, optional] Each differentiation is multiplied by scl. The end result is multiplication by scl**m. This is for use in a linear change of variable. (Default: 1)

axis

[int, optional] Axis over which the derivative is taken. (Default: 0).

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

der

[ndarray] Polynomial coefficients of the derivative.

See also:

polyint

Examples

```
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polynomial as P
>>> c = (1,2,3,4)  # 1 + 2x + 3x**2 + 4x**3
>>> P.polyder(c)  # (d/dx)(c) = 2 + 6x + 12x**2
array([ 2., 6., 12.])
>>> P.polyder(c, 3)  # (d**3/dx**3)(c) = 24
array([24.])
>>> P.polyder(c, scl=-1)  # (d/d(-x))(c) = -2 - 6x - 12x**2
array([-2., -6., -12.])
>>> P.polyder(c, 2, -1)  # (d**2/d(-x)**2)(c) = 6 + 24x
array([6., 24.])
```

polynomial.polynomial.polyint(c, m=1, k=[], lbnd=0, scl=1, axis=0)

Integrate a polynomial.

Returns the polynomial coefficients c integrated m times from lbnd along axis. At each iteration the resulting series is multiplied by scl and an integration constant, k, is added. The scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable. (“Buyer beware”: note that, depending on what one is doing, one may want scl to be the reciprocal of what one might expect; for more information, see the Notes section below.) The argument c is an array of coefficients, from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., [1,2,3] represents the polynomial 1 + 2*x + 3*x**2 while [[1,2],[1,2]] represents 1 + 1*x + 2*y + 2*x*y if axis=0 is x and axis=1 is y.

Parameters

c

[array_like] 1-D array of polynomial coefficients, ordered from low to high.

m

[int, optional] Order of integration, must be positive. (Default: 1)
**k**

[[[], list, scalar], optional] Integration constant(s). The value of the first integral at zero is the first value in the list, the value of the second integral at zero is the second value, etc. If \( k == [] \) (the default), all constants are set to zero. If \( m == 1 \), a single scalar can be given instead of a list.

**lbnd**

[scalar, optional] The lower bound of the integral. (Default: 0)

**scl**

[scalar, optional] Following each integration the result is multiplied by \( scl \) before the integration constant is added. (Default: 1)

**axis**

[int, optional] Axis over which the integral is taken. (Default: 0).

New in version 1.7.0.

**Returns**

**S**

[ndarray] Coefficient array of the integral.

**Raises**

ValueError

If \( m < 1, \text{len}(k) > m, \text{np.ndim}(\text{lbnd}) \neq 0, \text{or np.ndim}(scl) \neq 0. \)

**See also:**

polyder

**Notes**

Note that the result of each integration is multiplied by \( scl \). Why is this important to note? Say one is making a linear change of variable \( u = ax + b \) in an integral relative to \( x \). Then \( dx = du/a \), so one will need to set \( scl \) equal to \( 1/a \) - perhaps not what one would have first thought.

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polynomial as P
>>> c = (1, 2, 3)
>>> P.polyint(c)  # should return array([0, 1, 1, 1])
array([ 0., 1., 1., 1.])
>>> P.polyint(c, 3)  # should return array([0, 0, 0, 1/6, 1/12, 1/20])
array([ 0. , 0. , 0. , 0.16666667, 0.08333333, # may vary 0.05 ])
>>> P.polyint(c, k=3)  # should return array([3, 1, 1, 1])
array([3., 1., 1., 1.])
>>> P.polyint(c, lbnd=-2)  # should return array([6, 1, 1, 1])
```

(continues on next page)
array([6., 1., 1., 1.])

>>> p.polyint(c,scl=-2) # should return array([0, -2, -2, -2])
array([0., -2., -2., -2.])

Misc Functions

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polyynomial.polynomial.polyfromroots(roots)

Generate a monic polynomial with given roots.

Return the coefficients of the polynomial

\[ p(x) = (x - r_0) \times (x - r_1) \times \cdots \times (x - r_n), \]

where the \( r_n \) are the roots specified in \( \text{roots} \). If a zero has multiplicity \( n \), then it must appear in \( \text{roots} \) \( n \) times. For instance, if 2 is a root of multiplicity three and 3 is a root of multiplicity 2, then \( \text{roots} \) looks something like [2, 2, 2, 3]. The roots can appear in any order.

If the returned coefficients are \( c \), then

\[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 \times x + \cdots + c_n x^n \]

The coefficient of the last term is 1 for monic polynomials in this form.

Parameters

roots

[array_like] Sequence containing the roots.

Returns

out

[ndarray] 1-D array of the polynomial’s coefficients If all the roots are real, then \( \text{out} \) is also real, otherwise it is complex. (see Examples below).

See also:

numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfromroots
numpy.polynomial.legendre.legfromroots
numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagfromroots
numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermfromroots
numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermefromroots
Notes

The coefficients are determined by multiplying together linear factors of the form \((x - r_i)\), i.e.

\[ p(x) = (x - r_0)(x - r_1)\ldots(x - r_n) \]

where \(n = \text{len}(\text{roots}) - 1\); note that this implies that 1 is always returned for \(a_n\).

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polynomial as P
>>> P.polyfromroots((-1,0,1)) # x(x - 1)(x + 1) = x^3 - x
array([ 0., -1., 0., 1.])
>>> j = complex(0,1)
>>> P.polyfromroots((-j,j)) # complex returned, though values are real
array([1.+0.j, 0.+0.j, 1.+0.j])
```

call the function `polyroots` with coefficients `c`.

```
polynomial.polynomial.polyroots(c)
```

Compute the roots of a polynomial.

Return the roots (a.k.a. “zeros”) of the polynomial

\[ p(x) = \sum_i c[i] \cdot x^i. \]

Parameters

- `c`
  
  [1-D array_like] 1-D array of polynomial coefficients.

Returns

- `out`
  
  [ndarray] Array of the roots of the polynomial. If all the roots are real, then `out` is also real, otherwise it is complex.

See also:

- `numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.legendre.legroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermeroots`
Notes

The root estimates are obtained as the eigenvalues of the companion matrix. Roots far from the origin of the complex plane may have large errors due to the numerical instability of the power series for such values. Roots with multiplicity greater than 1 will also show larger errors as the value of the series near such points is relatively insensitive to errors in the roots. Isolated roots near the origin can be improved by a few iterations of Newton's method.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.polynomial as poly
>>> poly.polyroots(poly.polyfromroots((-1,0,1)))
array([-1., 0., 1.])
```

```python
>>> j = complex(0,1)
>>> poly.polyroots(poly.polyfromroots((-j,0,j)))
array([ 0.00000000e+00+0.j, 0.00000000e+00+1.j, 2.77555756e-17-1.j]) # may vary
```

`numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyvalfromroots(x, r, tensor=True)`

Evaluate a polynomial specified by its roots at points `x`.

If `r` is of length `N`, this function returns the value

\[ p(x) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} (x - r_n) \]

The parameter `x` is converted to an array only if it is a tuple or a list, otherwise it is treated as a scalar. In either case, either `x` or its elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of `r`.

If `r` is a 1-D array, then `p(x)` will have the same shape as `x`. If `r` is multidimensional, then the shape of the result depends on the value of `tensor`. If `tensor` is `True` the shape will be `r.shape[1:] + x.shape`; that is, each polynomial is evaluated at every value of `x`. If `tensor` is `False`, the shape will be `r.shape[1:]`; that is, each polynomial is evaluated only for the corresponding broadcast value of `x`. Note that scalars have shape `(,)`.

New in version 1.12.

Parameters

- `x`  
  [array_like, compatible object]  
  If `x` is a list or tuple, it is converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and treated as a scalar. In either case, `x` or its elements must support addition and multiplication with themselves and with the elements of `r`.

- `r`  
  [array_like]  
  Array of roots. If `r` is multidimensional the first index is the root index, while the remaining indices enumerate multiple polynomials. For instance, in the two dimensional case the roots of each polynomial may be thought of as stored in the columns of `r`.

- `tensor`  
  [boolean, optional]  
  If True, the shape of the roots array is extended with ones on the right, one for each dimension of `x`. Scalars have dimension 0 for this action. The result is that every column of coefficients in `r` is evaluated for every element of `x`. If False, `x` is broadcast over
the columns of \( r \) for the evaluation. This keyword is useful when \( r \) is multidimensional. The default value is True.

**Returns**

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The shape of the returned array is described above.

**See also:**

polyroots, polyfromroots, polyval

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.polynomial import polyvalfromroots
>>> polyvalfromroots(1, [1, 2, 3])
0.0
>>> a = np.arange(4).reshape(2, 2)
>>> a
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]])
>>> polyvalfromroots(a, [-1, 0, 1])
array([[0., 1.],
       [6., 24.]])
>>> r = np.arange(-2, 2).reshape(2, 2) # multidimensional coefficients
>>> r # each column of r defines one polynomial
array([[-2, -1],
       [0, 1]])
>>> b = [-2, 1]
>>> polyvalfromroots(b, r, tensor=True)
array([[0., 3.],
       [3., 0.]])
>>> polyvalfromroots(b, r, tensor=False)
array([[-0., 0.]]);
```

polynomial.polynomial.polyvander \((x, \text{deg})\)

Vandermonde matrix of given degree.

Returns the Vandermonde matrix of degree \( \text{deg} \) and sample points \( x \). The Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[ V[\ldots, i] = x^i, \]

where \( 0 \leq i \leq \text{deg} \). The leading indices of \( V \) index the elements of \( x \) and the last index is the power of \( x \).

If \( c \) is a 1-D array of coefficients of length \( n + 1 \) and \( V \) is the matrix \( V = \text{polyvander}(x, n) \), then \( \text{np. dot}(V, c) \) and \( \text{polyval}(x, c) \) are the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of polynomials of the same degree and sample points.

**Parameters**

\( x \)

[array_like] Array of points. The dtype is converted to float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. If \( x \) is scalar it is converted to a 1-D array.

\( \text{deg} \)

[int] Degree of the resulting matrix.
Returns

```
vander
```

[ndarray] The Vandermonde matrix. The shape of the returned matrix is `x.shape + (deg + 1,)`, where the last index is the power of `x`. The dtype will be the same as the converted `x`.

See also:

```
polyvander2d, polyvander3d
```

`polynomial.polynomial.polyvander2d(x, y, deg)`

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees `deg` and sample points `(x, y)`. The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

$$V[\ldots, (deg[1] + 1) * i + j] = x^i * y^j,$$

where $0 <= i <= deg[0]$ and $0 <= j <= deg[1]$. The leading indices of $V$ index the points $(x, y)$ and the last index encodes the powers of $x$ and $y$.

If $V = polyvander2d(x, y, [xdeg, ydeg])$, then the columns of $V$ correspond to the elements of a 2-D coefficient array `c` of shape `(xdeg + 1, ydeg + 1)` in the order

$$c_{00}, c_{01}, c_{02}, \ldots, c_{10}, c_{11}, c_{12}, \ldots$$

and `np.dot(V, c.flat)` and `polyval2d(x, y, c)` will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 2-D polynomials of the same degrees and sample points.

Parameters

```
x, y
```

[array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

```
deg
```

[list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form `[x_deg, y_deg]`.

Returns

```
vander2d
```

[ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is `x.shape + (order,)`, where `order = (deg[0] + 1) * (deg[1] + 1)`. The dtype will be the same as the converted `x` and `y`.

See also:

```
polyvander, polyvander3d, polyval2d, polyval3d
```
polynomial.polynomial.polyvander3d(x, y, z, deg)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees \( \text{deg} \) and sample points \((x, y, z)\). If \( l, m, n \) are the given degrees in \( x, y, z \), then The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[
V[\ldots, (m + 1)(n + 1)i + (n + 1)j + k] = x^i * y^j * z^k,
\]

where \( 0 \leq i \leq l \), \( 0 \leq j \leq m \), and \( 0 \leq j \leq n \). The leading indices of \( V \) index the points \((x, y, z)\) and the last index encodes the powers of \( x, y, \) and \( z \).

If \( V = \text{polyvander3d}(x, y, z, [xdeg, ydeg, zdeg]) \), then the columns of \( V \) correspond to the elements of a 3-D coefficient array \( c \) of shape \((xdeg + 1, ydeg + 1, zdeg + 1)\) in the order

\[
c_{000}, c_{001}, c_{002}, \ldots, c_{010}, c_{011}, c_{012}, \ldots
\]

and \( \text{np.dot}(V, c\text{.flat}) \) and \( \text{polyval3d}(x, y, z, c) \) will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 3-D polynomials of the same degrees and sample points.

**Parameters**

- **x, y, z**
  
  [array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

- **deg**
  
  [list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form \([x\_\text{deg}, y\_\text{deg}, z\_\text{deg}]\).

**Returns**

- **vander3d**
  
  [ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is \( x\text{.shape} + (\text{order,}) \), where \( \text{order} = (deg[0] + 1) * (deg[1] + 1) * (deg[2] + 1) \). The dtype will be the same as the converted \( x, y, \) and \( z \).

**See also:**

- **polyvander, polyvander3d, polyval2d, polyval3d**

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.polynomial.polycompanion(c)

Return the companion matrix of \( c \).

The companion matrix for power series cannot be made symmetric by scaling the basis, so this function differs from those for the orthogonal polynomials.

**Parameters**

- **c**
  
  [array_like] 1-D array of polynomial coefficients ordered from low to high degree.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

Returns

mat

[ndarray] Companion matrix of dimensions (deg, deg).

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

`polynomial.polynomial.polyfit(x, y, deg=None, rcond=None, full=False, w=None)`

Least-squares fit of a polynomial to data.

Return the coefficients of a polynomial of degree `deg` that is the least squares fit to the data values `y` given at points `x`. If `y` is 1-D the returned coefficients will also be 1-D. If `y` is 2-D multiple fits are done, one for each column of `y`, and the resulting coefficients are stored in the corresponding columns of a 2-D return. The fitted polynomial(s) are in the form

\[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 \cdot x + \ldots + c_n \cdot x^n, \]

where `n` is `deg`.

Parameters

`x`  
[array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample (data) points \((x[i], y[i])\).

`y`  
[array_like, shape (M,) or (M, K)] y-coordinates of the sample points. Several sets of sample points sharing the same x-coordinates can be (independently) fit with one call to `polyfit` by passing in for `y` a 2-D array that contains one data set per column.

`deg`  
[int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If `deg` is a single integer all terms up to and including the `deg`'th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions >= 1.11.0 a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.

`rcond`  
[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than `rcond`, relative to the largest singular value, will be ignored. The default value is `len(x) * eps`, where `eps` is the relative precision of the platform’s float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.

`full`  
[bool, optional] Switch determining the nature of the return value. When `False` (the default) just the coefficients are returned; when `True`, diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition (used to solve the fit’s matrix equation) is also returned.

`w`  
[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not `None`, the contribution of each point \((x[i], y[i])\) to the fit is weighted by `w[i]`. Ideally the weights are chosen so that the errors of the products `w[i] * y[i]` all have the same variance. The default value is `None`.

New in version 1.5.0.

Returns
coef

[ndarray, shape (deg + 1,) or (deg + 1, K)] Polynomial coefficients ordered from low to high. If \( y \) was 2-D, the coefficients in column \( k \) of \( \text{coef} \) represent the polynomial fit to the data in \( y \)'s \( k \)-th column.

[residuals, rank, singular_values, rcond]

[list] These values are only returned if \( \text{full} = \text{True} \)

resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit rank – the numerical rank of the scaled Vandermonde matrix sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix rcond – value of rcond.

For more details, see \texttt{numpy.linalg.lstsq}.

Raises

RankWarning

Raised if the matrix in the least-squares fit is rank deficient. The warning is only raised if \( \text{full} == \text{False} \). The warnings can be turned off by:

```python
>>> import warnings
>>> warnings.simplefilter('ignore', np.RankWarning)
```

See also:

\texttt{numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfit}
\texttt{numpy.polynomial.legendre.legfit}
\texttt{numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagfit}
\texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermfit}
\texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermefit}
\texttt{polyval}

Evaluates a polynomial.

\texttt{polyvander}

Vandermonde matrix for powers.

\texttt{numpy.linalg.lstsq}

Computes a least-squares fit from the matrix.

\texttt{scipy.interpolate.UnivariateSpline}

Computes spline fits.
Notes

The solution is the coefficients of the polynomial $p$ that minimizes the sum of the weighted squared errors

$$ E = \sum_j w_j^2 |y_j - p(x_j)|^2, $$

where the $w_j$ are the weights. This problem is solved by setting up the (typically) over-determined matrix equation:

$$ V(x) \cdot c = w \cdot y, $$

where $V$ is the weighted pseudo Vandermonde matrix of $x$, $c$ are the coefficients to be solved for, $w$ are the weights, and $y$ are the observed values. This equation is then solved using the singular value decomposition of $V$.

If some of the singular values of $V$ are so small that they are neglected (and $full == False$), a RankWarning will be raised. This means that the coefficient values may be poorly determined. Fitting to a lower order polynomial will usually get rid of the warning (but may not be what you want, of course; if you have independent reason(s) for choosing the degree which isn’t working, you may have to: a) reconsider those reasons, and/or b) reconsider the quality of your data). The $rcond$ parameter can also be set to a value smaller than its default, but the resulting fit may be spurious and have large contributions from roundoff error.

Polynomial fits using double precision tend to “fail” at about (polynomial) degree 20. Fits using Chebyshev or Legendre series are generally better conditioned, but much can still depend on the distribution of the sample points and the smoothness of the data. If the quality of the fit is inadequate, splines may be a good alternative.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polynomial as P
>>> x = np.linspace(-1,1,51) # x "data": [-1, -0.96, ..., 0.96, 1]
>>> y = x**3 - x + np.random.randn(len(x)) # x^3 - x + N(0,1) "noise"
>>> c, stats = P.polyfit(x,y,3,full=True)
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> c # c[0], c[2] should be approx. 0, c[1] approx. -1, c[3] approx. 1
array([ 0.01909725, -1.30598256, -0.00577963, 1.02644286]) # may vary
>>> stats # note the large SSR, explaining the rather poor results
[array([ 38.06116253]), 4, array([ 1.38446749, 1.32119158, 0.50443316, 0.28853036]), 1.1324274851176597e-014]
```

Same thing without the added noise

```python
>>> y = x**3 - x
>>> c, stats = P.polyfit(x,y,3,full=True)
>>> c # c[0], c[2] should be "very close to 0", c[1] -= -1, c[3] -= 1
array([-6.36925336e-18, -1.00000000e+00, -4.08053781e-16, 1.00000000e+00])
>>> stats # note the minuscule SSR
[array([ 7.46346754e-31]), 4, array([ 1.38446749, 1.32119158, 0.50443316, 0.28853036]), 1.1324274851176597e-014]
```

```
polynomial.polynomial.polytrim(c, tol=0)

Remove "small" "trailing" coefficients from a polynomial.

“Small” means “small in absolute value” and is controlled by the parameter $tol$; “trailing” means highest order coefficient(s), e.g., in $[0, 1, 1, 0, 0]$ (which represents $0 + x + x**2 + 0*x**3 + 0*x**4$) both the 3-rd and 4-th order coefficients would be “trimmed.”

Parameters
c

[array_like] 1-d array of coefficients, ordered from lowest order to highest.

tol

[number, optional] Trailing (i.e., highest order) elements with absolute value less than or equal to \( tol \) (default value is zero) are removed.

Returns

trimmed

[ndarray] 1-d array with trailing zeros removed. If the resulting series would be empty, a series containing a single zero is returned.

Raises

ValueError

If \( tol < 0 \)

See also:

trimseq

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polyutils as pu
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,3,0,5,0,0))
array([0., 0., 3., 0., 5.])
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,1e-3,0,1e-5,0,0),1e-3) # item == tol is trimmed
array([0.])
>>> pu.trimcoef((3e-4,1e-3*(1-i),5e-4,2e-5*(1+i)), 1e-3)
array([0.0003+0.j , 0.001 -0.001j])
```

polynomial.polynomial.polyline(off, scl)

Returns an array representing a linear polynomial.

Parameters

off, scl

[scalars] The “y-intercept” and “slope” of the line, respectively.

Returns

y

[ndarray] This module's representation of the linear polynomial \( off + scl \cdot x \).

See also:

numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebline

numpy.polynomial.legendre.legline
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polynomial as P
>>> P.polyline(1,-1)
array([ 1, -1])
>>> P.polyval(1, P.polyline(1,-1)) # should be 0
0.0
```

See Also
	numpy.polynomial

New in version 1.4.0.

Chebyshev Series (numpy.polynomial.chebyshev)

This module provides a number of objects (mostly functions) useful for dealing with Chebyshev series, including a Chebyshev class that encapsulates the usual arithmetic operations. (General information on how this module represents and works with such polynomials is in the docstring for its “parent” sub-package, numpy.polynomial).

Classes

```python
class Chebyshev(coef[, domain, window])
```

A Chebyshev series class.

```python
class numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev(coef, domain=None, window=None)
```

A Chebyshev series class.

The Chebyshev class provides the standard Python numerical methods `+`, `*`, `/`, `%`, `divmod`, `**`, and `()` as well as the methods listed below.

Parameters

- **coef**
  
  [array_like] Chebyshev coefficients in order of increasing degree, i.e., (1, 2, 3) gives $1 \cdot T_0(x) + 2 \cdot T_1(x) + 3 \cdot T_2(x)$.

- **domain**
  
  [(2,)] array_like, optional] Domain to use. The interval $[\text{domain}[0], \text{domain}[1]]$ is mapped to the interval $[\text{window}[0], \text{window}[1]]$ by shifting and scaling. The default value is [-1, 1].

- **window**
  
  [(2,)] array_like, optional] Window, see domain for its use. The default value is [-1, 1].

New in version 1.6.0.
Methods

__call__(arg)  Call self as a function.

basis(deg[, domain, window])  Series basis polynomial of degree deg.

cast(series[, domain, window])  Convert series to series of this class.

convert([domain, kind, window])  Convert series to a different kind and/or domain and/or window.

copy()  Return a copy.

cutdeg(deg)  Truncate series to the given degree.

degree()  The degree of the series.

deriv([m])  Differentiate.

fit(x, y, deg[, domain, rcond, full, w, window])  Least squares fit to data.

fromroots(roots[, domain, window])  Return series instance that has the specified roots.

has_samecoef(other)  Check if coefficients match.

has_samedomain(other)  Check if domains match.

has_sametype(other)  Check if types match.

has_samewindow(other)  Check if windows match.

identity([domain, window])  Identity function.

integ([m, k, lbnd])  Integrate.

interpolate(func, deg[, domain, args])  Interpolate a function at the Chebyshev points of the first kind.

linspace([n, domain])  Return x, y values at equally spaced points in domain.

mapparams()  Return the mapping parameters.

roots()  Return the roots of the series polynomial.

trim([tol])  Remove trailing coefficients

truncate(size)  Truncate series to length size.

method

polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.__call__(arg)

Call self as a function.

method

classmethod polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.basis(deg, domain=shrink, window=shrink)

Series basis polynomial of degree deg.

Returns the series representing the basis polynomial of degree deg.

New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

deg  
[int] Degree of the basis polynomial for the series. Must be >= 0.

domain  
[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

window  
[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.
Returns

new_series

A series with the coefficient of the deg term set to one and all others zero.

method
classmethod polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.cast (series, domain=None, window=None)

Convert series to series of this class.
The series is expected to be an instance of some polynomial series of one of the types supported by the numpy.polynomial module, but could be some other class that supports the convert method.
New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

series

The series instance to be converted.
domain

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.
window

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

A series of the same kind as the calling class and equal to series when evaluated.

See also:

convert

similar instance method

method

classmethod polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.convert (domain=None, kind=None, window=None)

Convert series to a different kind and/or domain and/or window.

Parameters

domain

[array_like, optional] The domain of the converted series. If the value is None, the default domain of kind is used.
kkind

[class, optional] The polynomial series type class to which the current instance should be converted. If kind is None, then the class of the current instance is used.
window

[array_like, optional] The window of the converted series. If the value is None, the default window of kind is used.

Returns

new_series

[series] The returned class can be of different type than the current instance and/or have a different domain and/or different window.

Notes

Conversion between domains and class types can result in numerically ill defined series.

method

polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.copy()

Return a copy.

Returns

new_series

[series] Copy of self.

method

polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.cutdeg(deg)

Truncate series to the given degree.

Reduce the degree of the series to deg by discarding the high order terms. If deg is greater than the current degree a copy of the current series is returned. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters

deg

[non-negative int] The series is reduced to degree deg by discarding the high order terms. The value of deg must be a non-negative integer.

Returns

new_series

[series] New instance of series with reduced degree.

method

polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.degree()

The degree of the series.

New in version 1.5.0.

Returns
degree

[int] Degree of the series, one less than the number of coefficients.

method

`polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.deriv(m=1)`

Differentiate.

Return a series instance of that is the derivative of the current series.

Parameters

m

[non-negative int] Find the derivative of order m.

Returns

new_series

[series] A new series representing the derivative. The domain is the same as the domain of the differentiated series.

method

`classmethod polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.fit(x, y, deg, domain=None, rcond=None, full=False, w=None, window=None)`

Least squares fit to data.

Return a series instance that is the least squares fit to the data y sampled at x. The domain of the returned instance can be specified and this will often result in a superior fit with less chance of ill conditioning.

Parameters

x

[array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points (x[i], y[i]).

y

[array_like, shape (M,)] y-coordinates of the M sample points (x[i], y[i]).

deg

[int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If deg is a single integer all terms up to and including the deg'th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions >= 1.11.0 a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.

domain

[None, [beg, end], []], optional] Domain to use for the returned series. If None, then a minimal domain that covers the points x is chosen. If [] the class domain is used. The default value was the class domain in NumPy 1.4 and `None` in later versions. The [] option was added in numpy 1.5.0.

rcond

[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is len(x)*eps, where eps is the relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

full
[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

w
[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None the contribution of each point \((x[i], y[i])\) to the fit is weighted by \(w[i]\). Ideally the weights are chosen so that the errors of the products \(w[i]*y[i]\) all have the same variance. The default value is None.

New in version 1.5.0.

window

[[[beg, end]], optional] Window to use for the returned series. The default value is the default class domain

New in version 1.6.0.

Returns

new_series

[series] A series that represents the least squares fit to the data and has the domain and window specified in the call. If the coefficients for the unscaled and unshifted basis polynomials are of interest, do new_series.convert().coef.

[resid, rank, sv, rcond]

[list] These values are only returned if full = True

resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit rank – the numerical rank of the scaled Vandermonde matrix sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix rcond – value of rcond.

For more details, see linalg.lstsq.

method

classmethod polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.fromroots (roots, domain=[],
window=None)

Return series instance that has the specified roots.

Returns a series representing the product \((x - r[0])*(x - r[1])*...*(x - r[n-1])\), where \(r\) is a list of roots.

Parameters

roots

[array_like] List of roots.

domain

[[[], None, array_like], optional] Domain for the resulting series. If None the domain is the interval from the smallest root to the largest. If [] the domain is the class domain. The default is [].

window

[[None, array_like], optional] Window for the returned series. If None the class window is used. The default is None.
Returns

e.new_series

[series] Series with the specified roots.

method

polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.has_samecoef(other)
Check if coefficients match.
New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other
[class instance] The other class must have the coef attribute.

Returns

bool
[boolean] True if the coefficients are the same, False otherwise.

method

polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.has_samedomain(other)
Check if domains match.
New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other
[class instance] The other class must have the domain attribute.

Returns

bool
[boolean] True if the domains are the same, False otherwise.

method

polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.has_sametype(other)
Check if types match.
New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

other
[object] Class instance.

Returns

bool
[boolean] True if other is same class as self
method

decimal.chebyshev.Chebyshev.\texttt{has\_same\_window}(other)

Check if windows match.

New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the \texttt{window} attribute.

Returns

\texttt{bool}

[boolean] True if the windows are the same, False otherwise.

method

classmethod decimal.chebyshev.Chebyshev.\texttt{identity}(domain=None, window=None)

Identity function.

If \( p \) is the returned series, then \( p(x) = x \) for all values of \( x \).

Parameters

\texttt{domain}

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form \([\text{beg, end}]\), where \( \text{beg} \) and \( \text{end} \) are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

\texttt{window}

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be of the form \([\text{beg, end}]\), where \( \text{beg} \) and \( \text{end} \) are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

\texttt{new\_series}

[series] Series of representing the identity.

method

decimal.chebyshev.Chebyshev.\texttt{integ}(m=1, k=[], lbnd=None)

Integrate.

Return a series instance that is the definite integral of the current series.

Parameters

\texttt{m}

[non-negative int] The number of integrations to perform.
**k**

[array_like] Integration constants. The first constant is applied to the first integration, the second to the second, and so on. The list of values must less than or equal to \( m \) in length and any missing values are set to zero.

**lbnd**

[Scalar] The lower bound of the definite integral.

**Returns**

**new_series**

[series] A new series representing the integral. The domain is the same as the domain of the integrated series.

**method**

```python
classmethod polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.interpolate(func, deg, domain=None, args=())
```

Interpolate a function at the Chebyshev points of the first kind.

Returns the series that interpolates \( func \) at the Chebyshev points of the first kind scaled and shifted to the domain. The resulting series tends to a minmax approximation of \( func \) when the function is continuous in the domain.

New in version 1.14.0.

**Parameters**

**func**

[function] The function to be interpolated. It must be a function of a single variable of the form \( f(x, a, b, c...) \), where \( a, b, c... \) are extra arguments passed in the \( args \) parameter.

**deg**

[int] Degree of the interpolating polynomial.

**domain**

[[None, [beg, end]], optional] Domain over which \( func \) is interpolated. The default is None, in which case the domain is \([-1, 1]\).

**args**

[tuple, optional] Extra arguments to be used in the function call. Default is no extra arguments.

**Returns**

**polynomial**

[Chebyshev instance] Interpolating Chebyshev instance.
Notes

See `numpy.polynomial.chebfromfunction` for more details.

method

`polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.linspace(n=100, domain=None)`

Returns the x, y values at equally spaced points in domain.

Returns the x, y values at \( n \) linearly spaced points across the domain. Here y is the value of the polynomial at the points x. By default the domain is the same as that of the series instance. This method is intended mostly as a plotting aid.

New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters

- \( n \)  
  [int, optional] Number of point pairs to return. The default value is 100.

- domain  
  [[None, array_like], optional] If not None, the specified domain is used instead of that of the calling instance. It should be of the form \([\text{beg}, \text{end}]\). The default is None which case the class domain is used.

Returns

- x, y  
  [ndarray] x is equal to linspace(self.domain[0], self.domain[1], n) and y is the series evaluated at element of x.

method

`polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.mapparms()`

Return the mapping parameters.

The returned values define a linear map \( \text{off} + \text{scl} \cdot x \) that is applied to the input arguments before the series is evaluated. The map depends on the domain and window; if the current domain is equal to the window the resulting map is the identity. If the coefficients of the series instance are to be used by themselves outside this class, then the linear function must be substituted for the \( x \) in the standard representation of the base polynomials.

Returns

- off, scl  
  [float or complex] The mapping function is defined by \( \text{off} + \text{scl} \cdot x \).
Notes

If the current domain is the interval \([l_1, r_1]\) and the window is \([l_2, r_2]\), then the linear mapping function \(L\) is defined by the equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
L(l_1) &= l_2 \\
L(r_1) &= r_2
\end{align*}
\]

method

\texttt{polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.roots()}

Return the roots of the series polynomial.

Compute the roots for the series. Note that the accuracy of the roots decrease the further outside the domain they lie.

Returns

roots

[ndarray] Array containing the roots of the series.

method

\texttt{polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.trim(tol=0)}

Remove trailing coefficients

Remove trailing coefficients until a coefficient is reached whose absolute value greater than \(tol\) or the beginning of the series is reached. If all the coefficients would be removed the series is set to \([0]\). A new series instance is returned with the new coefficients. The current instance remains unchanged.

Parameters

\(tol\)

[non-negative number.] All trailing coefficients less than \(tol\) will be removed.

Returns

new_series


method

\texttt{polynomial.chebyshev.Chebyshev.truncate(size)}

Truncate series to length \(size\).

Reduce the series to length \(size\) by discarding the high degree terms. The value of \(size\) must be a positive integer. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

Parameters

\(size\)

[positive int] The series is reduced to length \(size\) by discarding the high degree terms. The value of \(size\) must be a positive integer.

Returns
new_series

Constants

chebdomain

chebzero

chebone

chebx

polynomial.chebyshev.chebdomain = array([-1, 1])
polynomial.chebyshev.chebzero = array([0])
polynomial.chebyshev.chebone = array([1])
polynomial.chebyshev.chebx = array([0, 1])

Arithmetic

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</table>

polynomial.chebyshev.chebadd(c1, c2)

Add one Chebyshev series to another.

Returns the sum of two Chebyshev series \( c1 + c2 \). The arguments are sequences of coefficients ordered from lowest order term to highest, i.e., \([1,2,3]\) represents the series \( T_0 + 2*T_1 + 3*T_2 \).

Parameters

\( c1, c2 \)

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Chebyshev series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

\( \text{out} \)

[ndarray] Array representing the Chebyshev series of their sum.
See also:

*chebsub*, *chebmulx*, *chebmul*, *chebdiv*, *chebpow*

Notes

Unlike multiplication, division, etc., the sum of two Chebyshev series is a Chebyshev series (without having to “reproject” the result onto the basis set) so addition, just like that of “standard” polynomials, is simply “component-wise.”

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import chebyshev as C
>>> c1 = (1,2,3)
>>> c2 = (3,2,1)
>>> C.chebadd(c1,c2)
array([4., 4., 4.])
```

polynomial.chebyshev.chebsub(c1, c2)

Subtract one Chebyshev series from another.

Returns the difference of two Chebyshev series $c1 - c2$. The sequences of coefficients are from lowest order term to highest, i.e., $[1,2,3]$ represents the series $T_0 + 2*T_1 + 3*T_2$.

Parameters

- **c1, c2**
  
  [array_like] 1-D arrays of Chebyshev series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

- **out**
  
  [ndarray] Of Chebyshev series coefficients representing their difference.

See also:

*chebadd*, *chebmulx*, *chebmul*, *chebdiv*, *chebpow*

Notes

Unlike multiplication, division, etc., the difference of two Chebyshev series is a Chebyshev series (without having to “reproject” the result onto the basis set) so subtraction, just like that of “standard” polynomials, is simply “component-wise.”
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import chebyshev as C
>>> c1 = (1,2,3)
>>> c2 = (3,2,1)
>>> C.chebsub(c1,c2)
array([-2., 0., 2.])
>>> C.chebsub(c2,c1)  # -C.chebsub(c1,c2)
array([ 2., 0., -2.])
```

`polynomial.chebyshev.chebmulx(c)`

Multiply a Chebyshev series by x.

Multiply the polynomial c by x, where x is the independent variable.

Parameters

c

[array_like] 1-D array of Chebyshev series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Array representing the result of the multiplication.

Notes

New in version 1.5.0.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import chebyshev as C
>>> C.chebmulx([1,2,3])
array([1. , 2.5, 1. , 1.5])
```

`polynomial.chebyshev.chebmul(c1, c2)`

Multiply one Chebyshev series by another.

Returns the product of two Chebyshev series c1 * c2. The arguments are sequences of coefficients, from lowest order “term” to highest, e.g., [1,2,3] represents the series T_0 + 2*T_1 + 3*T_2.

Parameters

  c1, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Chebyshev series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Of Chebyshev series coefficients representing their product.

See also:
chebadd, chebsub, chebmulx, chebdv, chebpow

Notes

In general, the (polynomial) product of two C-series results in terms that are not in the Chebyshev polynomial basis set. Thus, to express the product as a C-series, it is typically necessary to “reproject” the product onto said basis set, which typically produces “unintuitive live” (but correct) results; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import chebyshev as C
>>> c1 = (1, 2, 3)
>>> c2 = (3, 2, 1)
>>> C.chebmul(c1, c2) # multiplication requires "reprojection"
array([ 6.5, 12. , 12. , 4. , 1.5])
```

divide one Chebyshev series by another.

polynomial.chebyshev.chebdv(c1, c2)

Divide one Chebyshev series by another.

Returns the quotient-with-remainder of two Chebyshev series $c1 / c2$. The arguments are sequences of coefficients from lowest order “term” to highest, e.g., \([1,2,3]\) represents the series $T_0 + 2T_1 + 3T_2$.

Parameters

- `c1, c2`
  - [array_like] 1-D arrays of Chebyshev series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

- `quo, rem`
  - [ndarrays] Of Chebyshev series coefficients representing the quotient and remainder.

See also:

chebadd, chebsub, chebmulx, chebmul, chebpow

Notes

In general, the (polynomial) division of one C-series by another results in quotient and remainder terms that are not in the Chebyshev polynomial basis set. Thus, to express these results as C-series, it is typically necessary to “reprojection” the results onto said basis set, which typically produces “unintuitive” (but correct) results; see Examples section below.
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import chebyshev as C
>>> c1 = (1,2,3)
>>> c2 = (3,2,1)
>>> C.chebdiv(c1,c2)  # quotient "intuitive," remainder not
(array([3.]), array([-8., -4.])))
>>> c2 = (0,1,2,3)
>>> C.chebdiv(c2,c1)  # neither "intuitive"
(array([0., 2.]), array([-2., -4.])))
```

polynomial.chebyshev.chebpow(c, pow, maxpower=16)

Raise a Chebyshev series to a power.

Returns the Chebyshev series `c` raised to the power `pow`. The argument `c` is a sequence of coefficients ordered from low to high. i.e., `[1,2,3]` is the series $T_0 + 2*T_1 + 3*T_2$.

Parameters

- `c` : array_like
  1-D array of Chebyshev series coefficients ordered from low to high.
- `pow` : integer
  Power to which the series will be raised.
- `maxpower` : integer, optional
  Maximum power allowed. This is mainly to limit growth of the series to unmanageable size. Default is 16.

Returns

- `coef` : ndarray
  Chebyshev series of power.

See also:

chebadd, chebsub, chebmulx, chebmul, chebdiv

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import chebyshev as C
>>> C.chebpow([1, 2, 3, 4], 2)
array([15.5, 22. , 16. , ..., 12.5, 12. , 8. ])
```

polynomial.chebyshev.chebval(x, c, tensor=True)

Evaluate a Chebyshev series at points `x`.

If `c` is of length `n + 1`, this function returns the value:

\[ p(x) = c_0 \cdot T_0(x) + c_1 \cdot T_1(x) + \ldots + c_n \cdot T_n(x) \]

The parameter `x` is converted to an array only if it is a tuple or a list, otherwise it is treated as a scalar. In either case, either `x` or its elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of `c`.

4.22. Polynomials
If $c$ is a 1-D array, then $p(x)$ will have the same shape as $x$. If $c$ is multidimensional, then the shape of the result depends on the value of tensor. If tensor is true the shape will be $c$.shape[1:] + x.shape. If tensor is false the shape will be $c$.shape[1:]. Note that scalars have shape ()..

Trailing zeros in the coefficients will be used in the evaluation, so they should be avoided if efficiency is a concern.

**Parameters**

$x$

[array_like, compatible object] If $x$ is a list or tuple, it is converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and treated as a scalar. In either case, $x$ or its elements must support addition and multiplication with with themselves and with the elements of $c$.

$c$

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree $n$ are contained in $c[n]$. If $c$ is multidimensional the remaining indices enumerate multiple polynomials. In the two dimensional case the coefficients may be thought of as stored in the columns of $c$.

**tensor**

[boolean, optional] If True, the shape of the coefficient array is extended with ones on the right, one for each dimension of $x$. Scalars have dimension 0 for this action. The result is that every column of coefficients in $c$ is evaluated for every element of $x$. If False, $x$ is broadcast over the columns of $c$ for the evaluation. This keyword is useful when $c$ is multidimensional. The default value is True.

New in version 1.7.0.

**Returns**

**values**

[ndarray, algebra_like] The shape of the return value is described above.

**See also:**

`chebval2d`, `chebgrid2d`, `chebval3d`, `chebgrid3d`

**Notes**

The evaluation uses Clenshaw recursion, aka synthetic division.

polynomial.chebyshev.chebval2d($x$, $y$, $c$)

Evaluate a 2-D Chebyshev series at points ($x$, $y$).

This function returns the values:

$$p(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \ast T_i(x) \ast T_j(y)$$

The parameters $x$ and $y$ are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either $x$ and $y$ or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of $c$.

If $c$ is a 1-D array a one is implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be $c$.shape[2:] + $x$.shape.
Parameters

\(x, y\)

[array_like, compatible objects] The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points \((x, y)\), where \(x\) and \(y\) must have the same shape. If \(x\) or \(y\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and if it isn't an ndarray it is treated as a scalar.

\(c\)

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree \(i, j\) is contained in \(c[i, j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than 2 the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

\(values\)

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional Chebyshev series at points formed from pairs of corresponding values from \(x\) and \(y\).

See also:

\texttt{chebval}, \texttt{chebgrid2d}, \texttt{chebval3d}, \texttt{chebgrid3d}

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

\texttt{polynomial.chebyshev.chebval3d}(x, y, z, c)

Evaluate a 3-D Chebyshev series at points \((x, y, z)\).

This function returns the values:

\[ p(x, y, z) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} \cdot T_i(x) \cdot T_j(y) \cdot T_k(z) \]

The parameters \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than 3 dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be \(c\).shape[3:] + x.shape.

Parameters

\(x, y, z\)

[array_like, compatible object] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points \((x, y, z)\), where \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) must have the same shape. If any of \(x\), \(y\), or \(z\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and if it isn’t an ndarray it is treated as a scalar.

\(c\)

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree \(i,j,k\) is contained in \(c[i, j, k]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than 3 the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.
Returns

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the multidimensional polynomial on points formed with triples of corresponding values from x, y, and z.

See also:

chebval, chebval2d, chebgrid2d, chebgrid3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.chebyshev.chebgrid2d (x, y, c)

Evaluate a 2-D Chebyshev series on the Cartesian product of x and y.

This function returns the values:

\[ p(a, b) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \cdot T_i(a) \cdot T_j(b), \]

where the points \((a, b)\) consist of all pairs formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\) and \(b\) from \(y\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension and \(y\) in the second.

The parameters \(x\) and \(y\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars. In either case, either \(x\) and \(y\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than two dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be \(c\).shape[2:] + \(x\).shape + \(y\).shape.

Parameters

\(x, y\)

[array_like, compatible objects] The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\). If \(x\) or \(y\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

\(c\)

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree \(i,j\) is contained in \(c[i,j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional Chebyshev series at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

See also:

chebval, chebval2d, chebval3d, chebgrid3d
**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

`numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebgrid3d(x, y, z, c)`

Evaluate a 3-D Chebyshev series on the Cartesian product of x, y, and z.

This function returns the values:

\[ p(a, b, c) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} \cdot T_i(a) \cdot T_j(b) \cdot T_k(c) \]

where the points \((a, b, c)\) consist of all triples formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\), \(b\) from \(y\), and \(c\) from \(z\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension, \(y\) in the second, and \(z\) in the third.

The parameters \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as scalars. In either case, either \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than three dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be \(c.shape[3:] + x.shape + y.shape + z.shape\).

**Parameters**

- **x**, **y**, **z**
  
  [array_like, compatible objects] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\). If \(x\), \(y\), or \(z\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

- **c**
  
  [array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree \(i,j\) are contained in \(c[i, j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

**Returns**

- **values**
  
  [ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

**See also:**

`chebval`, `chebval2d`, `chebgrid2d`, `chebval3d`

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.
polynomial.chebyshev.chebder(c, m=1, scl=1, axis=0)

Differentiate a Chebyshev series.

Returns the Chebyshev series coefficients \( c \) differentiated \( m \) times along \( axis \). At each iteration the result is multiplied by \( scl \) (the scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable). The argument \( c \) is an array of coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., \([1,2,3]\) represents the series \(1*T_0 + 2*T_1 + 3*T_2\) while \([[[1,2],[1,2]]]\) represents \(1*T_0(x)*T_0(y) + 1*T_1(x)*T_0(y) + 2*T_0(x)*T_1(y) + 2*T_1(x)*T_1(y)\) if \(axis=0\) is \(x\) and \(axis=1\) is \(y\).

Parameters

- \(c\)  
  [array_like] Array of Chebyshev series coefficients. If \(c\) is multidimensional the different axis correspond to different variables with the degree in each axis given by the corresponding index.

- \(m\)  
  [int, optional] Number of derivatives taken, must be non-negative. (Default: 1)

- \(scl\)  
  [scalar, optional] Each differentiation is multiplied by \(scl\). The end result is multiplication by \(scl^m\). This is for use in a linear change of variable. (Default: 1)

- \(axis\)  
  [int, optional] Axis over which the derivative is taken. (Default: 0).  
  New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

- \(der\)  
  [ndarray] Chebyshev series of the derivative.

See also:

- chebint

Notes

In general, the result of differentiating a C-series needs to be “reprojected” onto the C-series basis set. Thus, typically, the result of this function is “unintuitive,” albeit correct; see Examples section below.
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import chebyshev as C
>>> c = (1,2,3,4)
>>> C.chebder(c)
array([14., 12., 24.])
>>> C.chebder(c, m=3)
array([96.])
>>> C.chebder(c, scl=-1)
array([-14., -12., -24.])
>>> C.chebder(c, k=-1)
array([-12., -96.])
```

`polynomial.chebyshev.chebint(c, m=1, k=[], lbnd=0, scl=1, axis=0)`

Integrate a Chebyshev series.

Returns the Chebyshev series coefficients $c$ integrated $m$ times from $lbnd$ along $axis$. At each iteration the resulting series is multiplied by $scl$ and an integration constant, $k$, is added. The scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable. (“Buyer beware”: note that, depending on what one is doing, one may want $scl$ to be the reciprocal of what one might expect; for more information, see the Notes section below.) The argument $c$ is an array of coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., $[1,2,3]$ represents the series $T_0 + 2*T_1 + 3*T_2$ while $[[1,2],[1,2]]$ represents $1*T_0(x)*T_0(y) + 1*T_1(x)*T_0(y) + 2*T_0(x)*T_1(y) + 2*T_1(x)*T_1(y)$ if $axis=0$ is $x$ and $axis=1$ is $y$.

Parameters

- **c**
  - [array_like] Array of Chebyshev series coefficients. If $c$ is multidimensional the different axis correspond to different variables with the degree in each axis given by the corresponding index.

- **m**
  - [int, optional] Order of integration, must be positive. (Default: 1)

- **k**
  - [{[], list, scalar}, optional] Integration constant(s). The value of the first integral at zero is the first value in the list, the value of the second integral at zero is the second value, etc. If $k == []$ (the default), all constants are set to zero. If $m == 1$, a single scalar can be given instead of a list.

- **lbnd**
  - [scalar, optional] The lower bound of the integral. (Default: 0)

- **scl**
  - [scalar, optional] Following each integration the result is multiplied by $scl$ before the integration constant is added. (Default: 1)

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] Axis over which the integral is taken. (Default: 0).

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

- **S**
  - [ndarray] C-series coefficients of the integral.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

Raises

ValueError

If m < 1, len(k) > m, np.ndim(lbnd) != 0, or np.ndim(scl) != 0.

See also:

chebder

Notes

Note that the result of each integration is multiplied by scl. Why is this important to note? Say one is making a linear change of variable u = ax + b in an integral relative to x. Then dx = du/a, so one will need to set scl equal to 1/a—perhaps not what one would have first thought.

Also note that, in general, the result of integrating a C-series needs to be “reprojected” onto the C-series basis set. Thus, typically, the result of this function is “unintuitive,” albeit correct; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import chebyshev as C
>>> c = (1,2,3)
>>> C.chebint(c)
array([ 0.5, -0.5, 0.5, 0.5])
>>> C.chebint(c,3)
array([ 0.03125 , -0.1875 ,
       0.04166667, -0.05208333, 0.01041667, # may vary
       0.00625 ])
>>> C.chebint(c, k=3)
array([ 3.5, -0.5, 0.5, 0.5])
>>> C.chebint(c,lbnd=-2)
array([ 8.5, -0.5, 0.5, 0.5])
>>> C.chebint(c,scl=-2)
array([-1., 1., -1., -1.])
```

Misc Functions

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**polynomial.chebyshev.chebfromroots(roots)**

Generate a Chebyshev series with given roots.

The function returns the coefficients of the polynomial

\[ p(x) = (x - r_0) \times (x - r_1) \times ... \times (x - r_n), \]

in Chebyshev form, where the \( r_n \) are the roots specified in `roots`. If a zero has multiplicity \( n \), then it must appear in `roots` \( n \) times. For instance, if 2 is a root of multiplicity three and 3 is a root of multiplicity 2, then `roots` looks something like \([2, 2, 2, 3, 3]\). The roots can appear in any order.

If the returned coefficients are \( c \), then

\[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 \times T_1(x) + ... + c_n \times T_n(x) \]

The coefficient of the last term is not generally 1 for monic polynomials in Chebyshev form.

**Parameters**

- **roots**
  - [array_like] Sequence containing the roots.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray] 1-D array of coefficients. If all roots are real then `out` is a real array, if some of the roots are complex, then `out` is complex even if all the coefficients in the result are real (see Examples below).

**See also:**

- `numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.legendre.legfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermefromroots`

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.polynomial.chebyshev as C
>>> C.chebfromroots((-1,0,1)) # x^3 - x relative to the standard basis
array([ 0. , -0.25, 0. , 0.25])
>>> j = complex(0,1)
>>> C.chebfromroots((-j,j)) # x^2 + 1 relative to the standard basis
array([1.5+0.j, 0. +0.j, 0.5+0.j])
```
polynomial.chebyshev.chebroots(c)

Compute the roots of a Chebyshev series.

Return the roots (a.k.a. “zeros”) of the polynomial

\[ p(x) = \sum_i c[i] \cdot T_i(x). \]

Parameters

- `c`  
  [1-D array_like] 1-D array of coefficients.

Returns

- `out`  
  [ndarray] Array of the roots of the series. If all the roots are real, then `out` is also real, otherwise it is complex.

See also:

- `numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.legendre.legroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermeroots`

Notes

The root estimates are obtained as the eigenvalues of the companion matrix. Roots far from the origin of the complex plane may have large errors due to the numerical instability of the series for such values. Roots with multiplicity greater than 1 will also show larger errors as the value of the series near such points is relatively insensitive to errors in the roots. Isolated roots near the origin can be improved by a few iterations of Newton’s method.

The Chebyshev series basis polynomials aren’t powers of \( x \) so the results of this function may seem unintuitive.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.polynomial.chebyshev as cheb
>>> cheb.chebroots((1, 1, -1, 1)) # T3 - T2 + T1 - T0 has real roots
array([-5.00000000e-01,  2.60860684e-17,  1.00000000e+00]) # may vary
```

polynomial.chebyshev.chevander(x, deg)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degree.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degree `deg` and sample points `x`. The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[ V[\ldots, i] = T_i(x), \]

where \( 0 \leq i \leq \text{deg} \). The leading indices of `V` index the elements of `x` and the last index is the degree of the Chebyshev polynomial.
If \( c \) is a 1-D array of coefficients of length \( n + 1 \) and \( V \) is the matrix \( V = \text{chebvander}(x, n) \), then \( \text{np.dot}(V, c) \) and \( \text{chebval}(x, c) \) are the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of Chebyshev series of the same degree and sample points.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  
  [array_like] Array of points. The dtype is converted to float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. If \( x \) is scalar it is converted to a 1-D array.

- **deg**
  
  [int] Degree of the resulting matrix.

**Returns**

- **vander**
  
  [ndarray] The pseudo Vandermonde matrix. The shape of the returned matrix is \( x.shape + (\text{deg} + 1, ) \), where The last index is the degree of the corresponding Chebyshev polynomial. The dtype will be the same as the converted \( x \).

---

**polynomial.chebyshev.chebvander2d** \((x, y, \text{deg})\)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees \( \text{deg} \) and sample points \((x, y)\). The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[
V[\ldots, (\text{deg}[1] + 1) * i + j] = T_i(x) * T_j(y),
\]

where \( 0 \leq i \leq \text{deg}[0] \) and \( 0 \leq j \leq \text{deg}[1] \). The leading indices of \( V \) index the points \((x, y)\) and the last index encodes the degrees of the Chebyshev polynomials.

If \( V = \text{chebvander2d}(x, y, [x\text{deg}, y\text{deg}]) \), then the columns of \( V \) correspond to the elements of a 2-D coefficient array \( c \) of shape \((x\text{deg} + 1, y\text{deg} + 1)\) in the order

\( c_{00}, c_{01}, c_{02}, \ldots, c_{10}, c_{11}, c_{12}, \ldots \)

and \( \text{np.dot}(V, c\text{.flat}) \) and \( \text{chebval2d}(x, y, c) \) will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 2-D Chebyshev series of the same degrees and sample points.

**Parameters**

- **x, y**
  
  [array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

- **deg**
  
  [list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form \([x\_\text{deg}, y\_\text{deg}]\).

**Returns**

- **vander2d**
  
  [ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is \( x.shape + (\text{order},) \), where \( \text{order} = (\text{deg}[0] + 1) * (\text{deg}[1] + 1) \). The dtype will be the same as the converted \( x \) and \( y \).
polynomial.chebyshev.chebvander3d(x, y, z, deg)
Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees \( deq \) and sample points \((x, y, z)\). If \( l, m, n \) are the given degrees in \( x, y, z \), then The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[
V[...,(m+1)(n+1)i+(n+1)j+k] = T_i(x) * T_j(y) * T_k(z),
\]

where \( 0 <= i <= l \), \( 0 <= j <= m \), and \( 0 <= j <= n \). The leading indices of \( V \) index the points \((x, y, z)\) and the last index encodes the degrees of the Chebyshev polynomials.

If \( V = chebvander3d(x, y, z, [x\_deg, y\_deg, z\_deg]) \), then the columns of \( V \) correspond to the elements of a 3-D coefficient array \( c \) of shape \((x\_deg + 1, y\_deg + 1, z\_deg + 1)\) in the order

\[
c_{000}, c_{001}, c_{002}, ..., c_{010}, c_{011}, c_{012}, ...
\]

and \( np.dot(V, c.flat) \) and \( chebval3d(x, y, z, c) \) will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 3-D Chebyshev series of the same degrees and sample points.

Parameters

- \( x, y, z \)
  [array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

- \( deg \)
  [list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form \([x\_deg, y\_deg, z\_deg]\).

Returns

- \( vander3d \)
  [ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is \( x.shape + (order,) \), where \( order = (deg[0] + 1) * (deg[1] + 1) * (deg[2] + 1) \). The dtype will be the same as the converted \( x, y, \) and \( z \).

See also:

- \( chebvander, chebvander3d, chebval2d, chebval3d \)
**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

`polynomial.chebyshev.chebgauss(deg)`

Gauss-Chebyshev quadrature.

Computes the sample points and weights for Gauss-Chebyshev quadrature. These sample points and weights will correctly integrate polynomials of degree $2 * deg - 1$ or less over the interval $[-1, 1]$ with the weight function $f(x) = 1/\sqrt{1 - x^2}$.

**Parameters**

- `deg`
  [int] Number of sample points and weights. It must be $\geq 1$.

**Returns**

- `x`
  [ndarray] 1-D ndarray containing the sample points.

- `y`
  [ndarray] 1-D ndarray containing the weights.

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

The results have only been tested up to degree 100, higher degrees may be problematic. For Gauss-Chebyshev there are closed form solutions for the sample points and weights. If $n = deg$, then

$$x_i = \cos(\pi(2i - 1)/(2n))$$

$$w_i = \pi/n$$

`polynomial.chebyshev.chebweight(x)`

The weight function of the Chebyshev polynomials.

The weight function is $1/\sqrt{1 - x^2}$ and the interval of integration is $[-1, 1]$. The Chebyshev polynomials are orthogonal, but not normalized, with respect to this weight function.

**Parameters**

- `x`
  [array_like] Values at which the weight function will be computed.

**Returns**

- `w`
  [ndarray] The weight function at $x$. 

---

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**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

`numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebcompanion(c)`

Return the scaled companion matrix of `c`.

The basis polynomials are scaled so that the companion matrix is symmetric when `c` is a Chebyshev basis polynomial. This provides better eigenvalue estimates than the unscaled case and for basis polynomials the eigenvalues are guaranteed to be real if `numpy.linalg.eigvalsh` is used to obtain them.

**Parameters**

- `c`  
  [array_like] 1-D array of Chebyshev series coefficients ordered from low to high degree.

**Returns**

- `mat`  
  [ndarray] Scaled companion matrix of dimensions (deg, deg).

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

`numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfit(x, y, deg=None, rcond=None, full=False, w=None)`

Least squares fit of Chebyshev series to data.

Return the coefficients of a Chebyshev series of degree `deg` that is the least squares fit to the data values `y` given at points `x`. If `y` is 1-D the returned coefficients will also be 1-D. If `y` is 2-D multiple fits are done, one for each column of `y`, and the resulting coefficients are stored in the corresponding columns of a 2-D return. The fitted polynomial(s) are in the form

\[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 \cdot T_1(x) + ... + c_n \cdot T_n(x), \]

where \( n \) is `deg`.

**Parameters**

- `x`  
  [array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points \((x[i], y[i])\).

- `y`  
  [array_like, shape (M,) or (M, K)] y-coordinates of the sample points. Several data sets of sample points sharing the same x-coordinates can be fitted at once by passing in a 2D-array that contains one dataset per column.

- `deg`  
  [int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If `deg` is a single integer, all terms up to and including the `deg`’th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions >= 1.11.0 a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.
rcond

[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is len(x)*eps, where eps is the relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.

full

[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

w

[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None, the contribution of each point (x[i],y[i]) to the fit is weighted by w[i]. Ideally the weights are chosen so that the errors of the products w[i]*y[i] all have the same variance. The default value is None. New in version 1.5.0.

Returns

coef

[ndarray, shape (M,) or (M, K)] Chebyshev coefficients ordered from low to high. If y was 2-D, the coefficients for the data in column k of y are in column k.

[residuals, rank, singular_values, rcond]

[list] These values are only returned if full = True

resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit
rank – the numerical rank of the scaled Vandermonde matrix
sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix
rcond – value of rcond.

For more details, see numpy.linalg.lstsq.

Warns

RankWarning

The rank of the coefficient matrix in the least-squares fit is deficient. The warning is only raised if full = False. The warnings can be turned off by

```python
>>> import warnings
>>> warnings.simplefilter('ignore', np.RankWarning)
```

See also:

numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyfit
numpy.polynomial.legendre.legfit
numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagfit
numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermfit
numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermefit
chebval

Evaluates a Chebyshev series.
chebvander

Vandermonde matrix of Chebyshev series.

chebweight

Chebyshev weight function.

numpy.linalg.lstsq

Computes a least-squares fit from the matrix.

scipy.interpolate.UnivariateSpline

Computes spline fits.

Notes

The solution is the coefficients of the Chebyshev series \( p \) that minimizes the sum of the weighted squared errors

\[
E = \sum_j w_j^2 \cdot |y_j - p(x_j)|^2,
\]

where \( w_j \) are the weights. This problem is solved by setting up as the (typically) overdetermined matrix equation

\[ V(x) \cdot c = w \cdot y, \]

where \( V \) is the weighted pseudo Vandermonde matrix of \( x \), \( c \) are the coefficients to be solved for, \( w \) are the weights, and \( y \) are the observed values. This equation is then solved using the singular value decomposition of \( V \).

If some of the singular values of \( V \) are so small that they are neglected, then a \texttt{RankWarning} will be issued. This means that the coefficient values may be poorly determined. Using a lower order fit will usually get rid of the warning. The \texttt{rcond} parameter can also be set to a value smaller than its default, but the resulting fit may be spurious and have large contributions from roundoff error.

Fits using Chebyshev series are usually better conditioned than fits using power series, but much can depend on the distribution of the sample points and the smoothness of the data. If the quality of the fit is inadequate splines may be a good alternative.

References

[1]

polynomial.chebyshev.chebpts1(npts)

Chebyshev points of the first kind.

The Chebyshev points of the first kind are the points \( \cos(x) \), where \( x = \pi*(k + .5)/npts \) for \( k \) in range(npts)].}

Parameters

npts

[int] Number of sample points desired.

Returns

pts

[ndarray] The Chebyshev points of the first kind.
See also:

`chebpts2`

**Notes**

New in version 1.5.0.

`polynomial.chebyshev.chebpts2(npts)`

Chebyshev points of the second kind.

The Chebyshev points of the second kind are the points \( \cos(x) \), where \( x = [\pi k / (npts - 1) \text{ for } k \text{ in range}(npts)] \).

**Parameters**

- `npts`  
  [int] Number of sample points desired.

**Returns**

- `pts`  
  [ndarray] The Chebyshev points of the second kind.

**Notes**

New in version 1.5.0.

`polynomial.chebyshev.chebtrim(c, tol=0)`

Remove “small” “trailing” coefficients from a polynomial.

“Small” means “small in absolute value” and is controlled by the parameter `tol`; “trailing” means highest order coefficient(s), e.g., in \([0, 1, 1, 0, 0]\) (which represents \(0 + x + x^2 + 0*x^3 + 0*x^4\)) both the 3-rd and 4-th order coefficients would be “trimmed.”

**Parameters**

- `c`  
  [array_like] 1-d array of coefficients, ordered from lowest order to highest.

- `tol`  
  [number, optional] Trailing (i.e., highest order) elements with absolute value less than or equal to `tol` (default value is zero) are removed.

**Returns**

- `trimmed`  
  [ndarray] 1-d array with trailing zeros removed. If the resulting series would be empty, a series containing a single zero is returned.

**Raises**
ValueError

If \( tol < 0 \)

See also:

\texttt{trimseq}

\section*{Examples}

\begin{verbatim}
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polyutils as pu
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,3,0,5,0,0))
array([0., 0., 3., 0., 5.])
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,1e-3,0,1e-5,0,0),1e-3) # item == tol is trimmed
array([0.])
>>> i = complex(0,1) # works for complex
>>> pu.trimcoef((3e-4,1e-3*(1-i),5e-4,2e-5*(1+i)), 1e-3)
array([0.0003+0.j, 0.001-0.001j])
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{polynomial.chebyshev.chebline} \((\text{off}, \text{scl})\)

Chebyshev series whose graph is a straight line.

**Parameters**

- \texttt{off, scl}

  [scalars] The specified line is given by \( \text{off} + \text{scl}*x \).

**Returns**

- \texttt{y}

  [ndarray] This module's representation of the Chebyshev series for \( \text{off} + \text{scl}*x \).

See also:

- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyline}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.legendre.legline}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagline}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermline}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermeline}

\section*{Examples}

\begin{verbatim}
>>> import numpy.polynomial.chebyshev as C
>>> C.chebline(3,2)
array([3, 2])
>>> C.chebval(-3, C.chebline(3,2)) # should be -3
-3.0
\end{verbatim}
polynomial.chebyshev.cheb2poly(c)

Convert a Chebyshev series to a polynomial.

Convert an array representing the coefficients of a Chebyshev series, ordered from lowest degree to highest, to an array of the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest to highest degree.

Parameters

c

[array_like] 1-D array containing the Chebyshev series coefficients, ordered from lowest order term to highest.

Returns

pol

[ndarray] 1-D array containing the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest order term to highest.

See also:

poly2cheb

Notes

The easy way to do conversions between polynomial basis sets is to use the convert method of a class instance.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy import polynomial as P
>>> c = P.Chebyshev(range(4))
>>> c
Chebyshev([0., 1., 2., 3.], domain=[-1, 1], window=[-1, 1])
>>> p = c.convert(kind=P.Polynomial)
>>> p
Polynomial([-2., -8., 4., 12.], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> P.chebyshev.cheb2poly(range(4))
array([-2., -8., 4., 12.])
```

polynomial.chebyshev.poly2cheb(pol)

Convert a polynomial to a Chebyshev series.

Convert an array representing the coefficients of a polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest degree to highest, to an array of the coefficients of the equivalent Chebyshev series, ordered from lowest to highest degree.

Parameters

pol

[array_like] 1-D array containing the polynomial coefficients

Returns
c

[ndarray] 1-D array containing the coefficients of the equivalent Chebyshev series.

See also:

cheb2poly

Notes

The easy way to do conversions between polynomial basis sets is to use the convert method of a class instance.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy import polynomial as P
>>> p = P.Polynomial(range(4))
>>> p
Polynomial([0., 1., 2., 3.], domain=[-1, 1], window=[-1, 1])
>>> c = p.convert(kind=P.Chebyshev)
>>> c
Chebyshev([1. , 3.25, 1. , 0.75], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> P.chebyshev.poly2cheb(range(4))
array([1. , 3.25, 1. , 0.75])
```

polynomial.chebyshev.chebinterpolate(func, deg, args=())

Interpolate a function at the Chebyshev points of the first kind.

Returns the Chebyshev series that interpolates \( \text{func} \) at the Chebyshev points of the first kind in the interval \([-1, 1]\). The interpolating series tends to a minmax approximation to \( \text{func} \) with increasing \( \text{deg} \) if the function is continuous in the interval.

New in version 1.14.0.

Parameters

- **func**
  - [function] The function to be approximated. It must be a function of a single variable of the form \( f(x, a, b, c...) \), where \( a, b, c... \) are extra arguments passed in the \( \text{args} \) parameter.

- **deg**
  - [int] Degree of the interpolating polynomial

- **args**
  - [tuple, optional] Extra arguments to be used in the function call. Default is no extra arguments.

Returns

- **coef**
  - [ndarray, shape (\( \text{deg} + 1, \))] Chebyshev coefficients of the interpolating series ordered from low to high.
Notes

The Chebyshev polynomials used in the interpolation are orthogonal when sampled at the Chebyshev points of the first kind. If it is desired to constrain some of the coefficients they can simply be set to the desired value after the interpolation, no new interpolation or fit is needed. This is especially useful if it is known apriori that some of coefficients are zero. For instance, if the function is even then the coefficients of the terms of odd degree in the result can be set to zero.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.polynomial.chebyshev as C
>>> C.chebfromfunction(lambda x: np.tanh(x) + 0.5, 8)
array([ 5.00000000e-01, 8.11675684e-01, -9.86864911e-17, -5.42457905e-02, -2.71387850e-16, 4.51658839e-03, 2.46716228e-17, -3.79694221e-04, -3.26899002e-16])
```

See also

numpy.polynomial

Notes

The implementations of multiplication, division, integration, and differentiation use the algebraic identities [1]:

\[ T_n(x) = \frac{z^n + z^{-n}}{2} \]

\[ \frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{z - z^{-1}}{2} \]

where

\[ x = \frac{z + z^{-1}}{2}. \]

These identities allow a Chebyshev series to be expressed as a finite, symmetric Laurent series. In this module, this sort of Laurent series is referred to as a “z-series.”

References

New in version 1.6.0.

Hermite Series, “Physicists” (numpy.polynomial.hermite)

This module provides a number of objects (mostly functions) useful for dealing with Hermite series, including a Hermite class that encapsulates the usual arithmetic operations. (General information on how this module represents and works with such polynomials is in the docstring for its “parent” sub-package, numpy.polynomial).
Classes

**Hermite**(coef[, domain, window])       An Hermite series class.

**class** numpy.polynomial.hermite.Hermite(coef, domain=None, window=None)
An Hermite series class.

The Hermite class provides the standard Python numerical methods `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `//`, `%`, `divmod`, `**`, and `()` as well as the attributes and methods listed in the ABCPolyBase documentation.

**Parameters**

**coef**

[array_like] Hermite coefficients in order of increasing degree, i.e., (1, 2, 3) gives $1*H_0(x) + 2*H_1(x) + 3*H_2(x)$.

**domain**

[(2,) array_like, optional] Domain to use. The interval [domain[0], domain[1]] is mapped to the interval [window[0], window[1]] by shifting and scaling. The default value is [-1, 1].

**window**

[(2,) array_like, optional] Window, see domain for its use. The default value is [-1, 1].

New in version 1.6.0.

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...
polynomial.hermite.Hermite.__call__(arg)
    Call self as a function.

method

classmethod polynomial.hermite.Hermite.basis(deg, domain=None, window=None)
    Series basis polynomial of degree deg.

    Returns the series representing the basis polynomial of degree deg.

    New in version 1.7.0.

    Parameters

    deg
        [int] Degree of the basis polynomial for the series. Must be >= 0.

    domain
        [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where
        beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is
        used. The default is None.

    window
        [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form [beg, end], where
        beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

    Returns

    new_series
        [series] A series with the coefficient of the deg term set to one and all others zero.

method

classmethod polynomial.hermite.Hermite.cast(series, domain=None, window=None)
    Convert series to series of this class.

    The series is expected to be an instance of some polynomial series of one of the types supported by the
    numpy.polynomial module, but could be some other class that supports the convert method.

    New in version 1.7.0.

    Parameters

    series
        [series] The series instance to be converted.

    domain
        [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where
        beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is
        used. The default is None.

    window
        [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form [beg, end], where
        beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.
Returns

new_series

[series] A series of the same kind as the calling class and equal to series when evaluated.

See also:

copy

similar instance method

method

polynomial.hermite.Hermite.copy()

Return a copy.

Returns

new_series

[series] Copy of self.
polynomial.hermite.Hermite.cutdeg(deg)
    Truncate series to the given degree.

Reduce the degree of the series to \( deg \) by discarding the high order terms. If \( deg \) is greater than the current degree a copy of the current series is returned. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters

deg
    [non-negative int] The series is reduced to degree \( deg \) by discarding the high order terms. The value of \( deg \) must be a non-negative integer.

Returns

new_series
    [series] New instance of series with reduced degree.

method

polynomial.hermite.Hermite.degree()
    The degree of the series.

New in version 1.5.0.

Returns

degree
    [int] Degree of the series, one less than the number of coefficients.

method

polynomial.hermite.Hermite.deriv(m=1)
    Differentiate.

Return a series instance of that is the derivative of the current series.

Parameters

m
    [non-negative int] Find the derivative of order \( m \).

Returns

new_series
    [series] A new series representing the derivative. The domain is the same as the domain of the differentiated series.

method

classmethod polynomial.hermite.Hermite.fit(x, y, deg=None, domain=None, rcond=None, full=False, w=None, window=None)
    Least squares fit to data.
Return a series instance that is the least squares fit to the data $y$ sampled at $x$. The domain of the returned instance can be specified and this will often result in a superior fit with less chance of ill conditioning.

**Parameters**

- $x$
  
  [array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points $(x[i], y[i])$.

- $y$
  
  [array_like, shape (M,)] y-coordinates of the M sample points $(x[i], y[i])$.

- $deg$
  
  [int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If $deg$ is a single integer all terms up to and including the $deg$'th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions $\geq$ 1.11.0 a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.

- $domain$
  
  [[[None, [beg, end], []], optional] Domain to use for the returned series. If None, then a minimal domain that covers the points $x$ is chosen. If [] the class domain is used. The default value was the class domain in NumPy 1.4 and None in later versions. The [] option was added in numpy 1.5.0.

- $rcond$
  
  [float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is len(x)*eps, where eps is the relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.

- $full$
  
  [bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

- $w$
  
  [array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None the contribution of each point $(x[i], y[i])$ to the fit is weighted by $w[i]$. Ideally the weights are chosen so that the errors of the products $w[i]*y[i]$ all have the same variance. The default value is None.

  New in version 1.5.0.

- $window$
  
  [[[[beg, end]]], optional] Window to use for the returned series. The default value is the default class domain

  New in version 1.6.0.

**Returns**

- new_series
  
  [series] A series that represents the least squares fit to the data and has the domain and window specified in the call. If the coefficients for the unscaled and unshifted basis polynomials are of interest, do new_series.convert().coef.

- [resid, rank, sv, rcond]
  
  [list] These values are only returned if $full = True$
resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit rank – the numerical rank of the
scaled Vandermonde matrix sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix rcond –
value of rcond.
For more details, see \texttt{\texttt{linalg.lstsq}}.

method

\texttt{\textbf{classmethod polynomial.hermite.Hermite.fromroots}} (roots, domain=[], window=None)
Return series instance that has the specified roots.

Returns a series representing the product $(x - r[0])*(x - r[1])*...*(x - r[n-1])$, where
$r$ is a list of roots.

Parameters

roots
[array_like] List of roots.

domain
[['[', None, array_like], optional] Domain for the resulting series. If None the domain is the
interval from the smallest root to the largest. If [] the domain is the class domain. The default
is {}.

window
[['None, array_like], optional] Window for the returned series. If None the class window is
used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series
[series] Series with the specified roots.

method

\texttt{\textbf{polynomial.hermite.Hermite.has_samecoef}} (other)
Check if coefficients match.
New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other
[class instance] The other class must have the coef attribute.

Returns

bool
[boolean] True if the coefficients are the same, False otherwise.

method

\texttt{\textbf{polynomial.hermite.Hermite.has_samedomain}} (other)
Check if domains match.
New in version 1.6.0.
Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the domain attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the domains are the same, False otherwise.

method

polynomial.hermite.Hermite.has_sametype(other)

Check if types match.

New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

other

[object] Class instance.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if other is same class as self

method

polynomial.hermite.Hermite.has_samewindow(other)

Check if windows match.

New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the window attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the windows are the same, False otherwise.

method

classmethod polynomial.hermite.Hermite.identity(domain=None, window=None)

Identity function.

If \( p \) is the returned series, then \( p(x) = x \) for all values of \( x \).

Parameters
domain

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

window

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

[series] Series of representing the identity.

method

polynomial.hermite.Hermite.integ(m=1, k=[], lbnd=None)

Integrate.

Return a series instance that is the definite integral of the current series.

Parameters

m

[non-negative int] The number of integrations to perform.

k

[array_like] Integration constants. The first constant is applied to the first integration, the second to the second, and so on. The list of values must less than or equal to m in length and any missing values are set to zero.

lbnd

[Scalar] The lower bound of the definite integral.

Returns

new_series

[series] A new series representing the integral. The domain is the same as the domain of the integrated series.

method

polynomial.hermite.Hermite.linspace(n=100, domain=None)

Return x, y values at equally spaced points in domain.

Returns the x, y values at n linearly spaced points across the domain. Here y is the value of the polynomial at the points x. By default the domain is the same as that of the series instance. This method is intended mostly as a plotting aid.

New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters
n
[int, optional] Number of point pairs to return. The default value is 100.

domain
[[None, array_like], optional] If not None, the specified domain is used instead of that of
the calling instance. It should be of the form [beg, end]. The default is None which case
the class domain is used.

Returns

x, y

[ndarray] x is equal to linspace(self.domain[0], self.domain[1], n) and y is the series evaluated
at element of x.

method
polynomial.hermite.Hermite.mapparms()
Return the mapping parameters.

The returned values define a linear map off + scl*x that is applied to the input arguments before the
series is evaluated. The map depends on the domain and window; if the current domain is equal to the
window the resulting map is the identity. If the coefficients of the series instance are to be used by themselves
outside this class, then the linear function must be substituted for the x in the standard representation of the
base polynomials.

Returns

off, scl

[float or complex] The mapping function is defined by off + scl*x.

Notes

If the current domain is the interval [l1, r1] and the window is [l2, r2], then the linear mapping
function L is defined by the equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
L(l1) &= l2 \\
L(r1) &= r2
\end{align*}
\]

method
polynomial.hermite.Hermite.roots()
Return the roots of the series polynomial.

Compute the roots for the series. Note that the accuracy of the roots decrease the further outside the domain
they lie.

Returns

roots

[ndarray] Array containing the roots of the series.
polynomial.hermite.Hermite.trim(tol=0)

Remove trailing coefficients

Remove trailing coefficients until a coefficient is reached whose absolute value greater than tol or the beginning of the series is reached. If all the coefficients would be removed the series is set to [0]. A new series instance is returned with the new coefficients. The current instance remains unchanged.

Parameters

tol

[non-negative number.] All trailing coefficients less than tol will be removed.

Returns

new_series


method

polynomial.hermite.Hermite.truncate(size)

Truncate series to length size.

Reduce the series to length size by discarding the high degree terms. The value of size must be a positive integer. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

Parameters

size

[positive int] The series is reduced to length size by discarding the high degree terms. The value of size must be a positive integer.

Returns

new_series


Constants

hermdomain

hermzero

hermone

hermx

polynomial.hermite.hermdomain = array([-1, 1])
polynomial.hermite.hermzero = array([0])
polynomial.hermite.hermone = array([1])
polynomial.hermite.hermx = array([0., 0.5])

4.22. Polynomials
Arithmetic

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<td>Evaluate a 3-D Hermite series on the Cartesian product of x, y, and z.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

polynomial.hermite.**hermadd** *(c1, c2)*

Add one Hermite series to another.

Returns the sum of two Hermite series *c1* + *c2*. The arguments are sequences of coefficients ordered from lowest order term to highest, i.e., [1,2,3] represents the series \( P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2 \).

**Parameters**

`c1, c2`

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

**Returns**

`out`

[ndarray] Array representing the Hermite series of their sum.

**See also:**

`hermsub, hermmulx, hermmul, hermdiv, hermpow`

**Notes**

Unlike multiplication, division, etc., the sum of two Hermite series is a Hermite series (without having to “reproject” the result onto the basis set) so addition, just like that of “standard” polynomials, is simply “component-wise.”

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermadd
>>> hermadd([1, 2, 3], [1, 2, 3, 4])
array([2., 4., 6., 4.])
```

polynomial.hermite.**hermsub** *(c1, c2)*

Subtract one Hermite series from another.

Returns the difference of two Hermite series *c1* - *c2*. The sequences of coefficients are from lowest order term to highest, i.e., [1,2,3] represents the series \( P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2 \).
Parameters

c1, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Of Hermite series coefficients representing their difference.

See also:

hermadd, hermmulx, hermmul, hermdiv, hermpow

Notes

Unlike multiplication, division, etc., the difference of two Hermite series is a Hermite series (without having to “re-project” the result onto the basis set) so subtraction, just like that of “standard” polynomials, is simply “component-wise.”

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermsub
>>> hermsub([1, 2, 3, 4], [1, 2, 3])
array([0., 0., 0., 4.])
```

polynomial.hermite.hermmulx(c)

Multiply a Hermite series by x.

Multiplying the Hermite series c by x, where x is the independent variable.

Parameters

c

[array_like] 1-D array of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Array representing the result of the multiplication.

See also:

hermadd, hermsub, hermmul, hermdiv, hermpow
Notes

The multiplication uses the recursion relationship for Hermite polynomials in the form
\[ xP_i(x) = \left( P_{i+1}(x)/2 + iP_{i-1}(x) \right) \]

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermmul
>>> hermmul([1, 2, 3])
array([6.5, 1. , 1.5])
```

`polynomial.hermite.hermmul(c1, c2)`

Multiply one Hermite series by another.

Returns the product of two Hermite series \( c1 \cdot c2 \). The arguments are sequences of coefficients, from lowest order “term” to highest, e.g., \([1,2,3]\) represents the series \( P_0 + 2\cdot P_1 + 3\cdot P_2 \).

Parameters

- **c1, c2**
  - [array_like] 1-D arrays of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

- **out**
  - [ndarray] Of Hermite series coefficients representing their product.

See also:

`hermadd`, `hermsub`, `hermmulx`, `hermdiv`, `hermpow`

Notes

In general, the (polynomial) product of two C-series results in terms that are not in the Hermite polynomial basis set. Thus, to express the product as a Hermite series, it is necessary to “reproject” the product onto said basis set, which may produce “unintuitive” (but correct) results; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermdiv
>>> hermdiv([1, 2, 3], [0, 1, 2])
array([52., 29., 52., 7., 6.])
```

`polynomial.hermite.hermdiv(c1, c2)`

Divide one Hermite series by another.

Returns the quotient-with-remainder of two Hermite series \( c1 / c2 \). The arguments are sequences of coefficients from lowest order “term” to highest, e.g., \([1,2,3]\) represents the series \( P_0 + 2\cdot P_1 + 3\cdot P_2 \).

Parameters
c1, c2
[array_like] 1-D arrays of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns
[quo, rem]
[ndarrays] Of Hermite series coefficients representing the quotient and remainder.

See also:
hermadd, hermsub, hermmulx, hermmul, hermpow

Notes
In general, the (polynomial) division of one Hermite series by another results in quotient and remainder terms that are not in the Hermite polynomial basis set. Thus, to express these results as a Hermite series, it is necessary to “reproject” the results onto the Hermite basis set, which may produce “unintuitive” (but correct) results; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermdiv
>>> hermdiv([52., 29., 52., 7., 6.], [0, 1, 2])
(array([1., 2., 3.]), array([0.]))
>>> hermdiv([54., 31., 52., 7., 6.], [0, 1, 2])
(array([1., 2., 3.]), array([2., 2.]))
>>> hermdiv([53., 30., 52., 7., 6.], [0, 1, 2])
(array([1., 2., 3.]), array([1., 1.]))
```

polynomial.hermite.hermpow(c, pow, maxpower=16)
Raise a Hermite series to a power.

Returns the Hermite series c raised to the power pow. The argument c is a sequence of coefficients ordered from low to high. i.e., [1,2,3] is the series \( P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2 \).

Parameters

- c
  [array_like] 1-D array of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

- pow
  [integer] Power to which the series will be raised

- maxpower
  [integer, optional] Maximum power allowed. This is mainly to limit growth of the series to unmanageable size. Default is 16

Returns

- coef
  [ndarray] Hermite series of power.
See also:

`hermadd`, `hermsub`, `hermmulx`, `hermmul`, `hermdiv`

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermpow
>>> hermpow([1, 2, 3], 2)
array([81., 52., 82., 12., 9.])
```

`polynomial.hermite.hermval(x, c, tensor=True)`

Evaluate an Hermite series at points `x`.

If `c` is of length `n + 1`, this function returns the value:

\[ p(x) = c_0 \times H_0(x) + c_1 \times H_1(x) + \ldots + c_n \times H_n(x) \]

The parameter `x` is converted to an array only if it is a tuple or a list, otherwise it is treated as a scalar. In either case, either `x` or its elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of `c`.

If `c` is a 1-D array, then `p(x)` will have the same shape as `x`. If `c` is multidimensional, then the shape of the result depends on the value of `tensor`. If `tensor` is true the shape will be `c.shape[1:] + x.shape`. If `tensor` is false the shape will be `c.shape[1:]`. Note that scalars have shape `()`.

Trailing zeros in the coefficients will be used in the evaluation, so they should be avoided if efficiency is a concern.

Parameters

- **x**
  - [array_like, compatible object] If `x` is a list or tuple, it is converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and treated as a scalar. In either case, `x` or its elements must support addition and multiplication with with themselves and with the elements of `c`.

- **c**
  - [array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree `n` are contained in `c[n]`. If `c` is multidimensional the remaining indices enumerate multiple polynomials. In the two dimensional case the coefficients may be thought of as stored in the columns of `c`.

- **tensor**
  - [boolean, optional] If True, the shape of the coefficient array is extended with ones on the right, one for each dimension of `x`. Scalars have dimension 0 for this action. The result is that every column of coefficients in `c` is evaluated for every element of `x`. If False, `x` is broadcast over the columns of `c` for the evaluation. This keyword is useful when `c` is multidimensional. The default value is True.

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

- **values**
  - [ndarray, algebra_like] The shape of the return value is described above.

See also:
**hermval2d, hermgrid2d, hermval3d, hermgrid3d**

**Notes**

The evaluation uses Clenshaw recursion, aka synthetic division.

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermval
>>> coef = [1, 2, 3]
>>> hermval(1, coef)
11.0
>>> hermval([[1,2],[3,4]], coef)
array([[ 11., 51.],
       [115., 203.]])
```

`polynomial.hermite.hermval2d(x, y, c)`

Evaluate a 2-D Hermite series at points `(x, y)`.

This function returns the values:

\[ p(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \cdot H_i(x) \cdot H_j(y) \]

The parameters `x` and `y` are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either `x` and `y` or their elements must support multiplication and addition between themselves and with the elements of `c`.

If `c` is a 1-D array a one is implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be `c.shape[2:] + x.shape`.

**Parameters**

- `x, y`
  
  [array_like, compatible objects] The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points `(x, y)`, where `x` and `y` must have the same shape. If `x` or `y` is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and if it isn’t an ndarray it is treated as a scalar.

- `c`
  
  [array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree `i,j` is contained in `c[i, j]`. If `c` has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

**Returns**

- `values`
  
  [ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points formed with pairs of corresponding values from `x` and `y`.

**See also:**

*hermval, hermgrid2d, hermval3d, hermgrid3d*
Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.hermite.hermval3d(x, y, z, c)
Evaluate a 3-D Hermite series at points (x, y, z).

This function returns the values:

\[ p(x, y, z) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} \cdot H_i(x) \cdot H_j(y) \cdot H_k(z) \]

The parameters x, y, and z are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either x, y, and z or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of c.

If c has fewer than 3 dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be c.shape[3:] + x.shape.

Parameters

x, y, z
[array_like, compatible object] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points (x, y, z), where x, y, and z must have the same shape. If any of x, y, or z is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and if it isn’t an ndarray it is treated as a scalar.

c
[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree i,j,k is contained in c[i, j, k]. If c has dimension greater than 3 the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

values
[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the multidimensional polynomial on points formed with triples of corresponding values from x, y, and z.

See also:
hermval, hermval2d, hermgrid2d, hermgrid3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.hermite.hermgrid2d(x, y, c)
Evaluate a 2-D Hermite series on the Cartesian product of x and y.

This function returns the values:

\[ p(a, b) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \cdot H_i(a) \cdot H_j(b) \]

where the points (a, b) consist of all pairs formed by taking a from x and b from y. The resulting points form a grid with x in the first dimension and y in the second.
The parameters \(x\) and \(y\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars. In either case, either \(x\) and \(y\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than two dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be \(c\).shape[2:] + x.shape.

**Parameters**

\(x, y\)

[array_like, compatible objects] The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\). If \(x\) or \(y\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

\(c\)

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree \(i,j\) are contained in \(c[i,j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

**Returns**

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

See also:

*hermval, hermval2d, hermval3d, hermgrid3d*

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.hermite.hermgrid3d\((x, y, z, c)\)

Evaluate a 3-D Hermite series on the Cartesian product of \(x, y,\) and \(z\).

This function returns the values:

\[
p(a, b, c) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} * H_i(a) * H_j(b) * H_k(c)
\]

where the points \((a, b, c)\) consist of all triples formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\), \(b\) from \(y\), and \(c\) from \(z\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension, \(y\) in the second, and \(z\) in the third.

The parameters \(x, y,\) and \(z\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars. In either case, either \(x, y,\) and \(z\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than three dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be \(c\).shape[3:] + x.shape + y.shape + z.shape.

**Parameters**

\(x, y, z\)
The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \( x, y, \) and \( z \). If \( x, y, \) or \( z \) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

**c**

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree \( i,j \) are contained in \( c[i,j] \). If \( c \) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

**Returns**

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points in the Cartesian product of \( x \) and \( y \).

**See also:**

*hermval*, *hermval2d*, *hermgrid2d*, *hermval3d*

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

**Calculus**

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<td>hermder(c[, m, scl, axis])</td>
<td>Differentiate a Hermite series.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hermint(c[, m, k, lbnd, scl, axis])</td>
<td>Integrate a Hermite series.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Polynomial.hermite.**hermder**(c[, m=1, scl=1, axis=0)

Differentiate a Hermite series.

Returns the Hermite series coefficients \( c \) differentiated \( m \) times along \( axis \). At each iteration the result is multiplied by \( scl \) (the scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable). The argument \( c \) is an array of coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., \([1,2,3]\) represents the series \( 1*H_0 + 2*H_1 + 3*H_2 \) while \([([1,2],[1,2])]\) represents \( 1*H_0(x)*H_0(y) + 1*H_1(x)*H_0(y) + 2*H_0(x)*H_1(y) + 2*H_1(x)*H_1(y) \) if \( axis=0 \) is \( x \) and \( axis=1 \) is \( y \).

**Parameters**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>[array_like] Array of Hermite series coefficients. If ( c ) is multidimensional the different axes correspond to different variables with the degree in each axis given by the corresponding index.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>[int, optional] Number of derivatives taken, must be non-negative. (Default: 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scl</td>
<td>[scalar, optional] Each differentiation is multiplied by ( scl ). The end result is multiplication by ( scl^m ). This is for use in a linear change of variable. (Default: 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>axis</td>
<td>[int, optional] Axis over which the derivative is taken. (Default: 0).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

der

[ndarray] Hermite series of the derivative.

See also:

hermint

Notes

In general, the result of differentiating a Hermite series does not resemble the same operation on a power series. Thus the result of this function may be "unintuitive," albeit correct; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermder
>>> hermder([1., 0.5, 0.5, 0.5])
array([1., 2., 3.])
>>> hermder([-0.5, 1./2., 1./8., 1./12., 1./16.], m=2)
array([1., 2., 3.])
```

`polynomial.hermite.hermint(c, m=1, k=[], lbnd=0, scl=1, axis=0)`

Integrate a Hermite series.

Returns the Hermite series coefficients `c` integrated `m` times from `lbnd` along `axis`. At each iteration the resulting series is multiplied by `scl` and an integration constant, `k`, is added. The scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable. (“Buyer beware”: note that, depending on what one is doing, one may want `scl` to be the reciprocal of what one might expect; for more information, see the Notes section below.) The argument `c` is an array of coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., `[1,2,3]` represents the series \( H_0 + 2*H_1 + 3*H_2 \) while `[1,2],[1,2]` represents \( 1*H_0(x)*H_0(y) + 1*H_1(x)*H_0(y) + 2*H_0(x)*H_1(y) + 2*H_1(x)*H_1(y) \) if `axis=0` is `x` and `axis=1` is `y`.

Parameters

- `c`:
  - [array_like] Array of Hermite series coefficients. If `c` is multidimensional the different axis correspond to different variables with the degree in each axis given by the corresponding index.

- `m`:
  - [int, optional] Order of integration, must be positive. (Default: 1)

- `k`:
  - [[[], list, scalar], optional] Integration constant(s). The value of the first integral at `lbnd` is the first value in the list, the value of the second integral at `lbnd` is the second value, etc. If `k == []` (the default), all constants are set to zero. If `m == 1`, a single scalar can be given instead of a list.

- `lbnd`:
  - [scalar, optional] The lower bound of the integral. (Default: 0)
scl

[scalar, optional] Following each integration the result is multiplied by scl before the integration constant is added. (Default: 1)

axis

[int, optional] Axis over which the integral is taken. (Default: 0).

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

S

[ndarray] Hermite series coefficients of the integral.

Raises

ValueError

If m < 0, len(k) > m, np.ndim(lbnd) != 0, or np.ndim(scl) != 0.

See also:

hermder

Notes

Note that the result of each integration is multiplied by scl. Why is this important to note? Say one is making a linear change of variable \( u = ax + b \) in an integral relative to \( x \). Then \( dx = du/a \), so one will need to set scl equal to \( 1/a \) - perhaps not what one would have first thought.

Also note that, in general, the result of integrating a C-series needs to be “reprojected” onto the C-series basis set. Thus, typically, the result of this function is “unintuitive,” albeit correct; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermint
>>> hermint([1,2,3]) # integrate once, value 0 at 0.
array([1. , 0.5, 0.5, 0.5])
>>> hermint([1,2,3], m=2) # integrate twice, value & deriv 0 at 0
array([-0.5 , 0.5 , 0.125 , 0.08333333, 0.0625 ]) # may vary
>>> hermint([1,2,3], k=1) # integrate once, value 1 at 0.
array([2. , 0.5, 0.5, 0.5])
>>> hermint([1,2,3], lbnd=-1) # integrate once, value 0 at -1
array([-2. , 0.5, 0.5, 0.5])
>>> hermint([1,2,3], m=2, k=[1,2], lbnd=-1)
array([[1.66666667, -0.5 , 0.125 , 0.08333333, 0.0625 ]]) # may vary
```
**Misc Functions**

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**polynomial.hermite.hermfromroots**(roots)

Generate a Hermite series with given roots.

The function returns the coefficients of the polynomial

$$p(x) = (x - r_0) \ast (x - r_1) \ast \ldots \ast (x - r_n),$$

in Hermite form, where the $r_n$ are the roots specified in roots. If a zero has multiplicity $n$, then it must appear in roots $n$ times. For instance, if 2 is a root of multiplicity three and 3 is a root of multiplicity 2, then roots looks something like [2, 2, 2, 3, 3]. The roots can appear in any order.

If the returned coefficients are $c$, then

$$p(x) = c_0 + c_1 \ast H_1(x) + \ldots + c_n \ast H_n(x)$$

The coefficient of the last term is not generally 1 for monic polynomials in Hermite form.

**Parameters**

roots

[array_like] Sequence containing the roots.

**Returns**

out

[ndarray] 1-D array of coefficients. If all roots are real then out is a real array, if some of the roots are complex, then out is complex even if all the coefficients in the result are real (see Examples below).

**See also:**

- `numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.legendre.legfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermefromroots`
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermfromroots, hermval
>>> coef = hermfromroots((-1, 0, 1))
>>> hermval((-1, 0, 1), coef)
array([0., 0., 0.])
>>> coef = hermfromroots((-1j, 1j))
>>> hermval((-1j, 1j), coef)
array([0.+0.j, 0.+0.j])
```

```plaintext
polynomial.hermite.hermroots(c)

Compute the roots of a Hermite series.

Return the roots (a.k.a. “zeros”) of the polynomial

\[ p(x) = \sum_i c[i] \times H_i(x). \]

Parameters


Returns

- `out` [ndarray] Array of the roots of the series. If all the roots are real, then `out` is also real, otherwise it is complex.

See also:

- `numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.legendre.legroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermeroots`

Notes

The root estimates are obtained as the eigenvalues of the companion matrix. Roots far from the origin of the complex plane may have large errors due to the numerical instability of the series for such values. roots with multiplicity greater than 1 will also show larger errors as the value of the series near such points is relatively insensitive to errors in the roots. Isolated roots near the origin can be improved by a few iterations of Newton’s method.

The Hermite series basis polynomials aren’t powers of \( x \) so the results of this function may seem unintuitive.
Examples

```python
from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermroots, hermfromroots

c = hermfromroots([-1, 0, 1])
c
array([0. , 0.25, 0. , 0.125])
hermroots(c)
array([-1.00000000e+00, -1.38777878e-17, 1.00000000e+00])
```

Polynomial.hermite.hermvander(x, deg)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degree.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degree `deg` and sample points `x`. The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[ V[... , i] = H_i(x), \]

where \( 0 \leq i \leq deg \). The leading indices of \( V \) index the elements of \( x \) and the last index is the degree of the Hermite polynomial.

If \( c \) is a 1-D array of coefficients of length \( n + 1 \) and \( V \) is the array \( V = \text{hermvander}(x, n) \), then \( \text{np.dot}(V, c) \) and \( \text{hermval}(x, c) \) are the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of Hermite series of the same degree and sample points.

Parameters

- **x**
  - [array_like] Array of points. The *dtype* is converted to float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. If `x` is scalar it is converted to a 1-D array.

- **deg**
  - [int] Degree of the resulting matrix.

Returns

- **vander**
  - [ndarray] The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix. The shape of the returned matrix is `x.shape + (deg + 1,)`, where the first index is the degree of the corresponding Hermite polynomial. The *dtype* will be the same as the converted `x`.

Examples

```python
from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermvander

x = np.array([-1, 0, 1])
hermvander(x, 3)
array([[ 1., -2.,  2.,  4.],
       [ 1.,  0., -2., -0.],
       [ 1.,  2.,  2., -4.]])
```

Polynomial.hermite.hermvander2d(x, y, deg)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees `deg` and sample points `(x, y)`. The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[ V[... , (deg[1] + 1) * i + j] = H_i(x) * H_j(y), \]
where $0 \leq i \leq \text{deg}[0]$ and $0 \leq j \leq \text{deg}[1]$. The leading indices of $V$ index the points $(x, y)$ and the last index encodes the degrees of the Hermite polynomials.

If $V = \text{hermvander2d}(x, y, [x\text{deg}, y\text{deg}])$, then the columns of $V$ correspond to the elements of a 2-D coefficient array $c$ of shape $(x\text{deg} + 1, y\text{deg} + 1)$ in the order

$$c_{00}, c_{01}, c_{02}, ..., c_{10}, c_{11}, c_{12}, ...$$

and $\text{np.dot}(V, c\text{.flat})$ and $\text{hermval2d}(x, y, c)$ will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 2-D Hermite series of the same degrees and sample points.

**Parameters**

- **x, y**
  - [array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

- **deg**
  - [list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form $[x\_\text{deg}, y\_\text{deg}]$.

**Returns**

- **vander2d**
  - [ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is $x\text{.shape} + (\text{order},)$, where $\text{order} = (\text{deg}[0] + 1) \times (\text{deg}[1] + 1)$. The dtype will be the same as the converted $x$ and $y$.

**See also:**

- `hermvander`, `hermvander3d`, `hermval2d`, `hermval3d`

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.hermite.\texttt{hermvander3d}(x, y, z, deg)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees $\text{deg}$ and sample points $(x, y, z)$. If $l, m, n$ are the given degrees in $x, y, z$, then The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

$$V[...,(m + 1)(n + 1)i + (n + 1)j + k] = H_i(x) \times H_j(y) \times H_k(z),$$

where $0 \leq i \leq l$, $0 \leq j \leq m$, and $0 \leq j \leq n$. The leading indices of $V$ index the points $(x, y, z)$ and the last index encodes the degrees of the Hermite polynomials.

If $V = \text{hermvander3d}(x, y, z, [x\text{deg}, y\text{deg}, z\text{deg}])$, then the columns of $V$ correspond to the elements of a 3-D coefficient array $c$ of shape $(x\text{deg} + 1, y\text{deg} + 1, z\text{deg} + 1)$ in the order

$$c_{000}, c_{001}, c_{002}, ..., c_{010}, c_{011}, c_{012}, ...$$

and $\text{np.dot}(V, c\text{.flat})$ and $\text{hermval3d}(x, y, z, c)$ will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 3-D Hermite series of the same degrees and sample points.
Parameters

\( x, y, z \)

[array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

\( \text{deg} \)

[list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form \([x_{\text{deg}}, y_{\text{deg}}, z_{\text{deg}}]\).

Returns

\( \text{vander3d} \)

[ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is \(x.shape + (\text{order},)\), where \(\text{order} = (\text{deg}[0] + 1) \times (\text{deg}[1] + 1) \times (\text{deg}[2] + 1)\). The dtype will be the same as the converted \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\).

See also:

\( \text{hermvander}, \text{hermvander3d}, \text{hermval2d}, \text{hermval3d} \)

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

\( \text{polynomial.hermite.hermgauss}(\text{deg}) \)

Gauss-Hermite quadrature.

Computes the sample points and weights for Gauss-Hermite quadrature. These sample points and weights will correctly integrate polynomials of degree \(2 \times \text{deg} - 1\) or less over the interval \([- \infty, \infty]\) with the weight function \(f(x) = \exp(-x^2)\).

Parameters

\( \text{deg} \)

[int] Number of sample points and weights. It must be \(\geq 1\).

Returns

\( \text{x} \)

[ndarray] 1-D ndarray containing the sample points.

\( \text{y} \)

[ndarray] 1-D ndarray containing the weights.
Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

The results have only been tested up to degree 100, higher degrees may be problematic. The weights are determined by using the fact that

\[ w_k = \frac{c}{(H_n'(x_k) \ast H_{n-1}(x_k))} \]

where \( c \) is a constant independent of \( k \) and \( x_k \) is the \( k \)'th root of \( H_n \), and then scaling the results to get the right value when integrating 1.

documentation.polynomial.hermite.hermweight(x)

Weight function of the Hermite polynomials.

The weight function is \( \exp(-x^2) \) and the interval of integration is \([-\infty, \infty]\). the Hermite polynomials are orthogonal, but not normalized, with respect to this weight function.

Parameters

- \( x \) [array_like] Values at which the weight function will be computed.

Returns

- \( w \) [ndarray] The weight function at \( x \).

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

documentation.polynomial.hermite.hermcompanion(c)

Return the scaled companion matrix of \( c \).

The basis polynomials are scaled so that the companion matrix is symmetric when \( c \) is an Hermite basis polynomial. This provides better eigenvalue estimates than the unscaled case and for basis polynomials the eigenvalues are guaranteed to be real if \( \text{numpy.linalg.eigvalsh} \) is used to obtain them.

Parameters

- \( c \) [array_like] 1-D array of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high degree.

Returns

- \( mat \) [ndarray] Scaled companion matrix of dimensions (deg, deg).
**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

`polynomial.hermite.hermfit(x, y, deg, rcond=None, full=False, w=None)`

Least squares fit of Hermite series to data.

Return the coefficients of a Hermite series of degree `deg` that is the least squares fit to the data values `y` given at points `x`. If `y` is 1-D the returned coefficients will also be 1-D. If `y` is 2-D multiple fits are done, one for each column of `y`, and the resulting coefficients are stored in the corresponding columns of a 2-D return. The fitted polynomial(s) are in the form

\[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 \cdot H_1(x) + \ldots + c_n \cdot H_n(x), \]

where `n` is `deg`.

**Parameters**

- `x`  
  [array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points \((x[i], y[i])\).

- `y`  
  [array_like, shape (M,) or (M, K)] y-coordinates of the sample points. Several data sets of sample points sharing the same x-coordinates can be fitted at once by passing in a 2D-array that contains one dataset per column.

- `deg`  
  [int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If `deg` is a single integer all terms up to and including the `deg`'th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions >= 1.11.0 a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.

- `rcond`  
  [float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is `len(x)*eps`, where `eps` is the relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.

- `full`  
  [bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

- `w`  
  [array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None, the contribution of each point \((x[i], y[i])\) to the fit is weighted by \(w[i]\). Ideally the weights are chosen so that the errors of the products \(w[i] \cdot y[i]\) all have the same variance. The default value is None.

**Returns**

- `coef`  
  [ndarray, shape (M,) or (M, K)] Hermite coefficients ordered from low to high. If `y` was 2-D, the coefficients for the data in column `k` of `y` are in column `k`.

- `[residuals, rank, singular_values, rcond]`  
  [list] These values are only returned if `full` = True
resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit rank – the numerical rank of the scaled Vandermonde matrix sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix rcond – value of rcond.

For more details, see \texttt{numpy.linalg.lstsq}.

**Warns**

\textbf{RankWarning}

The rank of the coefficient matrix in the least-squares fit is deficient. The warning is only raised if \texttt{full} = False. The warnings can be turned off by

```python
>>> import warnings
>>> warnings.simplefilter('ignore', np.RankWarning)
```

\textbf{See also:}

- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfit}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.legendre.legfit}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagfit}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyfit}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermefit}

- \texttt{hermval}
  - Evaluates a Hermite series.

- \texttt{hermvander}
  - Vandermonde matrix of Hermite series.

- \texttt{hermweight}
  - Hermite weight function

- \texttt{numpy.linalg.lstsq}
  - Computes a least-squares fit from the matrix.

- \texttt{scipy.interpolate.UnivariateSpline}
  - Computes spline fits.

**Notes**

The solution is the coefficients of the Hermite series \( p \) that minimizes the sum of the weighted squared errors

\[
E = \sum_j w_j^2 |y_j - p(x_j)|^2,
\]

where the \( w_j \) are the weights. This problem is solved by setting up the (typically) overdetermined matrix equation

\[
V(x) \ast c = w \ast y,
\]

where \( V \) is the weighted pseudo Vandermonde matrix of \( x \), \( c \) are the coefficients to be solved for, \( w \) are the weights, \( y \) are the observed values. This equation is then solved using the singular value decomposition of \( V \).
If some of the singular values of $V$ are so small that they are neglected, then a `RankWarning` will be issued. This means that the coefficient values may be poorly determined. Using a lower order fit will usually get rid of the warning. The `rcond` parameter can also be set to a value smaller than its default, but the resulting fit may be spurious and have large contributions from roundoff error.

Fits using Hermite series are probably most useful when the data can be approximated by $\sqrt{w(x)} \ast p(x)$, where $w(x)$ is the Hermite weight. In that case the weight $\sqrt{w(x[i])}$ should be used together with data values $y[i]/\sqrt{w(x[i])}$. The weight function is available as `hermweight`.

**References**

[1]

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermfit, hermval
>>> x = np.linspace(-10, 10)
>>> err = np.random.randn(len(x))/10
>>> y = hermval(x, [1, 2, 3]) + err
>>> hermfit(x, y, 2)
array([1.0218, 1.9986, 2.9999]) # may vary
```

`polynomial.hermite.hermtrim(c, tol=0)`

Remove “small” “trailing” coefficients from a polynomial.

“Small” means “small in absolute value” and is controlled by the parameter `tol`; “trailing” means highest order coefficient(s), e.g., in `[0, 1, 1, 0, 0]` (which represents $0 + x + x**2 + 0*x**3 + 0*x**4$) both the 3-rd and 4-th order coefficients would be “trimmed.”

**Parameters**

- `c`
  - [array_like] 1-d array of coefficients, ordered from lowest order to highest.

- `tol`
  - [number, optional] Trailing (i.e., highest order) elements with absolute value less than or equal to `tol` (default value is zero) are removed.

**Returns**

- `trimmed`
  - [ndarray] 1-d array with trailing zeros removed. If the resulting series would be empty, a series containing a single zero is returned.

**Raises**

- `ValueError`
  - If `tol < 0`

**See also:**

- `trimseq`
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polyutils as pu
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,3,0,5,0,0))
array([0., 0., 3., 0., 5.])
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,1e-3,0,1e-5,0,0),1e-3) # item == tol is trimmed
array([0.])
>>> i = complex(0,1)  # works for complex
>>> pu.trimcoef((3e-4,1e-3*(1-i),5e-4,2e-5*(1+i)),1e-3)
array([0.0003+0.j , 0.001 -0.001j])
```

**polynomial.hermite.hermline(off, scl)**

Hermite series whose graph is a straight line.

**Parameters**

- **off, scl**
  
  [scalars] The specified line is given by `off + scl*x`.

**Returns**

- **y**
  
  [ndarray] This module's representation of the Hermite series for `off + scl*x`.

**See also:**

- `numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyline`
- `numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebline`
- `numpy.polynomial.legendre.legline`
- `numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagline`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermeline`

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import hermline, hermval
>>> hermval(0,hermline(3, 2))
3.0
>>> hermval(1,hermline(3, 2))
5.0
```

**polynomial.hermite.herm2poly(c)**

Convert a Hermite series to a polynomial.

Convert an array representing the coefficients of a Hermite series, ordered from lowest degree to highest, to an array of the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest to highest degree.

**Parameters**

- **c**
  
  [array_like] 1-D array containing the Hermite series coefficients, ordered from lowest order term to highest.
Returns

pol

[n`array] 1-D array containing the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest order term to highest.

See also:

poly2herm

Notes

The easy way to do conversions between polynomial basis sets is to use the convert method of a class instance.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import herm2poly
>>> herm2poly([1.0, 2.75, 0.5, 0.375])
array([0., 1., 2., 3.])
```

polynomial.hermite.poly2herm(pol)
Convert a polynomial to a Hermite series.

Convert an array representing the coefficients of a polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest degree to highest, to an array of the coefficients of the equivalent Hermite series, ordered from lowest to highest degree.

Parameters

pol

[array_like] 1-D array containing the polynomial coefficients

Returns

c

[n`array] 1-D array containing the coefficients of the equivalent Hermite series.

See also:

herm2poly

Notes

The easy way to do conversions between polynomial basis sets is to use the convert method of a class instance.
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite import poly2herm
>>> poly2herm(np.arange(4))
array([1. , 2.75, 0.5 , 0.375])
```

See also

numpy.polynomial

New in version 1.6.0.

HermiteE Series, “Probabilists” (numpy.polynomial.hermite_e)

This module provides a number of objects (mostly functions) useful for dealing with Hermite_e series, including a HermiteE class that encapsulates the usual arithmetic operations. (General information on how this module represents and works with such polynomials is in the docstring for its “parent” sub-package, numpy.polynomial).

Classes

HermiteE(coef[, domain, window]) An HermiteE series class.

class numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE(coef, domain=None, window=None) An HermiteE series class.

The HermiteE class provides the standard Python numerical methods ‘+’, ‘-‘, ‘*’, ‘/’, ‘%’, ‘divmod’, ‘**’, and ‘()’ as well as the attributes and methods listed in the ABCPolyBase documentation.

Parameters

coef

[array_like] HermiteE coefficients in order of increasing degree, i.e, (1, 2, 3) gives 1*He_0(x) + 2*He_1(x) + 3*He_2(x).

domain

[(2,) array_like, optional] Domain to use. The interval [domain[0], domain[1]] is mapped to the interval [window[0], window[1]] by shifting and scaling. The default value is [-1, 1].

window

[(2,) array_like, optional] Window, see domain for its use. The default value is [-1, 1].

New in version 1.6.0.
Methods

__call__(arg)  Call self as a function.

basis(deg[, domain, window])  Series basis polynomial of degree deg.

cast(series[, domain, window])  Convert series to series of this class.

convert((domain, kind, window))  Convert series to a different kind and/or domain and/or window.

copy()  Return a copy.

cutdeg(deg)  Truncate series to the given degree.

degree()  The degree of the series.

deriv([m])  Differentiate.

fit(x, y, deg[, domain, rcond, full, w, window])  Least squares fit to data.

fromroots(roots[, domain, window])  Return series instance that has the specified roots.

has_samecoef(other)  Check if coefficients match.

has_samedomain(other)  Check if domains match.

has_sametype(other)  Check if types match.

has_samewindow(other)  Check if windows match.

identity([domain, window])  Identity function.

integ([m, k, lbnd])  Integrate.

linspace([n, domain])  Return x, y values at equally spaced points in domain.

mapparms()  Return the mapping parameters.

roots()  Return the roots of the series polynomial.

trim([tol])  Remove trailing coefficients

truncate(size)  Truncate series to length size.

method

polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.__call__(arg)
   Call self as a function.

method

classmethod  polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.basis(deg, domain=None, window=None)
   Series basis polynomial of degree deg.

   Returns the series representing the basis polynomial of degree deg.

   New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

deg  
   [int] Degree of the basis polynomial for the series. Must be >= 0.

domain  
   [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where
   beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is
   used. The default is None.

window  
   [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form [beg, end], where
   beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is
   used. The default is None.

Returns
new_series

[series] A series with the coefficient of the deg term set to one and all others zero.

method
classmethod polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.cast (series, domain=None, window=None)

Convert series to series of this class.

The series is expected to be an instance of some polynomial series of one of the types supported by the numpy.polynomial module, but could be some other class that supports the convert method.

New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

series

[series] The series instance to be converted.

domain

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

window

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

cast

[series] A series of the same kind as the calling class and equal to series when evaluated.

See also:

convert

similar instance method

method

class polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.convert (domain=None, kind=None, window=None)

Convert series to a different kind and/or domain and/or window.

Parameters

domain

[array_like, optional] The domain of the converted series. If the value is None, the default domain of kind is used.

kind

[class, optional] The polynomial series type class to which the current instance should be converted. If kind is None, then the class of the current instance is used.
window

[array_like, optional] The window of the converted series. If the value is None, the default window of kind is used.

Returns

new_series

[series] The returned class can be of different type than the current instance and/or have a different domain and/or different window.

Notes

Conversion between domains and class types can result in numerically ill defined series.

method

polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.copy()

Return a copy.

Returns

new_series

[series] Copy of self.

method

polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.cutdeg(deg)

Truncate series to the given degree.

Reduce the degree of the series to deg by discarding the high order terms. If deg is greater than the current degree a copy of the current series is returned. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters

deg

[non-negative int] The series is reduced to degree deg by discarding the high order terms. The value of deg must be a non-negative integer.

Returns

new_series

[series] New instance of series with reduced degree.

method

polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.degree()

The degree of the series.

New in version 1.5.0.

Returns
degree
[int] Degree of the series, one less than the number of coefficients.

method
polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.deriv(m=1)
Differentiate.
Return a series instance of that is the derivative of the current series.

Parameters
m
[non-negative int] Find the derivative of order m.

Returns
new_series
[series] A new series representing the derivative. The domain is the same as the domain of the differentiated series.

method
classmethod polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.fit(x, y, deg, domain=None, rcond=None, full=False, w=None, window=None)
Least squares fit to data.
Return a series instance that is the least squares fit to the data y sampled at x. The domain of the returned instance can be specified and this will often result in a superior fit with less chance of ill conditioning.

Parameters
x
[array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points (x[i], y[i]).
y
[array_like, shape (M,)] y-coordinates of the M sample points (x[i], y[i]).
deg
[int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If deg is a single integer all terms up to and including the deg’th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions >= 1.11.0 a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.
domain
[[None, [beg, end], []], optional] Domain to use for the returned series. If None, then a minimal domain that covers the points x is chosen. If [] the class domain is used. The default value was the class domain in NumPy 1.4 and None in later versions. The [] option was added in numpy 1.5.0.
rcond
[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is len(x)*eps, where eps is the relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.
full

[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

w

[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None the contribution of each point \((x[i], y[i])\) to the fit is weighted by \(w[i]\). Ideally the weights are chosen so that the errors of the products \(w[i] \cdot y[i]\) all have the same variance. The default value is None.

New in version 1.5.0.

window

[[[beg, end]], optional] Window to use for the returned series. The default value is the default class domain

New in version 1.6.0.

Returns

new_series

[series] A series that represents the least squares fit to the data and has the domain and window specified in the call. If the coefficients for the unscaled and unshifted basis polynomials are of interest, do new_series.convert().coef.

[resid, rank, sv, rcond]

[list] These values are only returned if full = True

resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit rank – the numerical rank of the scaled Vandermonde matrix sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix rcond – value of rcond.

For more details, see linalg.lstsq.

method

classmethod polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.fromroots(roots, domain=[],

window=None)

Return series instance that has the specified roots.

Returns a series representing the product \((x - r[0]) \cdot (x - r[1]) \cdot \ldots \cdot (x - r[n-1])\), where \(r\) is a list of roots.

Parameters

roots

[array_like] List of roots.

domain

[[[[], None, array_like], optional] Domain for the resulting series. If None the domain is the interval from the smallest root to the largest. If [] the domain is the class domain. The default is [].

window

[[[None, array_like], optional] Window for the returned series. If None the class window is used. The default is None.
Returns

new_series

[series] Series with the specified roots.

method

polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.has_samecoef(other)
Check if coefficients match.
New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the coef attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the coefficients are the same, False otherwise.

method

polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.has_samedomain(other)
Check if domains match.
New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the domain attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the domains are the same, False otherwise.

method

polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.has_sametype(other)
Check if types match.
New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

other

[object] Class instance.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if other is same class as self
method

```python
classmethod polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.identity(domain=None, window=None)
```

Identity function.

If \( p \) is the returned series, then \( p(x) = x \) for all values of \( x \).

Parameters

- **domain**
  - [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form \([\text{beg}, \text{end}]\), where \( \text{beg} \) and \( \text{end} \) are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

- **window**
  - [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form \([\text{beg}, \text{end}]\), where \( \text{beg} \) and \( \text{end} \) are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

- **new_series**
  - [series] Series of representing the identity.
**k**

[array_like] Integration constants. The first constant is applied to the first integration, the second to the second, and so on. The list of values must less than or equal to $m$ in length and any missing values are set to zero.

**lbnd**

[Scalar] The lower bound of the definite integral.

**Returns**

**new_series**

[series] A new series representing the integral. The domain is the same as the domain of the integrated series.

**method**

`polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.linspace(n=100, domain=None)`

Return x, y values at equally spaced points in domain.

Returns the x, y values at $n$ linearly spaced points across the domain. Here y is the value of the polynomial at the points x. By default the domain is the same as that of the series instance. This method is intended mostly as a plotting aid.

New in version 1.5.0.

**Parameters**

**n**

[int, optional] Number of point pairs to return. The default value is 100.

**domain**

[[None, array_like], optional] If not None, the specified domain is used instead of that of the calling instance. It should be of the form [beg, end]. The default is None which case the class domain is used.

**Returns**

**x, y**

[ndarray] x is equal to linspace(self.domain[0], self.domain[1], n) and y is the series evaluated at element of x.

**method**

`polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.mapparms()`

Return the mapping parameters.

The returned values define a linear map $off + scl*x$ that is applied to the input arguments before the series is evaluated. The map depends on the **domain** and **window**; if the current **domain** is equal to the **window** the resulting map is the identity. If the coefficients of the series instance are to be used by themselves outside this class, then the linear function must be substituted for the $x$ in the standard representation of the base polynomials.

**Returns**
off, scl

[Float or complex] The mapping function is defined by \( off + scl \times x \).

Notes

If the current domain is the interval \([l1, r1]\) and the window is \([l2, r2]\), then the linear mapping function \( L \) is defined by the equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
L(l1) &= l2 \\
L(r1) &= r2
\end{align*}
\]

method

```
polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.roots()
```

Return the roots of the series polynomial.

Compute the roots for the series. Note that the accuracy of the roots decrease the further outside the domain they lie.

Returns

```
roots
```

[ndarray] Array containing the roots of the series.

method

```
polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.trim(tol=0)
```

Remove trailing coefficients

Remove trailing coefficients until a coefficient is reached whose absolute value greater than \( tol \) or the beginning of the series is reached. If all the coefficients would be removed the series is set to \([0]\). A new series instance is returned with the new coefficients. The current instance remains unchanged.

Parameters

```
tol
```

[non-negative number.] All trailing coefficients less than \( tol \) will be removed.

Returns

```
ew_series
```


method

```
polynomial.hermite_e.HermiteE.truncate(size)
```

Truncate series to length \( size \).

Reduce the series to length \( size \) by discarding the high degree terms. The value of \( size \) must be a positive integer. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

Parameters

```
size
```

[positive int] The series is reduced to length \( size \) by discarding the high degree terms. The value of \( size \) must be a positive integer.
Returns

new_series


Constants

hermedomain
hermezero
hermeone
hermex

polynomial.hermite_e.hermedomain = array([-1, 1])
polynomial.hermite_e.hermezero = array([0])
polynomial.hermite_e.hermeone = array([1])
polynomial.hermite_e.hermex = array([0, 1])

Arithmetic

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<td>Evaluate a 3-D HermiteE series on the Cartesian product of x, y, and z.</td>
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polynomial.hermite_e.hermeadd(c1, c2)

Add one Hermite series to another.

Returns the sum of two Hermite series c1 + c2. The arguments are sequences of coefficients ordered from lowest order term to highest, i.e., [1,2,3] represents the series P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2.

Parameters

c1, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

out
[ndarray] Array representing the Hermite series of their sum.

See also:

*hermesub*, *hermemulx*, *hermemul*, *hermediv*, *hermepow*

**Notes**

Unlike multiplication, division, etc., the sum of two Hermite series is a Hermite series (without having to “reproject” the result onto the basis set) so addition, just like that of “standard” polynomials, is simply “component-wise.”

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermeadd
>>> hermeadd([1, 2, 3], [1, 2, 3, 4])
array([2., 4., 6., 4.])
```

polynomial.hermite_e.hermesub(cl, c2)

Subtract one Hermite series from another.

Returns the difference of two Hermite series cl - c2. The sequences of coefficients are from lowest order term to highest, i.e., [1,2,3] represents the series $P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2$.

**Parameters**

cl, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

**Returns**

out

[ndarray] Of Hermite series coefficients representing their difference.

See also:

*hermeadd*, *hermemulx*, *hermemul*, *hermediv*, *hermepow*

**Notes**

Unlike multiplication, division, etc., the difference of two Hermite series is a Hermite series (without having to “reproject” the result onto the basis set) so subtraction, just like that of “standard” polynomials, is simply “component-wise.”
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermesub
>>> hermesub([1, 2, 3, 4], [1, 2, 3])
array([0., 0., 0., 4.])
```

polynomial.hermite_e.hermemulx(c)
Multiply a Hermite series by x.

Multiply the Hermite series c by x, where x is the independent variable.

Parameters

- `c`
  [array_like] 1-D array of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

- `out`
  [ndarray] Array representing the result of the multiplication.

Notes

The multiplication uses the recursion relationship for Hermite polynomials in the form

\[ xP_i(x) = (P_{i+1}(x) + iP_{i-1}(x)) \]

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermemulx
>>> hermemulx([1, 2, 3])
array([2., 7., 2., 3.])
```

polynomial.hermite_e.hermemul(c1, c2)
Multiply one Hermite series by another.

Returns the product of two Hermite series c1 * c2. The arguments are sequences of coefficients, from lowest order “term” to highest, e.g., [1,2,3] represents the series \( P_0 + 2P_1 + 3P_2 \).

Parameters

- `c1`, `c2`
  [array_like] 1-D arrays of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

- `out`
  [ndarray] Of Hermite series coefficients representing their product.

See also:

hermeadd, hermesub, hermemulx, hermediv, hermepow
Notes

In general, the (polynomial) product of two C-series results in terms that are not in the Hermite polynomial basis set. Thus, to express the product as a Hermite series, it is necessary to “reproject” the product onto said basis set, which may produce “unintuitive” (but correct) results; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermemul
>>> hermemul([1, 2, 3], [0, 1, 2])
array([14., 15., 28., 7., 6.])
```

divide one Hermite series by another.

Returns the quotient-with-remainder of two Hermite series \( c_1 / c_2 \). The arguments are sequences of coefficients from lowest order “term” to highest, e.g., \([1,2,3]\) represents the series \( P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2 \).

Parameters

c1, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

[quo, rem]

[ndarrays] Of Hermite series coefficients representing the quotient and remainder.

See also:

hermeadd, hermesub, hermemulx, hermemul, hermepow

Notes

In general, the (polynomial) division of one Hermite series by another results in quotient and remainder terms that are not in the Hermite polynomial basis set. Thus, to express these results as a Hermite series, it is necessary to “reproject” the results onto the Hermite basis set, which may produce “unintuitive” (but correct) results; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermediv
>>> hermediv([14., 15., 28., 7., 6.], [0, 1, 2])
(array([1., 2., 3.]), array([0.]))
>>> hermediv([15., 17., 28., 7., 6.], [0, 1, 2])
(array([1., 2., 3.]), array([1., 2.]))
```

raise a Hermite series to a power.

Returns the Hermite series \( c \) raised to the power \( pow \). The argument \( c \) is a sequence of coefficients ordered from low to high. i.e., \([1,2,3]\) is the series \( P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2 \).
Parameters

c
[array_like] 1-D array of Hermite series coefficients ordered from low to high.

pow
[integer] Power to which the series will be raised

maxpower
[integer, optional] Maximum power allowed. This is mainly to limit growth of the series to unmanageable size. Default is 16

Returns

c	coef
[ndarray] Hermite series of power.

See also:
hermeadd, hermesub, hermemulx, hermemul, hermediv

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermepow
>>> hermepow([1, 2, 3], 2)
array([23., 28., 46., 12., 9.])
```

polynomial.hermite_e.hermeval(x, c, tensor=True)
Evaluate an HermiteE series at points x.

If c is of length n + 1, this function returns the value:

\[ p(x) = c_0 * H_0(x) + c_1 * H_1(x) + \ldots + c_n * H_n(x) \]

The parameter x is converted to an array only if it is a tuple or a list, otherwise it is treated as a scalar. In either case, either x or its elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of c.

If c is a 1-D array, then p(x) will have the same shape as x. If c is multidimensional, then the shape of the result depends on the value of tensor. If tensor is true the shape will be c.shape[1:] + x.shape. If tensor is false the shape will be c.shape[1:]. Note that scalars have shape (,).

Trailing zeros in the coefficients will be used in the evaluation, so they should be avoided if efficiency is a concern.

Parameters

x
[array_like, compatible object] If x is a list or tuple, it is converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and treated as a scalar. In either case, x or its elements must support addition and multiplication with with themselves and with the elements of c.
c
[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree n are
contained in c[n]. If c is multidimensional the remaining indices enumerate multiple polyno-
mials. In the two dimensional case the coefficients may be thought of as stored in the columns
of c.

tensor
[boolean, optional] If True, the shape of the coefficient array is extended with ones on the right,
one for each dimension of x. Scalars have dimension 0 for this action. The result is that every
column of coefficients in c is evaluated for every element of x. If False, x is broadcast over
the columns of c for the evaluation. This keyword is useful when c is multidimensional. The
default value is True.

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns
values
[ndarray, algebra_like] The shape of the return value is described above.

See also:
hermeval2d, hermegrid2d, hermeval3d, hermegrid3d

Notes
The evaluation uses Clenshaw recursion, aka synthetic division.

Examples

```python
from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermeval
coef = [1, 2, 3]
hermeval(1, coef)
3.0
germeval([[1, 2], [3, 4]], coef)
array([[ 3., 14.],
       [31., 54.]])
```

c, x, y, c

Evaluate a 2-D HermiteE series at points (x, y).

This function returns the values:

\[ p(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \cdot He_i(x) \cdot He_j(y) \]

The parameters x and y are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a
scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either x and y or their elements must
support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of c.

If c is a 1-D array a one is implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be c.shape[2:] + x.shape.

Parameters
x, y
[array_like, compatible objects] The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points (x, y), where x and y must have the same shape. If x or y is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and if it isn’t an ndarray it is treated as a scalar.

c
[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree i, j is contained in c[i, j]. If c has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

values
[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points formed with pairs of corresponding values from x and y.

See also:

hermeval, hermegrid2d, hermeval3d, hermegrid3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.hermite_e.hermeval3d(x, y, z, c)
Evaluate a 3-D Hermite_e series at points (x, y, z).
This function returns the values:

\[ p(x, y, z) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} H_e_i(x) H_e_j(y) H_e_k(z) \]

The parameters x, y, and z are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either x, y, and z or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of c.

If c has fewer than 3 dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be c.shape[3:] + x.shape.

Parameters

x, y, z
[array_like, compatible object] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points (x, y, z), where x, y, and z must have the same shape. If any of x, y, or z is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and if it isn’t an ndarray it is treated as a scalar.

c
[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree i,j,k is contained in c[i, j, k]. If c has dimension greater than 3 the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns
values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the multidimensional polynomial on points formed with triples of corresponding values from x, y, and z.

See also:

hermeval, hermeval2d, hermegrid2d, hermegrid3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.hermite_e.hermegrid2d(x, y, c)

Evaluate a 2-D HermiteE series on the Cartesian product of x and y.

This function returns the values:

\[ p(a, b) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \times H_i(a) \times H_j(b) \]

where the points \((a, b)\) consist of all pairs formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\) and \(b\) from \(y\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension and \(y\) in the second.

The parameters \(x\) and \(y\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as scalars. In either case, either \(x\) and \(y\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than two dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be \(c.shape[2:] + x.shape\).

Parameters

x, y

[array_like, compatible objects] The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\). If \(x\) or \(y\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

c

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree \(i,j\) are contained in \(c[i,j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

See also:

hermeval, hermeval2d, hermeval3d, hermegrid3d
Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

```
polynomial.hermite_e.hermegrid3d(x, y, z, c)
```

Evaluate a 3-D HermiteE series on the Cartesian product of x, y, and z.

This function returns the values:

\[
p(a, b, c) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} \cdot He_i(a) \cdot He_j(b) \cdot He_k(c)
\]

where the points \((a, b, c)\) consist of all triples formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\), \(b\) from \(y\), and \(c\) from \(z\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension, \(y\) in the second, and \(z\) in the third.

The parameters \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars. In either case, either \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than three dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be \(c.shape[3:] + x.shape + y.shape + z.shape\).

Parameters

\(x, y, z\)

[array_like, compatible objects] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\). If \(x, y, z\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

\(c\)

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree \(i,j\) are contained in \(c[ i, j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

\(values\)

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

See also:

\(hermeval, hermeval2d, hermegrid2d, hermeval3d\)

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.
Calculus

- `hermeder(c[, m, scl, axis])` Differentiate a Hermite_e series.
- `hermeint(c[, m, k, lbnd, scl, axis])` Integrate a Hermite_e series.

```
import numpy.polynomial.hermite_e

hermeder(c, m=1, scl=1, axis=0)
```

Differentiate a Hermite_e series.

Returns the series coefficients $c$ differentiated $m$ times along $axis$. At each iteration the result is multiplied by $scl$ (the scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable). The argument $c$ is an array of coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., [1,2,3] represents the series $1*\text{He}_0 + 2*\text{He}_1 + 3*\text{He}_2$ while [[1,2],[1,2]] represents $1*\text{He}_0(x)*\text{He}_0(y) + 1*\text{He}_1(x)*\text{He}_0(y) + 2*\text{He}_0(x)*\text{He}_1(y) + 2*\text{He}_1(x)*\text{He}_1(y)$ if axis=0 is $x$ and axis=1 is $y$.

**Parameters**

- $c$  
  [array_like] Array of Hermite_e series coefficients. If $c$ is multidimensional the different axis correspond to different variables with the degree in each axis given by the corresponding index.

- $m$  
  [int, optional] Number of derivatives taken, must be non-negative. (Default: 1)

- $scl$  
  [scalar, optional] Each differentiation is multiplied by $scl$. The end result is multiplication by $scl**m$. This is for use in a linear change of variable. (Default: 1)

- $axis$  
  [int, optional] Axis over which the derivative is taken. (Default: 0).

New in version 1.7.0.

**Returns**

- `der`  
  [ndarray] Hermite series of the derivative.

**See also:**

- `hermeint`

**Notes**

In general, the result of differentiating a Hermite series does not resemble the same operation on a power series. Thus the result of this function may be “unintuitive,” albeit correct; see Examples section below.
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermeder
>>> hermeder([ 1.,  1.])
array([ 2.,  3.])
>>> hermeder([-0.25,  1.,  1./2.,  1./3.,  1./4 ], m=2)
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.])
```

`polynomial.hermite_e.hermeint(c, m=1, k=[], lbnd=0, scl=1, axis=0)`

Integrate a Hermite_e series.

Returns the Hermite_e series coefficients $c$ integrated $m$ times from $lbnd$ along $axis$. At each iteration the resulting series is multiplied by $scl$ and an integration constant, $k$, is added. The scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable. (“Buyer beware”: note that, depending on what one is doing, one may want $scl$ to be the reciprocal of what one might expect; for more information, see the Notes section below.) The argument $c$ is an array of coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., $[1,2,3]$ represents the series $H_0 + 2*H_1 + 3*H_2$ while $[[1,2],[1,2]]$ represents $1*H_0(x)*H_0(y) + 1*H_1(x)*H_0(y) + 2*H_0(x)*H_1(y) + 2*H_1(x)*H_1(y)$ if $axis=0$ is $x$ and $axis=1$ is $y$.

Parameters

$c$  
[array_like] Array of Hermite_e series coefficients. If $c$ is multidimensional the different axis correspond to different variables with the degree in each axis given by the corresponding index.

$m$  
[int, optional] Order of integration, must be positive. (Default: 1)

$k$  
[[[], list, scalar], optional] Integration constant(s). The value of the first integral at $lbnd$ is the first value in the list, the value of the second integral at $lbnd$ is the second value, etc. If $k == []$ (the default), all constants are set to zero. If $m == 1$, a single scalar can be given instead of a list.

$lbnd$  
[scalar, optional] The lower bound of the integral. (Default: 0)

$scl$  
[scalar, optional] Following each integration the result is multiplied by $scl$ before the integration constant is added. (Default: 1)

$axis$  
[int, optional] Axis over which the integral is taken. (Default: 0).

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

$S$  
[ndarray] Hermite_e series coefficients of the integral.

Raises
ValueError

If m < 0, len(k) > m, np.ndim(lbnd) != 0, or np.ndim(scl) != 0.

See also:
hermeder

Notes

Note that the result of each integration is multiplied by scl. Why is this important to note? Say one is making a linear change of variable \( u = ax + b \) in an integral relative to \( x \). Then \( dx = du/a \), so one will need to set \( scl \) equal to \( 1/a \) - perhaps not what one would have first thought.

Also note that, in general, the result of integrating a C-series needs to be “reprojected” onto the C-series basis set. Thus, typically, the result of this function is “unintuitive,” albeit correct; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermeint
>>> hermeint([1, 2, 3]) # integrate once, value 0 at 0.
array([1., 1., 1., 1.])
>>> hermeint([1, 2, 3], m=2) # integrate twice, value & deriv 0 at 0
array([-0.25 , 1. , 0.5 , 0.33333333, 0.25 ]) # may vary
>>> hermeint([1, 2, 3], k=1) # integrate once, value 1 at 0.
array([2., 1., 1., 1.])
>>> hermeint([1, 2, 3], lbnd=-1) # integrate once, value 0 at -1
array([-1., 1., 1., 1.])
>>> hermeint([1, 2, 3], m=2, k=[1, 2], lbnd=-1)
array([ 1.83333333, 0., 0.5 , 0.33333333, 0.25 ]) # may vary
```

Misc Functions

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```python
polynomial.hermite_e.hermefromroots(roots)  # Generate a HermiteE series with given roots.
```
The function returns the coefficients of the polynomial

\[ p(x) = (x - r_0) \ast (x - r_1) \ast \ldots \ast (x - r_n), \]

in HermiteE form, where the \( r_n \) are the roots specified in `roots`. If a zero has multiplicity \( n \), then it must appear in `roots` \( n \) times. For instance, if 2 is a root of multiplicity three and 3 is a root of multiplicity 2, then `roots` looks something like \([2, 2, 2, 3, 3]\). The roots can appear in any order.

If the returned coefficients are \( c \), then

\[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 \ast H_1(x) + \ldots + c_n \ast H_n(x) \]

The coefficient of the last term is not generally 1 for monic polynomials in HermiteE form.

**Parameters**

- **roots**
  [array_like] Sequence containing the roots.

**Returns**

- **out**
  [ndarray] 1-D array of coefficients. If all roots are real then `out` is a real array, if some of the roots are complex, then `out` is complex even if all the coefficients in the result are real (see Examples below).

**See also:**

- `numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.legendre.legfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfromroots`

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermefromroots, hermeval
>>> coef = hermefromroots((-1, 0, 1))
>>> hermeval((-1, 0, 1), coef)
array([0., 0., 0.])
```

`polynomial.hermite_e.hermroots(c)`

Compute the roots of a HermiteE series.

Return the roots (a.k.a. “zeros”) of the polynomial

\[ p(x) = \sum_i c[i] \ast H_i(x). \]

**Parameters**
c

[1-D array_like] 1-D array of coefficients.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Array of the roots of the series. If all the roots are real, then out is also real, otherwise it is complex.

See also:

numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyroots
numpy.polynomial.legendre.legroots
numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagroots
numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermroots
numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebroots

Notes

The root estimates are obtained as the eigenvalues of the companion matrix. Roots far from the origin of the complex plane may have large errors due to the numerical instability of the series for such values. Roots with multiplicity greater than 1 will also show larger errors as the value of the series near such points is relatively insensitive to errors in the roots. Isolated roots near the origin can be improved by a few iterations of Newton’s method.

The HermiteE series basis polynomials aren’t powers of $x$ so the results of this function may seem unintuitive.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermeroots, hermefromroots
>>> coef = hermefromroots([-1, 0, 1])
>>> coef
array([0., 2., 0., 1.])
>>> hermeroots(coef)
array([-1., 0., 1.]) # may vary
```

polynomial.hermite_e.hermevander (x, deg)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degree.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degree $deg$ and sample points $x$. The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

$$V[\ldots, i] = H_e_i(x),$$

where $0 <= i <= deg$. The leading indices of $V$ index the elements of $x$ and the last index is the degree of the HermiteE polynomial.

If $c$ is a 1-D array of coefficients of length $n + 1$ and $V$ is the array $V = hermevander(x, n)$, then np.dot($V$, $c$) and hermeval($x$, $c$) are the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of HermiteE series of the same degree and sample points.

Parameters
x

[array_like] Array of points. The dtype is converted to float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. If x is scalar it is converted to a 1-D array.

deg

[int] Degree of the resulting matrix.

Returns

vander

[ndarray] The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix. The shape of the returned matrix is x.shape + (deg + 1,), where The last index is the degree of the corresponding HermiteE polynomial. The dtype will be the same as the converted x.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermevander
>>> x = np.array([-1, 0, 1])
>>> hermevander(x, 3)
array([[ 1., -1., 0., 2.],
       [ 1., 0., -1., -0.],
       [ 1., 1., 0., -2.]]

polynomial.hermite_e.hermevander2d(x, y, deg)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees deg and sample points (x, y). The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[ V[...,(deg[1] + 1) \times i \times j] = H_{e_i}(x) \times H_{e_j}(y), \]

where \(0 \leq i \leq deg[0]\) and \(0 \leq j \leq deg[1]\). The leading indices of V index the points (x, y) and the last index encodes the degrees of the HermiteE polynomials.

If \(V = hermevander2d(x, y, [xdeg, ydeg])\), then the columns of V correspond to the elements of a 2-D coefficient array c of shape (xdeg + 1, ydeg + 1) in the order

\[ c_{00}, c_{01}, c_{02}, ..., c_{10}, c_{11}, c_{12}, ... \]

and np.dot(V, c.flat) and hermeval2d(x, y, c) will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 2-D HermiteE series of the same degrees and sample points.

Parameters

x, y

[array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

deg

[list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form [x_deg, y_deg].

Returns
vander2d

[ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is \(x.shape + (\text{order},)\), where \(\text{order} = (\text{deg}[0] + 1) \times (\text{deg}[1] + 1)\). The dtypes will be the same as the converted \(x\) and \(y\).

See also:

hermevander, hermevander3d, hermeval2d, hermeval3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.hermite_e.hermevander3d(x, y, z, deg)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees \(deg\) and sample points \((x, y, z)\). If \(l, m, n\) are the given degrees in \(x, y, z\), then Hehe pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[
V[...,(m + 1)(n + 1)i + (n + 1)j + k] = He_i(x) \times He_j(y) \times He_k(z),
\]

where \(0 <= i <= l\), \(0 <= j <= m\), and \(0 <= j <= n\). The leading indices of \(V\) index the points \((x, y, z)\) and the last index encodes the degrees of the HermiteE polynomials.

If \(V = \text{hermevander3d}(x, y, z, [\text{xdeg}, \text{ydeg}, \text{zdeg}])\), then the columns of \(V\) correspond to the elements of a 3-D coefficient array \(c\) of shape \((\text{xdeg} + 1, \text{ydeg} + 1, \text{zdeg} + 1)\) in the order

\[
c_{000}, c_{001}, c_{002}, ..., c_{010}, c_{011}, c_{012}, ...
\]

and \(\text{np.dot}(V, \text{c.flat})\) and \(\text{hermeval3d}(x, y, z, c)\) will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 3-D HermiteE series of the same degrees and sample points.

Parameters

\(x, y, z\)

[array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

\(deg\)

[list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form \([\text{x}_\text{deg},\ \text{y}_\text{deg},\ \text{z}_\text{deg}]\).

Returns

vander3d

[ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is \(x.shape + (\text{order},)\), where \(\text{order} = (\text{deg}[0] + 1) \times (\text{deg}[1] + 1) \times (\text{deg}[2] + 1)\). The dtypes will be the same as the converted \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\).

See also:

hermevander, hermevander3d, hermeval2d, hermeval3d
**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

`polynomial.hermite_e.hermegauss(deg)`

Gauss-HermiteE quadrature.

Computes the sample points and weights for Gauss-HermiteE quadrature. These sample points and weights will correctly integrate polynomials of degree $2 \times \deg - 1$ or less over the interval $[−\infty, \infty]$ with the weight function $f(x) = \exp(-x^2/2)$.

**Parameters**

- `deg`
  - [int] Number of sample points and weights. It must be $\geq 1$.

**Returns**

- `x`
  - [ndarray] 1-D ndarray containing the sample points.

- `y`
  - [ndarray] 1-D ndarray containing the weights.

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

The results have only been tested up to degree 100, higher degrees may be problematic. The weights are determined by using the fact that

$$w_k = c/(He'_n(x_k) * He_{n-1}(x_k))$$

where $c$ is a constant independent of $k$ and $x_k$ is the k'th root of $He_n$, and then scaling the results to get the right value when integrating $1$.

`polynomial.hermite_e.hermeweight(x)`

Weight function of the Hermite_e polynomials.

The weight function is $\exp(-x^2/2)$ and the interval of integration is $[−\infty, \infty]$. the HermiteE polynomials are orthogonal, but not normalized, with respect to this weight function.

**Parameters**

- `x`
  - [array_like] Values at which the weight function will be computed.

**Returns**

- `w`
  - [ndarray] The weight function at $x$. 
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

`polynomial.hermite_e.hermecompanion(c)`
Return the scaled companion matrix of `c`.

The basis polynomials are scaled so that the companion matrix is symmetric when `c` is an HermiteE basis polynomial. This provides better eigenvalue estimates than the unscaled case and for basis polynomials the eigenvalues are guaranteed to be real if `numpy.linalg.eigvalsh` is used to obtain them.

**Parameters**

- `c`  
  [array_like] 1-D array of HermiteE series coefficients ordered from low to high degree.

**Returns**

- `mat`  
  [ndarray] Scaled companion matrix of dimensions (deg, deg).

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

`polynomial.hermite_e.hermefit(x, y, deg, rcond=None, full=False, w=None)`
Least squares fit of Hermite series to data.

Return the coefficients of a HermiteE series of degree `deg` that is the least squares fit to the data values `y` given at points `x`. If `y` is 1-D the returned coefficients will also be 1-D. If `y` is 2-D multiple fits are done, one for each column of `y`, and the resulting coefficients are stored in the corresponding columns of a 2-D return. The fitted polynomial(s) are in the form

\[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 \cdot H_1(x) + \ldots + c_n \cdot H_n(x), \]

where `n` is `deg`.

**Parameters**

- `x`  
  [array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points \((x[i], y[i])\).

- `y`  
  [array_like, shape (M,) or (M, K)] y-coordinates of the sample points. Several data sets of sample points sharing the same x-coordinates can be fitted at once by passing in a 2D-array that contains one dataset per column.

- `deg`  
  [int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If `deg` is a single integer all terms up to and including the `deg`th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions &ge; 1.11.0 a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.
rcond

[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is len(x)*eps, where eps is the relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.

full

[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

w

[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None, the contribution of each point (x[i],y[i]) to the fit is weighted by w[i]. Ideally the weights are chosen so that the errors of the products w[i]*y[i] all have the same variance. The default value is None.

Returns

coef

[ndarray, shape (M,) or (M, K)] Hermite coefficients ordered from low to high. If y was 2-D, the coefficients for the data in column k of y are in column k.

[residuals, rank, singular_values, rcond]

[list] These values are only returned if full = True

resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit rank – the numerical rank of the scaled Vandermonde matrix sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix rcond – value of rcond.

For more details, see numpy.linalg.lstsq.

Warns

RankWarning

The rank of the coefficient matrix in the least-squares fit is deficient. The warning is only raised if full = False. The warnings can be turned off by

```python
>>> import warnings
>>> warnings.simplefilter('ignore', np.RankWarning)
```

See also:

numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfit
numpy.polynomial.legendre.legfit
numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyfit
numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermfit
numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagfit

hermeval

Evaluates a Hermite series.
**hermevander**

pseudo Vandermonde matrix of Hermite series.

**hermeweight**

HermiteE weight function.

**numpy.linalg.lstsq**

Computes a least-squares fit from the matrix.

**scipy.interpolate.UnivariateSpline**

Computes spline fits.

**Notes**

The solution is the coefficients of the HermiteE series $p$ that minimizes the sum of the weighted squared errors

$$E = \sum_j w_j^2 \ | y_j - p(x_j)|^2,$$

where the $w_j$ are the weights. This problem is solved by setting up the (typically) overdetermined matrix equation

$$V(x) \ast c = w \ast y,$$

where $V$ is the pseudo Vandermonde matrix of $x$, the elements of $c$ are the coefficients to be solved for, and the elements of $y$ are the observed values. This equation is then solved using the singular value decomposition of $V$.

If some of the singular values of $V$ are so small that they are neglected, then a `RankWarning` will be issued. This means that the coefficient values may be poorly determined. Using a lower order fit will usually get rid of the warning. The `rcond` parameter can also be set to a value smaller than its default, but the resulting fit may be spurious and have large contributions from roundoff error.

Fits using HermiteE series are probably most useful when the data can be approximated by $\sqrt{w(x)} \ast p(x)$, where $w(x)$ is the HermiteE weight. In that case the weight $\sqrt{w(x[i])}$ should be used together with data values $y[i]/\sqrt{w(x[i])}$. The weight function is available as `hermeweight`.

**References**

[1]

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermefit, hermeval
>>> x = np.linspace(-10, 10)
>>> np.random.seed(123)
>>> err = np.random.randn(len(x))/10
>>> y = hermeval(x, [1, 2, 3]) + err
>>> hermefit(x, y, 2)
array([ 1.01690445, 1.99951418, 2.99948696]) # may vary
```

**polynomial.hermite_e.hermetrim(c, tol=0)**

Remove “small” “trailing” coefficients from a polynomial.

“Small” means “small in absolute value” and is controlled by the parameter `tol`; “trailing” means highest order coefficient(s), e.g., in [0, 1, 1, 0, 0] (which represents $0 + x + x^2 + 0*x^3 + 0*x^4$) both the 3-rd and 4-th order coefficients would be “trimmed.”
Parameters

  c
  [array_like] 1-d array of coefficients, ordered from lowest order to highest.

  tol
  [number, optional] Trailing (i.e., highest order) elements with absolute value less than or equal
to tol (default value is zero) are removed.

Returns

  trimmed
  [ndarray] 1-d array with trailing zeros removed. If the resulting series would be empty, a series
  containing a single zero is returned.

Raises

  ValueError
  If tol < 0

See also:

  trimseq

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polyutils as pu
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,3,0,5,0,0))
array([0., 0., 3., 0., 5.])
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,1e-3,0,1e-5,0,0),1e-3) # item == tol is trimmed
array([0.])
>>> i = complex(0,1)  # works for complex
>>> pu.trimcoef((3e-4,1e-3*(1-i),5e-4,2e-5*(1+i)), 1e-3)
array([0.0003+0.j , 0.001-0.001j])
```

polynomial.hermite_e.hermeline (off, scl)

Hermite series whose graph is a straight line.

Parameters

  off, scl
  [scalars] The specified line is given by off + scl*x.

Returns

  y
  [ndarray] This module's representation of the Hermite series for off + scl*x.

See also:

  numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyline
**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermeline
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import hermeline, hermeval
>>> hermeval(0, hermeline(3, 2))
3.0
>>> hermeval(1, hermeline(3, 2))
5.0
```

**polynomial.hermite_e.hermepoly(c)**

Convert a Hermite series to a polynomial.

Convert an array representing the coefficients of a Hermite series, ordered from lowest degree to highest, to an array of the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest to highest degree.

**Parameters**

- **c**
  
  [array_like] 1-D array containing the Hermite series coefficients, ordered from lowest order term to highest.

**Returns**

- **pol**
  
  [ndarray] 1-D array containing the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest order term to highest.

**See also:**

*poly2herme*

**Notes**

The easy way to do conversions between polynomial basis sets is to use the convert method of a class instance.
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import herme2poly
>>> herme2poly([2., 10., 2., 3.])
array([0., 1., 2., 3.])
```

-polynomial.hermite_e.poly2herme(pol)-

Convert a polynomial to a Hermite series.

Convert an array representing the coefficients of a polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest degree to highest, to an array of the coefficients of the equivalent Hermite series, ordered from lowest to highest degree.

Parameters

pol

[array_like] 1-D array containing the polynomial coefficients

Returns

c

[ndarray] 1-D array containing the coefficients of the equivalent Hermite series.

See also:

-herme2poly-

Notes

The easy way to do conversions between polynomial basis sets is to use the convert method of a class instance.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.hermite_e import poly2herme
>>> poly2herme(np.arange(4))
array([ 2., 10., 2., 3.])
```

See also

numpy.polynomial

New in version 1.6.0.
**Laguerre Series (numpy.polynomial.laguerre)**

This module provides a number of objects (mostly functions) useful for dealing with Laguerre series, including a `Laguerre` class that encapsulates the usual arithmetic operations. (General information on how this module represents and works with such polynomials is in the docstring for its “parent” sub-package, `numpy.polynomial`.

**Classes**

```
Laguerre(coef[, domain, window])
A Laguerre series class.
```

**class** `numpy.polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre`(coef, domain=None, window=None)
A Laguerre series class.

The Laguerre class provides the standard Python numerical methods `+`, `*`, `//`, `%`, `divmod`, `**`, and `()` as well as the attributes and methods listed in the `ABCPolyBase` documentation.

**Parameters**

- `coef`
  [array_like] Laguerre coefficients in order of increasing degree, i.e. `(1, 2, 3)` gives `1*L_0(x) + 2*L_1(x) + 3*L_2(x)`.

- `domain`
  [(2,) array_like, optional] Domain to use. The interval `[domain[0], domain[1]]` is mapped to the interval `[window[0], window[1]]` by shifting and scaling. The default value is `[0, 1]`.

- `window`
  [(2,) array_like, optional] Window, see `domain` for its use. The default value is `[0, 1]`.

New in version 1.6.0.

**Methods**

- `__call__`(arg)
  Call self as a function.

- `basis`(deg[, domain, window])
  Series basis polynomial of degree `deg`.

- `cast`(series[, domain, window])
  Convert series to series of this class.

- `convert`([domain, kind, window])
  Convert series to a different kind and/or domain and/or window.

- `copy`()
  Return a copy.

- `cutdeg`(deg)
  Truncate series to the given degree.

- `degree`()
  The degree of the series.

- `deriv`([m])
  Differentiate.

- `fit`(x, y, deg[, domain, rcond, full, w, window])
  Least squares fit to data.

- `fromroots`(roots[, domain, window])
  Return series instance that has the specified roots.

- `has_samecoef`(other)
  Check if coefficients match.

- `has_samedomain`(other)
  Check if domains match.

- `has_sametype`(other)
  Check if types match.

- `has_samewindow`(other)
  Check if windows match.

- `identity`([domain, window])
  Identity function.

- `integ`(m[, k, lbnd])
  Integrate.

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<td>Return the roots of the series polynomial.</td>
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<td><code>trim</code>([tol])</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>truncate</code>(size)</td>
<td>Truncate series to length size.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python

classmethod polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.__call__(arg)
    Call self as a function.

classmethod polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.basis(deg, domain=None, window=None)
    Series basis polynomial of degree `deg`.
    Returns the series representing the basis polynomial of degree `deg`.
    New in version 1.7.0.

    Parameters
    `deg`
    [int] Degree of the basis polynomial for the series. Must be >= 0.

    `domain`
    [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form `[beg, end]`, where
    beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is
    used. The default is None.

    `window`
    [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form `[beg, end]`, where
    beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

    Returns
    `new_series`
    [series] A series with the coefficient of the `deg` term set to one and all others zero.

```

classmethod polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.cast(series, domain=None, window=None)
    Convert series to series of this class.
    The `series` is expected to be an instance of some polynomial series of one of the types supported by the
    numpy.polynomial module, but could be some other class that supports the convert method.
    New in version 1.7.0.

    Parameters
    `series`
    [series] The series instance to be converted.
domain

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

window

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

[series] A series of the same kind as the calling class and equal to series when evaluated.

See also:

convert

similar instance method

method

polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.convert (domain=None, kind=None, window=None)

Convert series to a different kind and/or domain and/or window.

Parameters

domain

[array_like, optional] The domain of the converted series. If the value is None, the default domain of kind is used.

kind

[class, optional] The polynomial series type class to which the current instance should be converted. If kind is None, then the class of the current instance is used.

window

[array_like, optional] The window of the converted series. If the value is None, the default window of kind is used.

Returns

new_series

[series] The returned class can be of different type than the current instance and/or have a different domain and/or different window.
Notes

Conversion between domains and class types can result in numerically ill defined series.

method

`polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.copy()`
Return a copy.

Returns

`new_series`
[series] Copy of self.

method

`polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.cutdeg(deg)`
Truncate series to the given degree.
Reducing the degree of the series to deg by discarding the high order terms. If deg is greater than the current degree a copy of the current series is returned. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.
New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters

deg
[non-negative int] The series is reduced to degree deg by discarding the high order terms.
The value of deg must be a non-negative integer.

Returns

`new_series`
[series] New instance of series with reduced degree.

method

`polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.degree()`
The degree of the series.
New in version 1.5.0.

Returns

degree
[int] Degree of the series, one less than the number of coefficients.

method

`polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.deriv(m=1)`
Differentiate.
Return a series instance of that is the derivative of the current series.

Parameters
NumPyReference, Release 1.21.0

m

[non-negative int] Find the derivative of order \( m \).

Returns

eq.new.series

[series] A new series representing the derivative. The domain is the same as the domain of the differentiated series.

method
classmethod polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.fit(x, y, deg, domain=None, rcond=None, full=False, w=None, window=None)

Least squares fit to data.

Return a series instance that is the least squares fit to the data \( y \) sampled at \( x \). The domain of the returned instance can be specified and this will often result in a superior fit with less chance of ill conditioning.

Parameters

x

[array_like, shape (M,)] \( x \)-coordinates of the \( M \) sample points \( (x[i], y[i]) \).

y

[array_like, shape (M,)] \( y \)-coordinates of the \( M \) sample points \( (x[i], y[i]) \).

deg

[int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If \( \text{deg} \) is a single integer all terms up to and including the \( \text{deg} \)'th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions >= 1.11.0 a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.

domain

[[None, [beg, end], []], optional] Domain to use for the returned series. If \( \text{None} \), then a minimal domain that covers the points \( x \) is chosen. If [] the class domain is used. The default value was the class domain in NumPy 1.4 and \( \text{None} \) in later versions. The [] option was added in numpy 1.5.0.

rcond

[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is \( \text{len(x)} \)*\( \text{eps} \), where \( \text{eps} \) is the relative precision of the float type, about \( 2e-16 \) in most cases.

full

[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

w

[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None the contribution of each point \( (x[i], y[i]) \) to the fit is weighted by \( w[i] \). Ideally the weights are chosen so that the errors of the products \( w[i] * y[i] \) all have the same variance. The default value is None.

New in version 1.5.0.
window

[[[beg, end]], optional] Window to use for the returned series. The default value is the default class domain

New in version 1.6.0.

Returns

new_series

[series] A series that represents the least squares fit to the data and has the domain and window specified in the call. If the coefficients for the unscaled and unshifted basis polynomials are of interest, do new_series.convert().coef.

[resid, rank, sv, rcond]

[list] These values are only returned if full = True

resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit rank – the numerical rank of the scaled Vandermonde matrix sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix rcond – value of rcond.

For more details, see linalg.lstsq.

classmethod polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.fromroots(roots, domain=[], window=None)

Return series instance that has the specified roots.

Returns a series representing the product \((x - r[0])*(x - r[1])*...*(x - r[n-1])\), where \(r\) is a list of roots.

Parameters

roots

[array_like] List of roots.

domain

[[[], None, array_like], optional] Domain for the resulting series. If None the domain is the interval from the smallest root to the largest. If [] the domain is the class domain. The default is [].

window

[[None, array_like], optional] Window for the returned series. If None the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

[series] Series with the specified roots.

method

polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.has_samecoef(other)

Check if coefficients match.

New in version 1.6.0.
Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the `coef` attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the coefficients are the same, False otherwise.

method

class polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre

`.has_samedomain(other)`

Check if domains match.

New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the `domain` attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the domains are the same, False otherwise.

method

class polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre

`.has_sametype(other)`

Check if types match.

New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

other

[object] Class instance.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if other is same class as self

method

class polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre

`.has_samewindow(other)`

Check if windows match.

New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the `window` attribute.
Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the windows are the same, False otherwise.

method
classmethod polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.identity(domain=None, window=None)

Identity function.

If \( p \) is the returned series, then \( p(x) = x \) for all values of \( x \).

Parameters

domain

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form \([\text{beg}, \text{end}]\), where \( \text{beg} \) and \( \text{end} \) are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

window

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be of the form \([\text{beg}, \text{end}]\), where \( \text{beg} \) and \( \text{end} \) are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

[series] Series of representing the identity.

method

polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.integ(m=1, k=[], lbnd=None)

Integrate.

Return a series instance that is the definite integral of the current series.

Parameters

m

[non-negative int] The number of integrations to perform.

k

[array_like] Integration constants. The first constant is applied to the first integration, the second to the second, and so on. The list of values must less than or equal to \( m \) in length and any missing values are set to zero.

lbnd

[Scalar] The lower bound of the definite integral.

Returns

new_series

[series] A new series representing the integral. The domain is the same as the domain of the integrated series.
method

polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.linspace(n=100, domain=None)

Returns the x, y values at n linearly spaced points across the domain. Here y is the value of the polynomial at the points x. By default the domain is the same as that of the series instance. This method is intended mostly as a plotting aid.

New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters

- n
  [int, optional] Number of point pairs to return. The default value is 100.

- domain
  [[None, array_like], optional] If not None, the specified domain is used instead of that of the calling instance. It should be of the form [beg, end]. The default is None which case the class domain is used.

Returns

- x, y
  [ndarray] x is equal to linspace(self.domain[0], self.domain[1], n) and y is the series evaluated at element of x.

method

polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.mapparms()

Return the mapping parameters.

The returned values define a linear map \( \text{off} + \text{scl} \times x \) that is applied to the input arguments before the series is evaluated. The map depends on the domain and window; if the current domain is equal to the window the resulting map is the identity. If the coefficients of the series instance are to be used by themselves outside this class, then the linear function must be substituted for the \( x \) in the standard representation of the base polynomials.

Returns

- off, scl
  [float or complex] The mapping function is defined by \( \text{off} + \text{scl} \times x \).

Notes

If the current domain is the interval \([l1, r1]\) and the window is \([l2, r2]\), then the linear mapping function \( L \) is defined by the equations:

\[
L(l1) = l2 \\
L(r1) = r2
\]

method

polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.roots()

Return the roots of the series polynomial.
Compute the roots for the series. Note that the accuracy of the roots decrease the further outside the domain they lie.

**Returns**

roots

[ndarray] Array containing the roots of the series.

```python
method

polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.trim(tol=0)

Remove trailing coefficients

Remove trailing coefficients until a coefficient is reached whose absolute value greater than tol or the beginning of the series is reached. If all the coefficients would be removed the series is set to [0]. A new series instance is returned with the new coefficients. The current instance remains unchanged.

**Parameters**

**tol**

[non-negative number.] All trailing coefficients less than tol will be removed.

**Returns**

**new_series**


```python
method

polynomial.laguerre.Laguerre.truncate(size)

Truncate series to length size.

Reduce the series to length size by discarding the high degree terms. The value of size must be a positive integer. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

**Parameters**

**size**

[positive int] The series is reduced to length size by discarding the high degree terms. The value of size must be a positive integer.

**Returns**

**new_series**

Constants

<table>
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<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>lagdomain</td>
<td>Laguerre domain: ([0, 1])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lagzero</td>
<td>Laguerre zero: ([0])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lagone</td>
<td>Laguerre one: ([1])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lagx</td>
<td>Laguerre (x): ([1, -1])</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
polynomial.laguerre.lagdomain = array([0, 1])
polynomial.laguerre.lagzero = array([0])
polynomial.laguerre.lagone = array([1])
polynomial.laguerre.lagx = array([1, -1])
```

Arithmetic

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<td>Add one Laguerre series to another.</td>
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<tr>
<td>lagsub</td>
<td>Subtract one Laguerre series from another.</td>
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<tr>
<td>lagmulx</td>
<td>Multiply a Laguerre series by (x).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lagmul</td>
<td>Multiply one Laguerre series by another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lagdiv</td>
<td>Divide one Laguerre series by another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lagpow</td>
<td>Raise a Laguerre series to a power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lagval</td>
<td>Evaluate a Laguerre series at points (x).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lagval2d</td>
<td>Evaluate a 2-D Laguerre series at points ((x, y)).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lagval3d</td>
<td>Evaluate a 2-D Laguerre series on the Cartesian product of (x) and (y).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laggrid2d</td>
<td>Evaluate a 3-D Laguerre series on the Cartesian product of (x), (y), and (z).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laggrid3d</td>
<td>Evaluate a 3-D Laguerre series on the Cartesian product of (x), (y), (z).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
polynomial.laguerre.lagadd(c1, c2)  # Add one Laguerre series to another.

Returns the sum of two Laguerre series \(c1 + c2\). The arguments are sequences of coefficients ordered from lowest order term to highest, i.e., \([1,2,3]\) represents the series \(P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2\).

Parameters

- **c1, c2**
  
  [array_like] 1-D arrays of Laguerre series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

- **out**
  
  [ndarray] Array representing the Laguerre series of their sum.

See also:

- lagsub, lagmulx, lagmul, lagdiv, lagpow
```

4.22. Polynomials
Notes

Unlike multiplication, division, etc., the sum of two Laguerre series is a Laguerre series (without having to "reproject" the result onto the basis set) so addition, just like that of "standard" polynomials, is simply "component-wise."

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagadd
>>> lagadd([1, 2, 3], [1, 2, 3, 4])
array([2., 4., 6., 4.])
```

```
polynomial.laguerre.lagsub(cl, c2)

Subtract one Laguerre series from another.

Returns the difference of two Laguerre series cl - c2. The sequences of coefficients are from lowest order term to highest, i.e., [1,2,3] represents the series P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2.

Parameters

cl, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Laguerre series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Of Laguerre series coefficients representing their difference.

See also:

``lagadd, lagmulx, lagmul, lagdiv, lagpow``

Notes

Unlike multiplication, division, etc., the difference of two Laguerre series is a Laguerre series (without having to "reproject" the result onto the basis set) so subtraction, just like that of "standard" polynomials, is simply "component-wise."

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagsub
>>> lagsub([1, 2, 3, 4], [1, 2, 3])
array([0., 0., 0., 4.])
```

```
polynomial.laguerre.lagmulx(c)

Multiply a Laguerre series by x.

Multiply the Laguerre series c by x, where x is the independent variable.

Parameters


c

[array_like] 1-D array of Laguerre series coefficients ordered from low to high.
Returns

\[ \text{out} \]

[ndarray] Array representing the result of the multiplication.

See also:

*lagadd*, *lagsub*, *lagmul*, *lagdiv*, *lagpow*

Notes

The multiplication uses the recursion relationship for Laguerre polynomials in the form

\[ xP_i(x) = -(i+1)P_{i+1}(x) + (2i+1)P_i(x) - iP_{i-1}(x) \]

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagmul
>>> lagmulx([1, 2, 3])
array([-1., -1., 11., -9.])
```

polynomial.laguerre.\texttt{lagmul}(c1, c2)
Multiply one Laguerre series by another.

Returns the product of two Laguerre series \(c1 \ast c2\). The arguments are sequences of coefficients, from lowest order “term” to highest, e.g., \([1, 2, 3]\) represents the series \(P_0 + 2P_1 + 3P_2\).

Parameters

c1, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Laguerre series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

\[ \text{out} \]

[ndarray] Of Laguerre series coefficients representing their product.

See also:

*lagadd*, *lagsub*, *lagmulx*, *lagdiv*, *lagpow*

Notes

In general, the (polynomial) product of two C-series results in terms that are not in the Laguerre polynomial basis set. Thus, to express the product as a Laguerre series, it is necessary to “reproject” the product onto said basis set, which may produce “unintuitive” (but correct) results; see Examples section below.

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Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagmul
>>> lagmul([1, 2, 3], [0, 1, 2])
array([ 8., -13., 38., -51., 36.])
```

`polynomial.laguerre.lagdiv(c1, c2)`

Divide one Laguerre series by another.

Returns the quotient-with-remainder of two Laguerre series $c_1 / c_2$. The arguments are sequences of coefficients from lowest order “term” to highest, e.g., $[1,2,3]$ represents the series $P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2$.

**Parameters**

\[ c1, c2 \press{array_like} \text{1-D arrays of Laguerre series coefficients ordered from low to high.} \]

**Returns**

\[ \text{[quo, rem]} \press{ndarrays} \text{Of Laguerre series coefficients representing the quotient and remainder.} \]

**See also:**

`lagadd`, `lagsub`, `lagmulx`, `lagmul`, `lagpow`

**Notes**

In general, the (polynomial) division of one Laguerre series by another results in quotient and remainder terms that are not in the Laguerre polynomial basis set. Thus, to express these results as a Laguerre series, it is necessary to “reproject” the results onto the Laguerre basis set, which may produce “unintuitive” (but correct) results; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagdiv
>>> lagdiv([ 8., -13., 38., -51., 36.], [0, 1, 2])
(array([1., 2., 3.]), array([0.]))
```

`polynomial.laguerre.lagpow(c, pow, maxpower=16)`

Raise a Laguerre series to a power.

Returns the Laguerre series $c$ raised to the power $pow$. The argument $c$ is a sequence of coefficients ordered from low to high. i.e., $[1,2,3]$ is the series $P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2$.

**Parameters**

\[ c \press{array_like} \text{1-D array of Laguerre series coefficients ordered from low to high.} \]
pow

[integer] Power to which the series will be raised

maxpower

[integer, optional] Maximum power allowed. This is mainly to limit growth of the series to unmanageable size. Default is 16

Returns

c coef

[ndarray] Laguerre series of power.

See also:

*lagadd*, *lagsub*, *lagmulx*, *lagmul*, *lagdiv*

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagpow
>>> lagpow([1, 2, 3], 2)
array([ 14., -16., 56., -72., 54.])
```

polynomial.laguerre.lagval(x, c, tensor=True)

Evaluate a Laguerre series at points x.

If c is of length n + 1, this function returns the value:

\[ p(x) = c_0 \cdot L_0(x) + c_1 \cdot L_1(x) + \ldots + c_n \cdot L_n(x) \]

The parameter x is converted to an array only if it is a tuple or a list, otherwise it is treated as a scalar. In either case, either x or its elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of c.

If c is a 1-D array, then \( p(x) \) will have the same shape as x. If c is multidimensional, then the shape of the result depends on the value of tensor. If tensor is true the shape will be c.shape[1:] + x.shape. If tensor is false the shape will be c.shape[1:]. Note that scalars have shape (,).

Trailing zeros in the coefficients will be used in the evaluation, so they should be avoided if efficiency is a concern.

Parameters

x

[array_like, compatible object] If x is a list or tuple, it is converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and treated as a scalar. In either case, x or its elements must support addition and multiplication with with themselves and with the elements of c.

c

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree n are contained in c[n]. If c is multidimensional the remaining indices enumerate multiple polynomials. In the two dimensional case the coefficients may be thought of as stored in the columns of c.
tensor

[boolean, optional] If True, the shape of the coefficient array is extended with ones on the right, one for each dimension of x. Scalars have dimension 0 for this action. The result is that every column of coefficients in c is evaluated for every element of x. If False, x is broadcast over the columns of c for the evaluation. This keyword is useful when c is multidimensional. The default value is True.

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

values

[ndarray, algebra_like] The shape of the return value is described above.

See also:

lagval2d, laggrid2d, lagval3d, laggrid3d

Notes

The evaluation uses Clenshaw recursion, aka synthetic division.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagval
>>> coef = [1, 2, 3]
>>> lagval(1, coef)
-0.5
>>> lagval([[1, 2], [3, 4]], coef)
array([[-0.5, -4.],
       [-4.5, -2.]])
```

documentation as follows:

```python
documentation as follows:

```python

```python
documentation as follows:

```python
documentation as follows:

```python
documentation as follows:

```python
documentation as follows:

```python
documentation as follows:
c

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree i,j
is contained in c[i, j]. If c has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate
multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points formed
with pairs of corresponding values from x and y.

See also:

lagval, laggrid2d, lagval3d, laggrid3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.laguerre.lagval3d(x, y, z, c)
Evaluate a 3-D Laguerre series at points (x, y, z).

This function returns the values:

\[ p(x, y, z) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} \times L_i(x) \times L_j(y) \times L_k(z) \]

The parameters x, y, and z are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a
scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either x, y, and z or their elements must
support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of c.

If c has fewer than 3 dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result
will be c.shape[3:] + x.shape.

Parameters

x, y, z

[array_like, compatible object] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points (x, y,
z), where x, y, and z must have the same shape. If any of x, y, or z is a list or tuple, it is first
converted to an ndarray, otherwise it left unchanged and if it isn’t an ndarray it is treated as
a scalar.

c

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree
i,j,k is contained in c[i, j, k]. If c has dimension greater than 3 the remaining indices enumerate
multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the multidimension polynomial on points formed
with triples of corresponding values from x, y, and z.

See also:
**lagval, lagval2d, laggrid2d, laggrid3d**

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.

`polynomial.laguerre.laggrid2d(x, y, c)`

Evaluate a 2-D Laguerre series on the Cartesian product of x and y.

This function returns the values:

\[ p(a, b) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \cdot L_i(a) \cdot L_j(b) \]

where the points \((a, b)\) consist of all pairs formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\) and \(b\) from \(y\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension and \(y\) in the second.

The parameters \(x\) and \(y\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars. In either case, either \(x\) and \(y\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than two dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be \(c\).shape[2:] + x.shape + y.shape.

**Parameters**

- **x, y**
  
  [array_like, compatible objects] The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\). If \(x\) or \(y\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

- **c**
  
  [array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree \(i,j\) is contained in \(c[i,j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

**Returns**

- **values**
  
  [ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional Chebyshev series at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

**See also:**

`lagval, lagval2d, lagval3d, laggrid3d`
Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

`polynomial.laguerre.laggrid3d(x, y, z, c)`

Evaluate a 3-D Laguerre series on the Cartesian product of x, y, and z.

This function returns the values:

\[
p(a, b, c) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} \cdot L_i(a) \cdot L_j(b) \cdot L_k(c)
\]

where the points \((a, b, c)\) consist of all triples formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\), \(b\) from \(y\), and \(c\) from \(z\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension, \(y\) in the second, and \(z\) in the third.

The parameters \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as scalars. In either case, either \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than three dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be \(c\).shape[3:] + x.shape + y.shape + z.shape.

Parameters

\(x, y, z\)

[array_like, compatible objects] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\). If \(x\), \(y\), or \(z\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

\(c\)

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree \(i, j\) are contained in \(c[i, j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

\(values\)

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

See also:

`lagval`, `lagval2d`, `laggrid2d`, `lagval3d`

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.
polynomial.laguerre.lagder(c, m=1, scl=1, axis=0)

Differentiate a Laguerre series.

Returns the Laguerre series coefficients $c$ differentiated $m$ times along $axis$. At each iteration the result is multiplied by $scl$ (the scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable). The argument $c$ is an array of coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., $[1,2,3]$ represents the series $1*L_0 + 2*L_1 + 3*L_2$ while $[[1,2],[1,2]]$ represents $1*L_0(x)*L_0(y) + 1*L_1(x)*L_0(y) + 2*L_0(x)*L_1(y) + 2*L_1(x)*L_1(y)$ if axis=0 is $x$ and axis=1 is $y$.

Parameters

- $c$: [array_like] Array of Laguerre series coefficients. If $c$ is multidimensional the different axis correspond to different variables with the degree in each axis given by the corresponding index.

- m: [int, optional] Number of derivatives taken, must be non-negative. (Default: 1)

- scl: [scalar, optional] Each differentiation is multiplied by $scl$. The end result is multiplication by $scl^m$. This is for use in a linear change of variable. (Default: 1)

- axis: [int, optional] Axis over which the derivative is taken. (Default: 0).

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

- der: [ndarray] Laguerre series of the derivative.

See also:

- lagint

Notes

In general, the result of differentiating a Laguerre series does not resemble the same operation on a power series. Thus the result of this function may be “unintuitive,” albeit correct; see Examples section below.
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagder
>>> lagder([ 1., 1., 1., -3.])
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.])
>>> lagder([ 1., 0., 0., -4., 3.], m=2)
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.])
```

`numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagint(c, m=1, k=[], lbnd=0, scl=1, axis=0)`

Integrate a Laguerre series.

Returns the Laguerre series coefficients $c$ integrated $m$ times from $lbnd$ along $axis$. At each iteration the resulting series is multiplied by $scl$ and an integration constant, $k$, is added. The scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable. (“Buyer beware”: note that, depending on what one is doing, one may want $scl$ to be the reciprocal of what one might expect; for more information, see the Notes section below.) The argument $c$ is an array of coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., $[1,2,3]$ represents the series $L_0 + 2L_1 + 3L_2$ while $[[1,2],[1,2]]$ represents $1*L_0(x)*L_0(y) + 1*L_1(x)*L_0(y) + 2*L_0(x)*L_1(y) + 2*L_1(x)*L_1(y)$ if $axis=0$ is $x$ and $axis=1$ is $y$.

Parameters

- **c**
  - [array_like] Array of Laguerre series coefficients. If $c$ is multidimensional the different axis correspond to different variables with the degree in each axis given by the corresponding index.

- **m**
  - [int, optional] Order of integration, must be positive. (Default: 1)

- **k**
  - [([], list, scalar), optional] Integration constant(s). The value of the first integral at $lbnd$ is the first value in the list, the value of the second integral at $lbnd$ is the second value, etc. If $k == []$ (the default), all constants are set to zero. If $m == 1$, a single scalar can be given instead of a list.

- **lbnd**
  - [scalar, optional] The lower bound of the integral. (Default: 0)

- **scl**
  - [scalar, optional] Following each integration the result is multiplied by $scl$ before the integration constant is added. (Default: 1)

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] Axis over which the integral is taken. (Default: 0).

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

- **S**
  - [ndarray] Laguerre series coefficients of the integral.

Raises
ValueError

If \( m < 0, \text{len}(k) > m, \text{np.ndim}(\text{lbnd}) != 0, \text{or np.ndim}(\text{scl}) != 0. \)

See also:

lagder

Notes

Note that the result of each integration is multiplied by \( scl \). Why is this important to note? Say one is making a linear change of variable \( u = ax + b \) in an integral relative to \( x \). Then \( dx = du/a \), so one will need to set \( scl \) equal to \( 1/a \) - perhaps not what one would have first thought.

Also note that, in general, the result of integrating a C-series needs to be “reprojected” onto the C-series basis set. Thus, typically, the result of this function is “unintuitive,” albeit correct; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagint
>>> lagint([1,2,3])
array([ 1., 1., 1., -3.])
>>> lagint([1,2,3], m=2)
array([ 1., 0., 0., -4., 3.])
>>> lagint([1,2,3], k=1)
array([ 2., 1., 1., -3.])
>>> lagint([1,2,3], lbnd=-1)
array([11.5, 1. , 1. , -3. ])
>>> lagint([1,2], m=2, k=[1,2], lbnd=-1)
array([ 11.16666667, -5. , -3. , 2. ]) # may vary
```

Misc Functions

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polynomial.laguerre.lagfromroots(roots)

Generate a Laguerre series with given roots.

The function returns the coefficients of the polynomial

\[
p(x) = (x - r_0) \ast (x - r_1) \ast \ldots \ast (x - r_n),
\]
in Laguerre form, where the \( r_n \) are the roots specified in \texttt{roots}. If a zero has multiplicity \( n \), then it must appear in \texttt{roots} \( n \) times. For instance, if 2 is a root of multiplicity three and 3 is a root of multiplicity 2, then \texttt{roots} looks something like \([2, 2, 2, 3, 3]\). The roots can appear in any order.

If the returned coefficients are \( c \), then

\[
p(x) = c_0 + c_1 * L_1(x) + ... + c_n * L_n(x)
\]

The coefficient of the last term is not generally 1 for monic polynomials in Laguerre form.

Parameters

\texttt{roots}

[array_like] Sequence containing the roots.

Returns

\texttt{out}

[ndarray] 1-D array of coefficients. If all roots are real then \texttt{out} is a real array, if some of the roots are complex, then \texttt{out} is complex even if all the coefficients in the result are real (see Examples below).

See also:

- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyfromroots}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.legendre.legfromroots}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfromroots}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermfromroots}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermefromroots}

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagfromroots, lagval
>>> coef = lagfromroots((-1, 0, 1))
>>> lagval((-1, 0, 1), coef)
array([0., 0., 0.])
>>> coef = lagfromroots((-1j, 1j))
>>> lagval((-1j, 1j), coef)
array([0.+0.j, 0.+0.j])
```

documentation for \texttt{polynomial.laguerre.lagroots}:

Compute the roots of a Laguerre series.

Return the roots (a.k.a. “zeros”) of the polynomial

\[
p(x) = \sum_i c[i] * L_i(x).
\]

Parameters

\texttt{c}

[1-D array_like] 1-D array of coefficients.
Returns

out

[ndarray] Array of the roots of the series. If all the roots are real, then out is also real, otherwise it is complex.

See also:

numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyroots
numpy.polynomial.legendre.legroots
numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebroots
numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermroots
numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermeroots

Notes

The root estimates are obtained as the eigenvalues of the companion matrix. Roots far from the origin of the complex plane may have large errors due to the numerical instability of the series for such values. Roots with multiplicity greater than 1 will also show larger errors as the value of the series near such points is relatively insensitive to errors in the roots. Isolated roots near the origin can be improved by a few iterations of Newton’s method.

The Laguerre series basis polynomials aren’t powers of $x$ so the results of this function may seem unintuitive.

Examples

```
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagroots, lagfromroots
>>> coef = lagfromroots([0, 1, 2])
>>> coef
array([ 2., -8., 12., -6.])
>>> lagroots(coef)
array([-4.4408921e-16, 1.0000000e+00, 2.0000000e+00])
```

polynomial.laguerre.lagvander(x, deg)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degree.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degree deg and sample points x. The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

$$V[... , i] = L_i(x)$$

where $0 \leq i \leq deg$. The leading indices of $V$ index the elements of $x$ and the last index is the degree of the Laguerre polynomial.

If c is a 1-D array of coefficients of length $n + 1$ and $V$ is the array $V = \text{lagvander}(x, n)$, then $\text{np.dot}(V, c)$ and $\text{lagval}(x, c)$ are the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of Laguerre series of the same degree and sample points.

Parameters

x

[array_like] Array of points. The dtype is converted to float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. If x is scalar it is converted to a 1-D array.
deg

[int] Degree of the resulting matrix.

Returns

vander

[ndarray] The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix. The shape of the returned matrix is \(x\.shape + (\text{deg} + 1,\), where the last index is the degree of the corresponding Laguerre polynomial. The dtype will be the same as the converted \(x\).

Examples

```python
code
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagvander
code
>>> x = np.array([0, 1, 2])
code
>>> lagvander(x, 3)
code
array([[ 1. ,  1. ,  1. ,  1. ],
code
       [ 1. ,  0. , -0.5 , -0.66666667],
code
       [ 1. , -1. , -1. , -0.33333333]])
code
```

`polynomial.laguerre.lagvander2d(x, y, deg)`

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees \(deg\) and sample points \((x, y)\). The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[
V[...,(\text{deg}[1]+1) \ast i + j] = L_i(x) \ast L_j(y),
\]

where \(0 <= i <= \text{deg}[0]\) and \(0 <= j <= \text{deg}[1]\). The leading indices of \(V\) index the points \((x, y)\) and the last index encodes the degrees of the Laguerre polynomials.

If \(V = \text{lagvander2d}(x, y, [\text{xdeg}, \text{ydeg}])\), then the columns of \(V\) correspond to the elements of a 2-D coefficient array \(c\) of shape \((\text{xdeg}+1, \text{ydeg}+1)\) in the order

\(c_{00}, c_{01}, c_{02}, ..., c_{10}, c_{11}, c_{12}...\)

and `np.dot(V, c.flat)` and `lagval2d(x, y, c)` will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 2-D Laguerre series of the same degrees and sample points.

Parameters

\(x, y\)

[array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

\(deg\)

[list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form \([\text{x_deg}, \text{y_deg}]\).

Returns

vander2d

[ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is \(x\.shape + (\text{order},)\), where \(\text{order} = (\text{deg}[0]+1) \ast (\text{deg}[1]+1)\). The dtype will be the same as the converted \(x\) and \(y\).
See also:

`lagvander`, `lagvander3d`, `lagval2d`, `lagval3d`

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

`polynomial.laguerre.lagvander3d(x, y, z, deg)`

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees `deg` and sample points `(x, y, z)`. If `l, m, n` are the given degrees in `x, y, z`, then The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[
V[i, j, k] = L_i(x) * L_j(y) * L_k(z),
\]

where `0 <= i <= l`, `0 <= j <= m`, and `0 <= j <= n`. The leading indices of `V` index the points `(x, y, z)` and the last index encodes the degrees of the Laguerre polynomials.

If `V = lagvander3d(x, y, z, [xdeg, ydeg, zdeg])`, then the columns of `V` correspond to the elements of a 3-D coefficient array `c` of shape `(xdeg + 1, ydeg + 1, zdeg + 1)` in the order

\[
c_{000}, c_{001}, c_{002}, ..., c_{010}, c_{011}, c_{012}, ...
\]

and `np.dot(V, c.flat)` and `lagval3d(x, y, z, c)` will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 3-D Laguerre series of the same degrees and sample points.

Parameters

- `x, y, z`
  - [array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

- `deg`
  - [list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form `[x_deg, y_deg, z_deg]`.

Returns

- `vander3d`
  - [ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is `x.shape + (order,)`, where `order = (deg[0] + 1) * (deg[1] + 1) * (deg[2] + 1)`. The dtype will be the same as the converted `x, y,` and `z`.

See also:

`lagvander`, `lagvander3d`, `lagval2d`, `lagval3d`
Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

`polynomial.laguerre.laggauss(deg)`

Gauss-Laguerre quadrature.

Computes the sample points and weights for Gauss-Laguerre quadrature. These sample points and weights will correctly integrate polynomials of degree $2 \times \text{deg} - 1$ or less over the interval $[0, \infty]$ with the weight function $f(x) = \exp(-x)$.

Parameters

- `deg`
  - [int] Number of sample points and weights. It must be $\geq 1$.

Returns

- `x`
  - [ndarray] 1-D ndarray containing the sample points.

- `y`
  - [ndarray] 1-D ndarray containing the weights.

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

The results have only been tested up to degree 100 higher degrees may be problematic. The weights are determined by using the fact that

$$w_k = \frac{c}{(L'_n(x_k) \times L_{n-1}(x_k))}$$

where $c$ is a constant independent of $k$ and $x_k$ is the k'th root of $L_n$, and then scaling the results to get the right value when integrating $1$.

`polynomial.laguerre.lagweight(x)`

Weight function of the Laguerre polynomials.

The weight function is $\exp(-x)$ and the interval of integration is $[0, \infty]$. The Laguerre polynomials are orthogonal, but not normalized, with respect to this weight function.

Parameters

- `x`
  - [array_like] Values at which the weight function will be computed.

Returns

- `w`
  - [ndarray] The weight function at $x$. 

4.22. Polynomials
Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

```python
polynomial.laguerre.lagcompanion(c)
```
Return the companion matrix of `c`.

The usual companion matrix of the Laguerre polynomials is already symmetric when `c` is a basis Laguerre polynomial, so no scaling is applied.

**Parameters**

- `c`  
  [array_like] 1-D array of Laguerre series coefficients ordered from low to high degree.

**Returns**

- `mat`  
  [ndarray] Companion matrix of dimensions `(deg, deg)`.

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

```python
polynomial.laguerre.lagfit(x, y, deg, rcond=None, full=False, w=None)
```
Least squares fit of Laguerre series to data.

Return the coefficients of a Laguerre series of degree `deg` that is the least squares fit to the data values `y` given at points `x`. If `y` is 1-D the returned coefficients will also be 1-D. If `y` is 2-D multiple fits are done, one for each column of `y`, and the resulting coefficients are stored in the corresponding columns of a 2-D return. The fitted polynomial(s) are in the form

\[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 \times L_1(x) + ... + c_n \times L_n(x), \]

where `n` is `deg`.

**Parameters**

- `x`  
  [array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points `(x[i], y[i])`.
- `y`  
  [array_like, shape (M,) or (M, K)] y-coordinates of the sample points. Several data sets of sample points sharing the same x-coordinates can be fitted at once by passing in a 2D-array that contains one dataset per column.
- `deg`  
  [int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If `deg` is a single integer all terms up to and including the `deg`th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions >= 1.11.0 a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.
- `rcond`  
  [float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is `len(x)*eps`, where `eps` is the relative precision of the float type, about `2e-16` in most cases.
full

[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

w

[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None, the contribution of each point \((x[i], y[i])\) to the fit is weighted by \(w[i]\). Ideally the weights are chosen so that the errors of the products \(w[i]*y[i]\) all have the same variance. The default value is None.

Returns

coef

[ndarray, shape (M,) or (M, K)] Laguerre coefficients ordered from low to high. If \(y\) was 2-D, the coefficients for the data in column \(k\) of \(y\) are in column \(k\).

[residuals, rank, singular_values, rcond]

[list] These values are only returned if \(full = True\)

resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit rank – the numerical rank of the scaled Vandermonde matrix sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix rcond – value of rcond.

For more details, see \texttt{numpy.linalg.lstsq}.

Warns

RankWarning

The rank of the coefficient matrix in the least-squares fit is deficient. The warning is only raised if \(full = False\). The warnings can be turned off by

```python
>>> import warnings
>>> warnings.simplefilter('ignore', np.RankWarning)
```

See also:

\texttt{numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyfit}
\texttt{numpy.polynomial.legendre.legfit}
\texttt{numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfit}
\texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermfit}
\texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermefit}
\texttt{lagval}

Evaluates a Laguerre series.

\texttt{lagvander}

pseudo Vandermonde matrix of Laguerre series.

\texttt{lagweight}

Laguerre weight function.
**numpy.linalg.lstsq**
Computes a least-squares fit from the matrix.

**scipy.interpolate.UnivariateSpline**
Computes spline fits.

**Notes**

The solution is the coefficients of the Laguerre series $p$ that minimizes the sum of the weighted squared errors

$$E = \sum_j w_j^2 |y_j - p(x_j)|^2,$$

where the $w_j$ are the weights. This problem is solved by setting up as the (typically) overdetermined matrix equation

$$V(x) \ast c = w \ast y,$$

where $V$ is the weighted pseudo Vandermonde matrix of $x$, $c$ are the coefficients to be solved for, $w$ are the weights, and $y$ are the observed values. This equation is then solved using the singular value decomposition of $V$.

If some of the singular values of $V$ are so small that they are neglected, then a `RankWarning` will be issued. This means that the coefficient values may be poorly determined. Using a lower order fit will usually get rid of the warning. The `rcond` parameter can also be set to a value smaller than its default, but the resulting fit may be spurious and have large contributions from roundoff error.

Fits using Laguerre series are probably most useful when the data can be approximated by $\sqrt{w(x)} \ast p(x)$, where $w(x)$ is the Laguerre weight. In that case the weight $\sqrt{w(x[i])}$ should be used together with data values $y[i]/\sqrt{w(x[i])}$. The weight function is available as `lagweight`.

**References**

[1]

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagfit, lagval
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 10)
>>> err = np.random.randn(len(x))/10
>>> y = lagval(x, [1, 2, 3]) + err
>>> lagfit(x, y, 2)
array([ 0.96971004, 2.00193749, 3.00288744]) # may vary
```

**polynomial.laguerre.lagtrim**($c$, $tol=0$)
Remove “small” “trailing” coefficients from a polynomial.

“Small” means “small in absolute value” and is controlled by the parameter $tol$; “trailing” means highest order coefficient(s), e.g., in $[0, 1, 1, 0, 0]$ (which represents $0 + x + x^2 + 0*x^3 + 0*x^4$) both the 3-rd and 4-th order coefficients would be “trimmed.”

**Parameters**

- **c**
  
  [array_like] 1-d array of coefficients, ordered from lowest order to highest.
tol

[number, optional] Trailing (i.e., highest order) elements with absolute value less than or equal to tol (default value is zero) are removed.

Returns

trimmed

[ndarray] 1-d array with trailing zeros removed. If the resulting series would be empty, a series containing a single zero is returned.

Raises

ValueError

If tol < 0

See also:

trimseq

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polyutils as pu
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,3,0,5,0,0))
array([0., 0., 3., 0., 5.])
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,1e-3,0,1e-5,0,0),1e-3) # item == tol is trimmed
array([0.])
>>> i = complex(0,1) # works for complex
>>> pu.trimcoef((3e-4,1e-3*(1-i),5e-4,2e-5*(1+i)), 1e-3)
array([0.0003+0.j , 0.001 -0.001j])
```

polynomial.laguerre.lagline(off, scl)
Laguerre series whose graph is a straight line.

Parameters

off, scl

[ scalars ] The specified line is given by off + scl*x.

Returns

y

[ndarray] This module’s representation of the Laguerre series for off + scl*x.

See also:

numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyline
numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebline
numpy.polynomial.legendre.legline
numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermline
numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermeline
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lagline, lagval
>>> lagval(0,lagline(3, 2))
3.0
>>> lagval(1,lagline(3, 2))
5.0
```

`polynomial.laguerre.lag2poly(c)`

Convert a Laguerre series to a polynomial.

Convert an array representing the coefficients of a Laguerre series, ordered from lowest degree to highest, to an array of the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest to highest degree.

Parameters

- `c`  
  [array_like] 1-D array containing the Laguerre series coefficients, ordered from lowest order term to highest.

Returns

- `pol`  
  [ndarray] 1-D array containing the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest order term to highest.

See also:

- `poly2lag`

Notes

The easy way to do conversions between polynomial basis sets is to use the convert method of a class instance.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import lag2poly
>>> lag2poly([23., -63., 58., -18.])
array([0., 1., 2., 3.])
```

`polynomial.laguerre.poly2lag(pol)`

Convert a polynomial to a Laguerre series.

Convert an array representing the coefficients of a polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest degree to highest, to an array of the coefficients of the equivalent Laguerre series, ordered from lowest to highest degree.

Parameters

- `pol`  
  [array_like] 1-D array containing the polynomial coefficients
Returns

\[ c \]

\[ \text{[ndarray]} \] 1-D array containing the coefficients of the equivalent Laguerre series.

See also:

\text{lag2poly}

Notes

The easy way to do conversions between polynomial basis sets is to use the convert method of a class instance.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial.laguerre import poly2lag
>>> poly2lag(np.arange(4))
array([ 23., -63., 58., -18.])
```

See also

\text{numpy.polynomial}

New in version 1.6.0.

Legendre Series (numpy.polynomial.legendre)

This module provides a number of objects (mostly functions) useful for dealing with Legendre series, including a \text{Legendre} class that encapsulates the usual arithmetic operations. (General information on how this module represents and works with such polynomials is in the docstring for its “parent” sub-package, \text{numpy.polynomial}).

Classes

\text{Legendre}(\text{coef}, \text{domain}, \text{window}) \quad \text{A Legendre series class.}

\text{class \ numpy.polynomial.legendre.Legendre(coef, domain=None, window=None)}

A Legendre series class.

The Legendre class provides the standard Python numerical methods ‘+’, ‘-’, ‘*’, ‘//’, ‘%’, ‘divmod’, ‘**’, and ‘()’ as well as the attributes and methods listed in the ABCPolyBase documentation.

Parameters

\text{coef}

[array_like] Legendre coefficients in order of increasing degree, i.e., (1, 2, 3) gives $1*P_0(x) + 2*P_1(x) + 3*P_2(x)$.

\text{domain}

[[2,) array_like, optional] Domain to use. The interval $[\text{domain}[0], \text{domain}[1]]$ is mapped to the interval $[\text{window}[0], \text{window}[1]]$ by shifting and scaling. The default value is [-1, 1].

4.22. Polynomials
window

[(2,) array_like, optional] Window, see domain for its use. The default value is [-1, 1].

New in version 1.6.0.

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method

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.__call__(arg)

Call self as a function.

method

classmethod polynomial.legendre.Legendre.basis(deg, domain=None, window=None)

Series basis polynomial of degree deg.

Returns the series representing the basis polynomial of degree deg.

New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

deg

[int] Degree of the basis polynomial for the series. Must be >= 0.

domain

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.
window

    [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

    [series] A series with the coefficient of the deg term set to one and all others zero.

method

classmethod polynomial.legendre.Legendre.cast (series, domain=None, window=None)

Convert series to series of this class.

The series is expected to be an instance of some polynomial series of one of the types supported by the numpy.polynomial module, but could be some other class that supports the convert method.

New in version 1.7.0.

Parameters

series

    [series] The series instance to be converted.

domain

    [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

window

    [[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be if the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

    [series] A series of the same kind as the calling class and equal to series when evaluated.

See also:

convert

    similar instance method

method

classmethod polynomial.legendre.Legendre.convert (domain=None, kind=None, window=None)

Convert series to a different kind and/or domain and/or window.

Parameters

4.22. Polynomials
domain

[array_like, optional] The domain of the converted series. If the value is None, the default domain of kind is used.

kind

[class, optional] The polynomial series type class to which the current instance should be converted. If kind is None, then the class of the current instance is used.

window

[array_like, optional] The window of the converted series. If the value is None, the default window of kind is used.

Returns

new_series

[series] The returned class can be of different type than the current instance and/or have a different domain and/or different window.

Notes

Conversion between domains and class types can result in numerically ill defined series.

method

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.copy()

Return a copy.

Returns

new_series

[series] Copy of self.

method

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.cutdeg(deg)

Truncate series to the given degree.

Reduce the degree of the series to deg by discarding the high order terms. If deg is greater than the current degree a copy of the current series is returned. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters

deg

[non-negative int] The series is reduced to degree deg by discarding the high order terms. The value of deg must be a non-negative integer.

Returns

new_series

[series] New instance of series with reduced degree.
method

```
polynomial.legendre.Legendre.degree()
```

The degree of the series.

New in version 1.5.0.

Returns

degree

[int] Degree of the series, one less than the number of coefficients.

method

```
polynomial.legendre.Legendrederiv(m=1)
```

Differentiate.

Return a series instance of that is the derivative of the current series.

Parameters

\( m \)

[non-negative int] Find the derivative of order \( m \).

Returns

\( \text{new\_series} \)

[series] A new series representing the derivative. The domain is the same as the domain of the differentiated series.

method

```
classmethod polynomial.legendre.Legendre.fit(x, y, deg, domain=None, rcond=None, full=False, w=None, window=None)
```

Least squares fit to data.

Return a series instance that is the least squares fit to the data \( y \) sampled at \( x \). The domain of the returned instance can be specified and this will often result in a superior fit with less chance of ill conditioning.

Parameters

\( x \)

[array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points \((x[i], y[i])\).

\( y \)

[array_like, shape (M,)] y-coordinates of the M sample points \((x[i], y[i])\).

\( \text{deg} \)

[int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If \( \text{deg} \) is a single integer all terms up to and including the \( \text{deg}' \)th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions >= 1.11.0 a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.

\( \text{domain} \)

[[None, [beg, end], []], optional] Domain to use for the returned series. If None, then a minimal domain that covers the points \( x \) is chosen. If [] the class domain is used. The
default value was the class domain in NumPy 1.4 and None in later versions. The [] option was added in numpy 1.5.0.

rcond

[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is len(x)*eps, where eps is the relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.

full

[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

w

[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None the contribution of each point 
\((x[i], y[i])\) to the fit is weighted by \(w[i]\). Ideally the weights are chosen so that the 
errors of the products \(w[i]*y[i]\) all have the same variance. The default value is None.

New in version 1.5.0.

window

[[[beg, end]], optional] Window to use for the returned series. The default value is the default class domain

New in version 1.6.0.

Returns

new_series

(series) A series that represents the least squares fit to the data and has the domain and window specified in the call. If the coefficients for the unscaled and unshifted basis polynomials are of interest, do new_series.convert().coef.

[resid, rank, sv, rcond]

[list] These values are only returned if full = True

resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit rank – the numerical rank of the scaled Vandermonde matrix sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix rcond – value of rcond.

For more details, see linalg.lstsq.

method

classmethod polynomial.legendre.Legendre.fromroots(roots, domain=[], window=None)

Return series instance that has the specified roots.

Returns a series representing the product \((x - r[0])*(x - r[1])*...*(x - r[n-1])\), where \(r\) is a list of roots.

Parameters

roots

[array_like] List of roots.
domain

[[], None, array_like, optional] Domain for the resulting series. If None the domain is the interval from the smallest root to the largest. If [] the domain is the class domain. The default is [].

window

[None, array_like, optional] Window for the returned series. If None the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

[series] Series with the specified roots.

method

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.has_samecoef(other)

Check if coefficients match.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the coef attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the coefficients are the same, False otherwise.

method

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.has_samedomain(other)

Check if domains match.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the domain attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the domains are the same, False otherwise.

method

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.has_sametype(other)

Check if types match.

New in version 1.7.0.
Parameters

other

[object] Class instance.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if other is same class as self

method

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.has_same_window (other)
Check if windows match.
New in version 1.6.0.

Parameters

other

[class instance] The other class must have the window attribute.

Returns

bool

[boolean] True if the windows are the same, False otherwise.

method

classmethod polynomial.legendre.Legendre.identity (domain=None, window=None)
Identity function.
If \( p \) is the returned series, then \( p(x) = x \) for all values of \( x \).

Parameters

domain

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the domain. If None is given then the class domain is used. The default is None.

window

[[None, array_like], optional] If given, the resulting array must be of the form [beg, end], where beg and end are the endpoints of the window. If None is given then the class window is used. The default is None.

Returns

new_series

[series] Series of representing the identity.
polynomial.legendre.Legendre.integ(m=1, k=[], lbnd=None)
Integrate.
Return a series instance that is the definite integral of the current series.

Parameters

m
[non-negative int] The number of integrations to perform.

k
[array_like] Integration constants. The first constant is applied to the first integration, the second to the second, and so on. The list of values must less than or equal to m in length and any missing values are set to zero.

lbnd
[Scalar] The lower bound of the definite integral.

Returns

new_series
[series] A new series representing the integral. The domain is the same as the domain of the integrated series.

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.linspace(n=100, domain=None)
Return x, y values at equally spaced points in domain.
Returns the x, y values at n linearly spaced points across the domain. Here y is the value of the polynomial at the points x. By default the domain is the same as that of the series instance. This method is intended mostly as a plotting aid.
New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters

n
[int, optional] Number of point pairs to return. The default value is 100.

domain
[[None, array_like], optional] If not None, the specified domain is used instead of that of the calling instance. It should be of the form [beg, end]. The default is None which case the class domain is used.

Returns

x, y
[ndarray] x is equal to linspace(self.domain[0], self.domain[1], n) and y is the series evaluated at element of x.
polynomial.legendre.Legendre.mapparms()

Return the mapping parameters.

The returned values define a linear map \( \text{off} + \text{scl} \times x \) that is applied to the input arguments before the series is evaluated. The map depends on the domain and window; if the current domain is equal to the window the resulting map is the identity. If the coefficients of the series instance are to be used by themselves outside this class, then the linear function must be substituted for the \( x \) in the standard representation of the base polynomials.

**Returns**

\( \text{off}, \text{scl} \)

[float or complex] The mapping function is defined by \( \text{off} + \text{scl} \times x \).

**Notes**

If the current domain is the interval \([l1, r1]\) and the window is \([l2, r2]\), then the linear mapping function \( L \) is defined by the equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
L(l1) &= l2 \\
L(r1) &= r2
\end{align*}
\]

method
d

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.roots()

Return the roots of the series polynomial.

Compute the roots for the series. Note that the accuracy of the roots decrease the further outside the domain they lie.

**Returns**

\( \text{roots} \)

[ndarray] Array containing the roots of the series.

method
d

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.trim(tol=0)

Remove trailing coefficients

Remove trailing coefficients until a coefficient is reached whose absolute value greater than \( tol \) or the beginning of the series is reached. If all the coefficients would be removed the series is set to \([0]\). A new series instance is returned with the new coefficients. The current instance remains unchanged.

**Parameters**

\( \text{tol} \)

[non-negative number.] All trailing coefficients less than \( tol \) will be removed.

**Returns**

\( \text{new\_series} \)

polynomial.legendre.Legendre.truncate(size)

Truncate series to length size.

Reduce the series to length size by discarding the high degree terms. The value of size must be a positive integer. This can be useful in least squares where the coefficients of the high degree terms may be very small.

Parameters

size

[positive int] The series is reduced to length size by discarding the high degree terms. The value of size must be a positive integer.

Returns

new_series


Constants

legdomain

legzero

legone

legx

polynomial.legendre.legdomain = array([-1, 1])

polynomial.legendre.legzero = array([0])

polynomial.legendre.legone = array([1])

polynomial.legendre.legx = array([0, 1])

Arithmetic

legadd(c1, c2) Add one Legendre series to another.

legsub(c1, c2) Subtract one Legendre series from another.

legmulx(c) Multiply a Legendre series by x.

legmul(c1, c2) Multiply one Legendre series by another.

legdiv(c1, c2) Divide one Legendre series by another.

legpow(c, pow[, maxpower]) Raise a Legendre series to a power.

legval(x, c[, tensor]) Evaluate a Legendre series at points x.

legval2d(x, y, c) Evaluate a 2-D Legendre series at points (x, y).

legval3d(x, y, z, c) Evaluate a 3-D Legendre series at points (x, y, z).

leggrid2d(x, y, c) Evaluate a 2-D Legendre series on the Cartesian product of x and y.

leggrid3d(x, y, z, c) Evaluate a 3-D Legendre series on the Cartesian product of x, y, and z.

polynomial.legendre.legadd(c1, c2) Add one Legendre series to another.
Returns the sum of two Legendre series \( c_1 + c_2 \). The arguments are sequences of coefficients ordered from lowest order term to highest, i.e., \([1,2,3]\) represents the series \( P_0 + 2P_1 + 3P_2 \).

**Parameters**

- \( c_1, c_2 \)
  - [array_like] 1-D arrays of Legendre series coefficients ordered from low to high.

**Returns**

- \( \text{out} \)
  - [ndarray] Array representing the Legendre series of their sum.

**See also:**

- legsub, legmulx, legmul, legdiv, legpow

**Notes**

Unlike multiplication, division, etc., the sum of two Legendre series is a Legendre series (without having to "reproject" the result onto the basis set) so addition, just like that of “standard” polynomials, is simply “component-wise.”

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import legendre as L
>>> c1 = (1,2,3)
>>> c2 = (3,2,1)
>>> L.legadd(c1,c2)
array([4., 4., 4.])
```

polynomial.legendre.legsub\((c1,c2)\)

Subtract one Legendre series from another.

Returns the difference of two Legendre series \( c_1 - c_2 \). The sequences of coefficients are from lowest order term to highest, i.e., \([1,2,3]\) represents the series \( P_0 + 2P_1 + 3P_2 \).

**Parameters**

- \( c_1, c_2 \)
  - [array_like] 1-D arrays of Legendre series coefficients ordered from low to high.

**Returns**

- \( \text{out} \)
  - [ndarray] Of Legendre series coefficients representing their difference.

**See also:**

- legadd, legmulx, legmul, legdiv, legpow
Notes

Unlike multiplication, division, etc., the difference of two Legendre series is a Legendre series (without having to “reproject” the result onto the basis set) so subtraction, just like that of “standard” polynomials, is simply “component-wise.”

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import legendre as L
>>> c1 = (1,2,3)
>>> c2 = (3,2,1)
>>> L.legsub(c1, c2)
array([-2., 0., 2.])
>>> L.legsub(c2, c1)  # -C.legsub(c1, c2)
array([ 2., 0., -2.])
```

`polynomial.legendre.legmulx(c)`

Multiply a Legendre series by x.

Multiply the Legendre series `c` by x, where x is the independent variable.

Parameters

- `c`
  - [array_like] 1-D array of Legendre series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

- `out`
  - [ndarray] Array representing the result of the multiplication.

See also:

`legadd`, `legmul`, `legmul`, `legdiv`, `legpow`

Notes

The multiplication uses the recursion relationship for Legendre polynomials in the form

\[ xP_i(x) = ((i + 1) * P_{i+1}(x) + i * P_{i-1}(x))/(2i + 1) \]

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import legendre as L
>>> L.legmulx([1, 2, 3])
array([0.66666667, 2.2, 1.33333333, 1.8])  # may vary
```

`polynomial.legendre.legmul(c1, c2)`

Multiply one Legendre series by another.

Returns the product of two Legendre series `c1 * c2`. The arguments are sequences of coefficients, from lowest order “term” to highest, e.g., [1,2,3] represents the series \( P_0 + 2P_1 + 3P_2 \).
Parameters

c1, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Legendre series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

out

[ndarray] Of Legendre series coefficients representing their product.

See also:

legadd, legsb, legmulx, legdiv, legpow

Notes

In general, the (polynomial) product of two C-series results in terms that are not in the Legendre polynomial basis set. Thus, to express the product as a Legendre series, it is necessary to “reproject” the product onto said basis set, which may produce “unintuitive” (but correct) results; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import legendre as L
>>> c1 = (1, 2, 3)
>>> c2 = (3, 2)
>>> L.legmul(c1, c2)  # multiplication requires "reprojection"
array([ 4.33333333, 10.4 , 11.66666667, 3.6 ])
```

.. _polynomial.legendre.legdiv:

polynomial.legendre.legdiv(c1, c2)

Divide one Legendre series by another.

Returns the quotient-with-remainder of two Legendre series c1 / c2. The arguments are sequences of coefficients from lowest order “term” to highest, e.g., [1,2,3] represents the series P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2.

Parameters

  c1, c2

[array_like] 1-D arrays of Legendre series coefficients ordered from low to high.

Returns

  quo, rem

[ndarrays] Of Legendre series coefficients representing the quotient and remainder.

See also:

legadd, legsb, legmulx, legmul, legpow
Notes

In general, the (polynomial) division of one Legendre series by another results in quotient and remainder terms that are not in the Legendre polynomial basis set. Thus, to express these results as a Legendre series, it is necessary to “reproject” the results onto the Legendre basis set, which may produce “unintuitive” (but correct) results; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import legendre as L
>>> c1 = (1,2,3)
>>> c2 = (3,2,1)
>>> L.legdiv(c1,c2) # quotient "intuitive," remainder not
(array([3.]), array([-8., -4.]))
>>> c2 = (0,1,2,3)
>>> L.legdiv(c2,c1) # neither "intuitive"
(array([-0.07407407, 1.66666667]), array([-1.03703704, -2.51851852])) # may vary
```

```
polynomial.legendre.legpow(c, pow, maxpower=16)
    Raise a Legendre series to a power.

    Parameters

    c
        [array_like] 1-D array of Legendre series coefficients ordered from low to high. i.e., [1,2,3] is the series \( P_0 + 2*P_1 + 3*P_2 \).

    pow
        [integer] Power to which the series will be raised

    maxpower
        [integer, optional] Maximum power allowed. This is mainly to limit growth of the series to unmanageable size. Default is 16

    Returns

    coef
        [ndarray] Legendre series of power.

    See also:

    legadd, legsub, legmulx, legmul, legdiv
```

```
polynomial.legendre.legval(x, c, tensor=True)
    Evaluate a Legendre series at points x.

    If c is of length \( n + 1 \), this function returns the value:

    \( p(x) = c_0 \ast L_0(x) + c_1 \ast L_1(x) + \ldots + c_n \ast L_n(x) \)

    The parameter x is converted to an array only if it is a tuple or a list, otherwise it is treated as a scalar. In either case, either x or its elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of c.
```

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If \( c \) is a 1-D array, then \( p(x) \) will have the same shape as \( x \). If \( c \) is multidimensional, then the shape of the result depends on the value of tensor. If tensor is true the shape will be \( c.shape[1:] + x.shape \). If tensor is false the shape will be \( c.shape[1:] \). Note that scalars have shape \((,)\).

Trailing zeros in the coefficients will be used in the evaluation, so they should be avoided if efficiency is a concern.

**Parameters**

\( x \)

[array_like, compatible object] If \( x \) is a list or tuple, it is converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and treated as a scalar. In either case, \( x \) or its elements must support addition and multiplication with with themselves and with the elements of \( c \).

\( c \)

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree \( n \) are contained in \( c[n] \). If \( c \) is multidimensional the remaining indices enumerate multiple polynomials. In the two dimensional case the coefficients may be thought of as stored in the columns of \( c \).

**tensor**

[boolean, optional] If True, the shape of the coefficient array is extended with ones on the right, one for each dimension of \( x \). Scalars have dimension 0 for this action. The result is that every column of coefficients in \( c \) is evaluated for every element of \( x \). If False, \( x \) is broadcast over the columns of \( c \) for the evaluation. This keyword is useful when \( c \) is multidimensional. The default value is True.

New in version 1.7.0.

**Returns**

\( \text{values} \)

[array_like] The shape of the return value is described above.

**See also:**

`legval2d, leggrid2d, legval3d, leggrid3d`

**Notes**

The evaluation uses Clenshaw recursion, aka synthetic division.

```
np.polynomial.legendre.legval2d(x, y, c)
```

Evaluate a 2-D Legendre series at points \((x, y)\).

This function returns the values:

\[
p(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \ast L_i(x) \ast L_j(y)
\]

The parameters \( x \) and \( y \) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either \( x \) and \( y \) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \( c \).

If \( c \) is a 1-D array a one is implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be \( c.shape[2:] + x.shape \).
Parameters

x, y

[array_like, compatible objects] The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points (x, y), where x and y must have the same shape. If x or y is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and if it isn’t an ndarray it is treated as a scalar.

c

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree i,j is contained in c[i, j]. If c has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional Legendre series at points formed from pairs of corresponding values from x and y.

See also:

legval, leggrid2d, legval3d, leggrid3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.legendre.legval3d(x, y, z, c)
Evaluate a 3-D Legendre series at points (x, y, z).

This function returns the values:

\[ p(x, y, z) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} \times L_i(x) \times L_j(y) \times L_k(z) \]

The parameters x, y, and z are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as scalars and they must have the same shape after conversion. In either case, either x, y, and z or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of c.

If c has fewer than 3 dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be c.shape[3:] + x.shape.

Parameters

x, y, z

[array_like, compatible object] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points (x, y, z), where x, y, and z must have the same shape. If any of x, y, or z is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and if it isn’t an ndarray it is treated as a scalar.

c

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree i,j,k is contained in c[i, j, k]. If c has dimension greater than 3 the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.
Returns

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the multidimensional polynomial on points formed with triples of corresponding values from \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\).

See also:

legval, legval2d, leggrid2d, leggrid3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.legendre.leggrid2d(x, y, c)

Evaluate a 2-D Legendre series on the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

This function returns the values:

\[
p(a, b) = \sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} \cdot L_i(a) \cdot L_j(b)
\]

where the points \((a, b)\) consist of all pairs formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\) and \(b\) from \(y\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension and \(y\) in the second.

The parameters \(x\) and \(y\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as a scalars. In either case, either \(x\) and \(y\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than two dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 2-D. The shape of the result will be \(c.shape[2:] + x.shape + y.shape\).

Parameters

\(x, y\)

[array_like, compatible objects] The two dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\). If \(x\) or \(y\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

\(c\)

[array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficient of the term of multi-degree \(i,j\) is contained in \(c[i,j]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

Returns

values

[ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional Chebyshev series at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

See also:

legval, legval2d, legval3d, leggrid3d
polynomial.legendre.leggrid3d(x, y, z, c)
Evaluate a 3-D Legendre series on the Cartesian product of x, y, and z.

This function returns the values:

\[ p(a, b, c) = \sum_{i,j,k} c_{i,j,k} \times L_i(a) \times L_j(b) \times L_k(c) \]

where the points \((a, b, c)\) consist of all triples formed by taking \(a\) from \(x\), \(b\) from \(y\), and \(c\) from \(z\). The resulting points form a grid with \(x\) in the first dimension, \(y\) in the second, and \(z\) in the third.

The parameters \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) are converted to arrays only if they are tuples or a lists, otherwise they are treated as scalars. In either case, either \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) or their elements must support multiplication and addition both with themselves and with the elements of \(c\).

If \(c\) has fewer than three dimensions, ones are implicitly appended to its shape to make it 3-D. The shape of the result will be \(c.shape[3:] + x.shape + y.shape + z.shape\).

**Parameters**

- **x, y, z**
  [array_like, compatible objects] The three dimensional series is evaluated at the points in the Cartesian product of \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\). If \(x\), \(y\), or \(z\) is a list or tuple, it is first converted to an ndarray, otherwise it is left unchanged and, if it isn’t an ndarray, it is treated as a scalar.

- **c**
  [array_like] Array of coefficients ordered so that the coefficients for terms of degree \(i,j\) are contained in \(c[i,j,:]\). If \(c\) has dimension greater than two the remaining indices enumerate multiple sets of coefficients.

**Returns**

- **values**
  [ndarray, compatible object] The values of the two dimensional polynomial at points in the Cartesian product of \(x\) and \(y\).

**See also:**

- `legval`, `legval2d`, `leggrid2d`, `legval3d`

**Notes**

New in version 1.7.0.
Calculus

.. function:: legder(c[, m, scl, axis])

   Differentiate a Legendre series.

   .. function:: legint(c[, m, k, lbnd, scl, axis])

      Integrate a Legendre series.

polynomial.legendre.legder(c[, m=1, scl=1, axis=0])

Differentiate a Legendre series.

Returns the Legendre series coefficients c differentiated m times along
axis. At each iteration the result is multiplied by scl (the scaling factor
is for use in a linear change of variable). The argument c is an array of
coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., [1,2,3] represents
the series 1*L_0 + 2*L_1 + 3*L_2 while [[1,2],[1,2]] represents
1*L_0(x)*L_0(y) + 1*L_1(x)*L_0(y) + 2*L_0(x)*L_1(y) + 2*L_1(x)*L_1(y) if axis=0
is x and axis=1 is y.

Parameters

- c
  [array_like] Array of Legendre series coefficients. If c is multidimensional
  the different axis correspond to different variables with the degree in each
  axis given by the corresponding index.

- m
  [int, optional] Number of derivatives taken, must be non-negative. (Default: 1)

- scl
  [scalar, optional] Each differentiation is multiplied by scl. The end result
  is multiplication by scl**m. This is for use in a linear change of variable.
  (Default: 1)

- axis
  [int, optional] Axis over which the derivative is taken. (Default: 0).

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

der

[ndarray] Legendre series of the derivative.

See also:

- legint

Notes

In general, the result of differentiating a Legendre series does not resemble
the same operation on a power series. Thus the result of this function
may be "unintuitive," albeit correct; see Examples section below.
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import legendre as L
>>> c = (1,2,3,4)
>>> L.legder(c)
array([[ 6.,  9., 20.]]
>>> L.legder(c, 3)
array([60.])
>>> L.legder(c, scl=-1)
array([-6., -9., -20.])
>>> L.legder(c, 2,-1)
array([-9.,  60.])
```

```
polynomial.legendre.legint(c, m=1, k=[], lbnd=0, scl=1, axis=0)
```

Integrate a Legendre series.

Returns the Legendre series coefficients $c$ integrated $m$ times from $lbnd$ along $axis$. At each iteration the resulting series is multiplied by $scl$ and an integration constant, $k$, is added. The scaling factor is for use in a linear change of variable. ("Buyer beware": note that, depending on what one is doing, one may want $scl$ to be the reciprocal of what one might expect; for more information, see the Notes section below.) The argument $c$ is an array of coefficients from low to high degree along each axis, e.g., [1,2,3] represents the series $L_0 + 2*L_1 + 3*L_2$ while [1,2,1.2] represents $1*L_0(x) * L_0(y) + 1*L_1(x) * L_0(y) + 2*L_0(x) * L_1(y) + 2*L_1(x) * L_1(y)$ if $axis=0$ is $x$ and $axis=1$ is $y$.

Parameters

$c$  
[array_like] Array of Legendre series coefficients. If $c$ is multidimensional the different axis correspond to different variables with the degree in each axis given by the corresponding index.

$m$  
[int, optional] Order of integration, must be positive. (Default: 1)

$k$  
[[], list, scalar], optional] Integration constant(s). The value of the first integral at $lbnd$ is the first value in the list, the value of the second integral at $lbnd$ is the second value, etc. If $k == []$ (the default), all constants are set to zero. If $m == 1$, a single scalar can be given instead of a list.

$lbnd$  
[scalar, optional] The lower bound of the integral. (Default: 0)

$scl$  
[scalar, optional] Following each integration the result is multiplied by $scl$ before the integration constant is added. (Default: 1)

(axis)  
[int, optional] Axis over which the integral is taken. (Default: 0).

New in version 1.7.0.

Returns

$S$  
[ndarray] Legendre series coefficient array of the integral.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

Raises

ValueError

If \( m < 0 \), \( \text{len(k)} > m \), \( \text{np.ndim(lbnd)} != 0 \), or \( \text{np.ndim(scl)} != 0 \).

See also:

\texttt{legder}

Notes

Note that the result of each integration is \textit{multiplied} by \texttt{scl}. Why is this important to note? Say one is making a linear change of variable \( u = ax + b \) in an integral relative to \( x \). Then \( dx = du/a \), so one will need to set \texttt{scl} equal to \( 1/a \) - perhaps not what one would have first thought.

Also note that, in general, the result of integrating a C-series needs to be “reprojected” onto the C-series basis set. Thus, typically, the result of this function is “unintuitive,” albeit correct; see Examples section below.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import leg
>>> c = (1,2,3)
>>> L.legint(c)
array([ 0.33333333, 0.4 , 0.66666667, 0.6   ]) # may vary
>>> L.legint(c, 3)
array([ 1.66666667e-02, -1.78571429e-02, 4.76190476e-02, # may vary
       -1.73472348e-18, 1.90476190e-02, 9.52380952e-03])
>>> L.legint(c, k=3)
array([ 3.33333333, 0.4 , 0.66666667, 0.6   ]) # may vary
>>> L.legint(c, lbnd=-2)
array([ 7.33333333, 0.4 , 0.66666667, 0.6   ]) # may vary
>>> L.legint(c, scl=2)
array([ 0.66666667, 0.8 , 1.33333333, 1.2   ]) # may vary
```

Misc Functions

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\texttt{polynomial.legendre.legfromroots(roots)}

Generate a Legendre series with given roots.
The function returns the coefficients of the polynomial

\[ p(x) = (x - r_0) * (x - r_1) * ... * (x - r_n), \]

in Legendre form, where the \( r_n \) are the roots specified in `roots`. If a zero has multiplicity \( n \), then it must appear in `roots` \( n \) times. For instance, if 2 is a root of multiplicity three and 3 is a root of multiplicity 2, then `roots` looks something like \([2, 2, 2, 3, 3]\). The roots can appear in any order.

If the returned coefficients are \( c \), then

\[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 * L_1(x) + ... + c_n * L_n(x) \]

The coefficient of the last term is not generally 1 for monic polynomials in Legendre form.

**Parameters**

- **roots**
  - [array_like] Sequence containing the roots.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray] 1-D array of coefficients. If all roots are real then `out` is a real array, if some of the roots are complex, then `out` is complex even if all the coefficients in the result are real (see Examples below).

**See also:**

- `numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermfromroots`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermefromroots`

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.polynomial.legendre as L
>>> L.legfromroots((-1,0,1)) # x^3 - x relative to the standard basis
array([ 0. , -0.4, 0. , 0.4])
>>> j = complex(0,1)
>>> L.legfromroots((-j,j)) # x^2 + 1 relative to the standard basis
array([ 1.33333333+0.j, 0.00000000+0.j, 0.66666667+0.j]) # may vary
```

polynomial.legendre.legroots(c)

Compute the roots of a Legendre series.

Return the roots (a.k.a. “zeros”) of the polynomial

\[ p(x) = \sum_i c[i] * L_i(x). \]

**Parameters**
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

\[ c \]

[1-D array_like] 1-D array of coefficients.

**Returns**

\[ out \]

[ndarray] Array of the roots of the series. If all the roots are real, then \( out \) is also real, otherwise it is complex.

**See also:**

- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyroots}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebroots}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagroots}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermroots}
- \texttt{numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermeroots}

**Notes**

The root estimates are obtained as the eigenvalues of the companion matrix. Roots far from the origin of the complex plane may have large errors due to the numerical instability of the series for such values. Roots with multiplicity greater than 1 will also show larger errors as the value of the series near such points is relatively insensitive to errors in the roots. Isolated roots near the origin can be improved by a few iterations of Newton’s method.

The Legendre series basis polynomials aren’t powers of \( x \) so the results of this function may seem unintuitive.

**Examples**

```python
>>> import numpy.polynomial.legendre as leg
>>> leg.legroots((1, 2, 3, 4)) # 4L_3 + 3L_2 + 2L_1 + L_0, all real roots
array([-0.85099543, -0.11407192, 0.51506735]) # may vary
```

\texttt{polynomial.legendre.legvander(x, deg)}

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degree.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degree \( deg \) and sample points \( x \). The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[ V[\ldots, i] = L_i(x) \]

where \( 0 \leq i \leq deg \). The leading indices of \( V \) index the elements of \( x \) and the last index is the degree of the Legendre polynomial.

If \( c \) is a 1-D array of coefficients of length \( n + 1 \) and \( V \) is the array \( V = \text{legvander}(x, n) \), then \( \text{np.dot}(V, c) \) and \( \text{legval}(x, c) \) are the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of Legendre series of the same degree and sample points.

**Parameters**

\[ x \]

[array_like] Array of points. The dtype is converted to float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. If \( x \) is scalar it is converted to a 1-D array.
deg
[int] Degree of the resulting matrix.

Returns
dander

[ndarray] The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix. The shape of the returned matrix is \texttt{x.shape + (deg + 1,)}, where the last index is the degree of the corresponding Legendre polynomial. The dtype will be the same as the converted \texttt{x}.

\texttt{polynomial.legendre.legvander2d(x, y, deg)}

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees \texttt{deg} and sample points (\texttt{x}, \texttt{y}). The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[
V[\ldots, (deg[1] + 1) \times i + j] = L_i(x) \times L_j(y),
\]

where \(0 <= i <= deg[0]\) and \(0 <= j <= deg[1]\). The leading indices of \(V\) index the points (\texttt{x}, \texttt{y}) and the last index encodes the degrees of the Legendre polynomials.

If \(V = \text{legvander2d}(x, y, [xdeg, ydeg])\), then the columns of \(V\) correspond to the elements of a 2-D coefficient array \(c\) of shape (\texttt{xdeg + 1, ydeg + 1}) in the order

\[
c_{00}, c_{01}, c_{02}, \ldots, c_{10}, c_{11}, c_{12}, \ldots
\]

and \texttt{np.dot(V, c.flat)} and \texttt{legval2d(x, y, c)} will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 2-D Legendre series of the same degrees and sample points.

Parameters

\texttt{x, y}

[array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

deg

[list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form \([x_{deg}, y_{deg}]\).

Returns
dander2d

[ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is \texttt{x.shape + (order,)}, where \(order = (deg[0] + 1) \times (deg[1] + 1)\). The dtype will be the same as the converted \texttt{x} and \texttt{y}.

See also:

\texttt{legvander, legvander3d, legval2d, legval3d}
Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.legendre.legvander3d(x, y, z, deg)

Pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of given degrees.

Returns the pseudo-Vandermonde matrix of degrees deg and sample points (x, y, z). If l, m, n are the given degrees in x, y, z, then The pseudo-Vandermonde matrix is defined by

\[ V[\ldots, (m + 1)(n + 1)i + (n + 1)j + k] = L_i(x) * L_j(y) * L_k(z), \]

where \(0 \leq i \leq l\), \(0 \leq j \leq m\), and \(0 \leq j \leq n\). The leading indices of \(V\) index the points \((x, y, z)\) and the last index encodes the degrees of the Legendre polynomials.

If \(V = \text{legvander3d}(x, y, z, [xdeg, ydeg, zdeg])\), then the columns of \(V\) correspond to the elements of a 3-D coefficient array \(c\) of shape \((xdeg + 1, ydeg + 1, zdeg + 1)\) in the order

\[ c_{000}, c_{001}, c_{002}, \ldots, c_{010}, c_{011}, c_{012}, \ldots \]

and np.dot(\(V, c\text{.flat}\)) and legval3d(x, y, z, c) will be the same up to roundoff. This equivalence is useful both for least squares fitting and for the evaluation of a large number of 3-D Legendre series of the same degrees and sample points.

Parameters

- **x, y, z**
  - [array_like] Arrays of point coordinates, all of the same shape. The dtypes will be converted to either float64 or complex128 depending on whether any of the elements are complex. Scalars are converted to 1-D arrays.

- **deg**
  - [list of ints] List of maximum degrees of the form \([x\_deg, y\_deg, z\_deg]\).

Returns

- **vander3d**
  - [ndarray] The shape of the returned matrix is \(x\text{.shape} + (order,)\), where \(order = (deg[0] + 1) * (deg[1] + 1) * (deg[2] + 1)\). The dtype will be the same as the converted \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\).

See also:

- legvander, legvander3d, legval2d, legval3d

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.legendre.leggauss(deg)

Gauss-Legendre quadrature.

Computes the sample points and weights for Gauss-Legendre quadrature. These sample points and weights will correctly integrate polynomials of degree \(2 * deg - 1\) or less over the interval \([-1, 1]\) with the weight function \(f(x) = 1\).
Parameters

deg
    [int] Number of sample points and weights. It must be >= 1.

Returns

x
    [ndarray] 1-D ndarray containing the sample points.

y
    [ndarray] 1-D ndarray containing the weights.

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

The results have only been tested up to degree 100, higher degrees may be problematic. The weights are determined by using the fact that

\[ w_k = \frac{c}{(L'_n(x_k) \ast L_{n-1}(x_k))} \]

where \( c \) is a constant independent of \( k \) and \( x_k \) is the k'th root of \( L_n \), and then scaling the results to get the right value when integrating 1.

```
import numpy as np

np.polynomial.legendre.legweight(x)
```

Weight function of the Legendre polynomials.

The weight function is 1 and the interval of integration is \([-1, 1]\). The Legendre polynomials are orthogonal, but not normalized, with respect to this weight function.

Parameters

\( x \)
    [array_like] Values at which the weight function will be computed.

Returns

\( w \)
    [ndarray] The weight function at \( x \).

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

```
import numpy as np

np.polynomial.legendre.legcompanion(c)
```

Return the scaled companion matrix of \( c \).

The basis polynomials are scaled so that the companion matrix is symmetric when \( c \) is an Legendre basis polynomial. This provides better eigenvalue estimates than the unscaled case and for basis polynomials the eigenvalues are guaranteed to be real if `numpy.linalg.eigvalsh` is used to obtain them.

Parameters

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c

[array_like] 1-D array of Legendre series coefficients ordered from low to high degree.

Returns

mat

[ndarray] Scaled companion matrix of dimensions (deg, deg).

Notes

New in version 1.7.0.

polynomial.legendre.legfit(x, y, deg, rcond=None, full=False, w=None)

Least squares fit of Legendre series to data.

Return the coefficients of a Legendre series of degree deg that is the least squares fit to the data values y given at points x. If y is 1-D the returned coefficients will also be 1-D. If y is 2-D multiple fits are done, one for each column of y, and the resulting coefficients are stored in the corresponding columns of a 2-D return. The fitted polynomial(s) are in the form

\[ p(x) = c_0 + c_1 \times L_1(x) + \ldots + c_n \times L_n(x), \]

where \( n \) is \( deg \).

Parameters

x

[array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points \((x[i], y[i])\).

y

[array_like, shape (M,)] y-coordinates of the sample points. Several data sets of sample points sharing the same x-coordinates can be fitted at once by passing in a 2D-array that contains one dataset per column.

deg

[int or 1-D array_like] Degree(s) of the fitting polynomials. If \( deg \) is a single integer all terms up to and including the \( deg \)'th term are included in the fit. For NumPy versions \( \geq 1.11.0 \) a list of integers specifying the degrees of the terms to include may be used instead.

rcond

[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is len(x)*eps, where eps is the relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.

full

[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

w

[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights. If not None, the contribution of each point \((x[i], y[i])\) to the fit is weighted by \(w[i]\). Ideally the weights are chosen so that the errors of the products \(w[i] \times y[i]\) all have the same variance. The default value is None.
New in version 1.5.0.

Returns

**coef**

[ndarray, shape (M,) or (M, K)] Legendre coefficients ordered from low to high. If y was 2-D, the coefficients for the data in column k of y are in column k. If deg is specified as a list, coefficients for terms not included in the fit are set equal to zero in the returned coef.

[residuals, rank, singular_values, rcond]

[list] These values are only returned if full = True

resid – sum of squared residuals of the least squares fit rank – the numerical rank of the scaled Vandermonde matrix sv – singular values of the scaled Vandermonde matrix rcond – value of rcond.

For more details, see `numpy.linalg.lstsq`.

Warns

**RankWarning**

The rank of the coefficient matrix in the least-squares fit is deficient. The warning is only raised if full = False. The warnings can be turned off by

```python
>>> import warnings
>>> warnings.simplefilter('ignore', np.RankWarning)
```

See also:

- `numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyfit`
- `numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebfit`
- `numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagfit`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermfit`
- `numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermefit`
- `legval`
  
  Evaluates a Legendre series.

- `legvander`
  
  Vandermonde matrix of Legendre series.

- `legweight`
  
  Legendre weight function (= 1).

- `numpy.linalg.lstsq`
  
  Computes a least-squares fit from the matrix.

- `scipy.interpolate.UnivariateSpline`
  
  Computes spline fits.
Notes

The solution is the coefficients of the Legendre series \( p \) that minimizes the sum of the weighted squared errors

\[
E = \sum_j w_j^2 \times |y_j - p(x_j)|^2,
\]

where \( w_j \) are the weights. This problem is solved by setting up as the (typically) overdetermined matrix equation

\[
V(x) \times c = w \times y,
\]

where \( V \) is the weighted pseudo Vandermonde matrix of \( x \), \( c \) are the coefficients to be solved for, \( w \) are the weights, and \( y \) are the observed values. This equation is then solved using the singular value decomposition of \( V \).

If some of the singular values of \( V \) are so small that they are neglected, then a `RankWarning` will be issued. This means that the coefficient values may be poorly determined. Using a lower order fit will usually get rid of the warning. The `rcond` parameter can also be set to a value smaller than its default, but the resulting fit may be spurious and have large contributions from roundoff error.

Fits using Legendre series are usually better conditioned than fits using power series, but much can depend on the distribution of the sample points and the smoothness of the data. If the quality of the fit is inadequate splines may be a good alternative.

References

[1]

`polynomial.legendre.legtrim(c, tol=0)`  
Remove “small” “trailing” coefficients from a polynomial.  
“Small” means “small in absolute value” and is controlled by the parameter `tol`; “trailing” means highest order coefficient(s), e.g., in \([0, 1, 1, 0, 0]\) (which represents \(0 + x + x^2 + 0\times x^3 + 0\times x^4\)) both the 3-rd and 4-th order coefficients would be “trimmed.”

Parameters

\(c\)

[array_like] 1-d array of coefficients, ordered from lowest order to highest.

\(tol\)

[number, optional] Trailing (i.e., highest order) elements with absolute value less than or equal to `tol` (default value is zero) are removed.

Returns

\(trimmed\)

[ndarray] 1-d array with trailing zeros removed. If the resulting series would be empty, a series containing a single zero is returned.

Raises

ValueError

If `tol < 0`

See also:
trimseq

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polyutils as pu
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,3,0,5,0,0))
array([0., 3., 0., 5.])
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,1e-3,0,1e-5,0,0),1e-3)  # item == tol is trimmed
array([0.])
>>> i = complex(0,1)  # works for complex
>>> pu.trimcoef((3e-4,1e-3*(1-i),5e-4,2e-5*(1+i)),1e-3)
array([0.0003+0.j , 0.001-0.001j])
```

polynomial.legendre.legline(off, scl)
Legendre series whose graph is a straight line.

Parameters

off, scl
[scalars] The specified line is given by off + scl*x.

Returns

y
[narray] This module's representation of the Legendre series for off + scl*x.

See also:

numpy.polynomial.polynomial.polyline
numpy.polynomial.chebyshev.chebline
numpy.polynomial.laguerre.lagline
numpy.polynomial.hermite.hermline
numpy.polynomial.hermite_e.hermeline

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy.polynomial.legendre as L
>>> L.legline(3,2)
array([3, 2])
>>> L.legval(-3, L.legline(3,2))  # should be -3
-3.0
```

polynomial.legendre.leg2poly(c)
Convert a Legendre series to a polynomial.

Convert an array representing the coefficients of a Legendre series, ordered from lowest degree to highest, to an array of the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest to highest degree.

Parameters
c

[array_like] 1-D array containing the Legendre series coefficients, ordered from lowest order term to highest.

Returns

pol

[ndarray] 1-D array containing the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest order term to highest.

See also:

poly2leg

Notes

The easy way to do conversions between polynomial basis sets is to use the convert method of a class instance.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy import polynomial as P
>>> c = P.Legendre(range(4))
>>> c
Legendre([0., 1., 2., 3.], domain=[-1, 1], window=[-1, 1])
>>> p = c.convert(kind=P.Polynomial)
>>> p
Polynomial([-1. , -3.5, 3. , 7.5], domain=[-1., 1.], window=[-1., 1.])
>>> P.leg2poly(range(4))
array([-1. , -3.5, 3. , 7.5])
```

c

[array_like] 1-D array containing the Legendre series coefficients, ordered from lowest order term to highest.

Returns

pol

[ndarray] 1-D array containing the coefficients of the equivalent polynomial (relative to the “standard” basis) ordered from lowest order term to highest.

See also:

leg2poly
Notes

The easy way to do conversions between polynomial basis sets is to use the convert method of a class instance.

Examples

```
>>> from numpy import polynomial as P
>>> p = P.Polynomial(np.arange(4))
>>> p
Polynomial([0., 1., 2., 3.], domain=[-1, 1], window=[-1, 1])
>>> c = P.Legendre(P.legendre.poly2leg(p.coef))
>>> c
Legendre([ 1. , 3.25, 1. , 0.75], domain=[-1, 1], window=[-1, 1])
```

See also

numpy.polynomial

Polyutils

Utility classes and functions for the polynomial modules.

This module provides: error and warning objects; a polynomial base class; and some routines used in both the polynomial and chebyshev modules.

Warning objects

```
RankWarning
Issued by chebfit when the design matrix is rank deficient.
```

exception polynomial.polyutils.RankWarning

Issued by chebfit when the design matrix is rank deficient.

Functions

```
polynomial.polyutils.as_series (alist, trim=True)
Return argument as a list of 1-d arrays.

trimseq(seq)
Remove small Poly series coefficients.

trimcoef(c, tol)
Remove "small" "trailing" coefficients from a polynomial.

getdomain(x)
Return a domain suitable for given abscissae.

mapdomain(x, old, new)
Apply linear map to input points.

map parms(old, new)
Linear map parameters between domains.
```

polynomial.polyutils.as_series (alist, trim=True)
Return argument as a list of 1-d arrays.

The returned list contains array(s) of dtype double, complex double, or object. A 1-d argument of shape (N,) is parsed into N arrays of size one; a 2-d argument of shape (M, N) is parsed into M arrays of size N (i.e., is "parsed by row"); and a higher dimensional array raises a Value Error if it is not first reshaped into either a 1-d or 2-d array.

Parameters

alist

[array_like] A 1- or 2-d array_like
**polynomial.polyutils.trimseq(seq)**

Remove small Poly series coefficients.

**Parameters**

seq

[sequence] Sequence of Poly series coefficients. This routine fails for empty sequences.

**Returns**

series

[sequence] Subsequence with trailing zeros removed. If the resulting sequence would be empty, return the first element. The returned sequence may or may not be a view.
**Notes**

Do not lose the type info if the sequence contains unknown objects.

```python
polylib.polyutils.trimcoef(c, tol=0)
```

Remove “small” “trailing” coefficients from a polynomial.

“Small” means “small in absolute value” and is controlled by the parameter `tol`; “trailing” means highest order coefficient(s), e.g., in `[0, 1, 1, 0, 0]` (which represents `0 + x + x**2 + 0*x**3 + 0*x**4`) both the 3-rd and 4-th order coefficients would be “trimmed.”

**Parameters**

- `c`
  - `[array_like]` 1-d array of coefficients, ordered from lowest order to highest.

- `tol`
  - `[number, optional]` Trailing (i.e., highest order) elements with absolute value less than or equal to `tol` (default value is zero) are removed.

**Returns**

- `trimmed`
  - `[ndarray]` 1-d array with trailing zeros removed. If the resulting series would be empty, a series containing a single zero is returned.

**Raises**

- `ValueError`
  - If `tol < 0`

**See also:**

- `trimseq`

**Examples**

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polyutils as pu
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,3,0,5,0,0))
array([0., 0., 3., 0., 5.])
>>> pu.trimcoef((0,0,1e-3,0,1e-5,0,0),1e-3)  # item == tol is trimmed
array([0.])
>>> i = complex(0,1)  # works for complex
>>> pu.trimcoef((3e-4,1e-3*(1-i),5e-4,2e-5*(1+i)), 1e-3)
array([0.0003+0.j, 0.001 -0.001j])
```

```python
polylib.polyutils.getdomain(x)
```

Return a domain suitable for given abscissae.

Find a domain suitable for a polynomial or Chebyshev series defined at the values supplied.

**Parameters**
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polyutils as pu
>>> points = np.arange(4)**2 - 5; points
array([-5, -4, -1, 4])
>>> pu.getdomain(points)
array([-5., 4.])
>>> c = np.exp(complex(0,1)*np.pi*np.arange(12)/6) # unit circle
>>> pu.getdomain(c)
array([-1.-1.j, 1.+1.j])
```

The linear map \( \text{offset} + \text{scale} \times x \) that maps the domain \( \text{old} \) to the domain \( \text{new} \) is applied to the points \( x \).

**Parameters**

- \( x \): [array_like] Points to be mapped. If \( x \) is a subtype of ndarray the subtype will be preserved.

- \( \text{old, new} \): [array_like] The two domains that determine the map. Each must (successfully) convert to 1-d arrays containing precisely two values.

**Returns**

- \( x_{\text{out}} \): [ndarray] Array of points of the same shape as \( x \), after application of the linear map between the two domains.

See also:

- getdomain, mapparms
Notes

Effectively, this implements:

\[ x_{\text{out}} = new[0] + m(x - old[0]) \]

where

\[ m = \frac{new[1] - new[0]}{old[1] - old[0]} \]

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polyutils as pu
>>> old_domain = (-1,1)
>>> new_domain = (0,2*np.pi)
>>> x = np.linspace(-1,1.6); x
array([-1. , -0.6, -0.2,  0.2,  0.6,  1. ])
>>> x_out = pu.mapdomain(x, old_domain, new_domain); x_out
array([ 0. ,  1.25663706,  2.51327412,  3.76991118,  5.02654825, # may vary
       6.28318531])
>>> x - pu.mapdomain(x_out, new_domain, old_domain)
array([0., 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.])
```

Also works for complex numbers (and thus can be used to map any line in the complex plane to any other line therein).

```python
>>> i = complex(0,1)
>>> old = (-i - i, 1 + i)
>>> new = (-i + i, 1 - i)
>>> z = np.linspace(old[0], old[1], 6); z
array([-1. -1.j , -0.6-0.6j, -0.2-0.2j,  0.2+0.2j,  0.6+0.6j,  1. +1.j ])  
>>> new_z = pu.mapdomain(z, old, new); new_z
array([-1.0+1.j , -0.6+0.6j, -0.2+0.2j,  0.2-0.2j,  0.6-0.6j,  1.0-1.j ])  # may vary
```

`polyutils.mapparms(old, new)`  
Linear map parameters between domains.

Return the parameters of the linear map \( offset + scale*x \) that maps \( old \) to \( new \) such that \( old[i] \rightarrow new[i], i = 0, 1 \).

Parameters

old, new

[array_like] Domains. Each domain must (successfully) convert to a 1-d array containing precisely two values.

Returns

offset, scale

[scalars] The map \( L(x) = offset + scale*x \) maps the first domain to the second.

See also:

g randomain, mapdomain

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Notes

Also works for complex numbers, and thus can be used to calculate the parameters required to map any line in the complex plane to any other line therein.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.polynomial import polyutils as pu
>>> pu.mapparms((-1,j), (-1,j))
(0.0, 1.0)
>>> pu.mapparms((1,-1), (-1,1))
(-0.0, -1.0)
>>> i = complex(0,j)
>>> pu.mapparms((-i,-1), (1,i))
((1+1j), (1-0j))
```

4.22.3 Documentation for Legacy Polynomials

Poly1d

Basics

- `poly1d(c_or_r[, r, variable])` A one-dimensional polynomial class.
- `polyval(p, x)` Evaluate a polynomial at specific values.
- `poly(seq_of_zeros)` Find the coefficients of a polynomial with the given sequence of roots.
- `roots(p)` Return the roots of a polynomial with coefficients given in p.

```python
class numpy.poly1d(c_or_r, r=False, variable=None)
```

A one-dimensional polynomial class.

Note: This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in `numpy.polynomial` is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the transition guide.

A convenience class, used to encapsulate “natural” operations on polynomials so that said operations may take on their customary form in code (see Examples).

Parameters

- `c_or_r` [array_like] The polynomial’s coefficients, in decreasing powers, or if the value of the second parameter is True, the polynomial’s roots (values where the polynomial evaluates to 0). For example, `poly1d([[1, 2], 3])` returns an object that represents \( x^2 + 2x + 3 \), whereas `poly1d([[1, 2], 3], True)` returns one that represents \( (x-1)(x-2)(x-3) = x^3 - 6x^2 + 11x - 6 \).

- `r` [bool, optional] If True, `c_or_r` specifies the polynomial’s roots; the default is False.

- `variable`
[str, optional] Changes the variable used when printing $p$ from $x$ to `variable` (see Examples).

### Examples

Construct the polynomial $x^2 + 2x + 3$:

```python
>>> p = np.poly1d([1, 2, 3])
>>> print(np.poly1d(p))
2
1 x + 2 x + 3
```

Evaluate the polynomial at $x = 0.5$:

```python
>>> p(0.5)
4.25
```

Find the roots:

```python
>>> p.r
array([-1.+1.41421356j, -1.-1.41421356j])
>>> p(p.r)
array([-4.44089210e-16+0.j, -4.44089210e-16+0.j]) # may vary
```

These numbers in the previous line represent (0, 0) to machine precision

Show the coefficients:

```python
>>> p.c
array([1, 2, 3])
```

Display the order (the leading zero-coefficients are removed):

```python
>>> p.order
2
```

Show the coefficient of the k-th power in the polynomial (which is equivalent to $p.c[-(i+1)]$):

```python
>>> p[1]
2
```

Polynomials can be added, subtracted, multiplied, and divided (returns quotient and remainder):

```python
>>> p * p
poly1d([1, 4, 10, 12, 9])
```

```python
>>> (p**3 + 4) / p
(poly1d([1., 4., 10., 12., 9.]), poly1d([4.]))
```

`asarray(p)` gives the coefficient array, so polynomials can be used in all functions that accept arrays:

```python
>>> p**2 # square of polynomial
poly1d([1, 4, 10, 12, 9])
```

```python
>>> np.square(p) # square of individual coefficients
array([1, 4, 9])
```

The variable used in the string representation of $p$ can be modified, using the `variable` parameter:
Construct a polynomial from its roots:

```
>>> np.poly1d([1, 2], True)
poly1d([ 1., -3., 2.])
```

This is the same polynomial as obtained by:

```
>>> np.poly1d([1, -1]) * np.poly1d([1, -2])
poly1d([ 1, -3, 2])
```

**Attributes**

- `c`  
The polynomial coefficients
- `coef`  
The polynomial coefficients
- `coefficients`  
The polynomial coefficients
- `coeffs`  
The polynomial coefficients
- `o`  
The order or degree of the polynomial
- `order`  
The order or degree of the polynomial
- `r`  
The roots of the polynomial, where self(x) == 0
- `roots`  
The roots of the polynomial, where self(x) == 0
- `variable`  
The name of the polynomial variable
### Methods

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<td>deriv([m])</td>
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<tr>
<td>integ([m, k])</td>
<td>Return an antiderivative (indefinite integral) of this polynomial.</td>
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**Method**

```python
def __call__(self, val):
    '''Call self as a function.'''
```

**Method**

```python
def deriv(self, m=1):
    '''Return a derivative of this polynomial.

    Refer to polyder for full documentation.

    See also:
    polyder
    polyint
    numpy.polyval

    equivalent function
```

**Method**

```python
def integ(self, m=1, k=0):
    '''Return an antiderivative (indefinite integral) of this polynomial.

    Refer to polyint for full documentation.

    See also:
    polyder
    polyint
    numpy.polyval

    equivalent function
```

**numpy.polyval** *(p, x)*

Evaluate a polynomial at specific values.

---

**Note:** This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in `numpy.polynomial` is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the `transition guide`.

If `p` is of length N, this function returns the value:

\[ p[0]*x**(N-1) + p[1]*x**(N-2) + \ldots + p[N-2]*x + p[N-1] \]

If `x` is a sequence, then `p(x)` is returned for each element of `x`. If `x` is another polynomial then the composite polynomial `p(x(t))` is returned.

**Parameters**

- `p`
  - `[array_like or poly1d object]` 1D array of polynomial coefficients (including coefficients equal to zero) from highest degree to the constant term, or an instance of `poly1d`.  

x

[array_like or poly1d object] A number, an array of numbers, or an instance of poly1d, at
which to evaluate p.

Returns

values

[ndarray or poly1d] If x is a poly1d instance, the result is the composition of the two polyno-
mials, i.e., x is “substituted” in p and the simplified result is returned. In addition, the type of
x - array_like or poly1d - governs the type of the output: x array_like => values array_like, x
a poly1d object => values is also.

See also:

poly1d

A polynomial class.

Notes

Horner’s scheme [1] is used to evaluate the polynomial. Even so, for polynomials of high degree the values may be
inaccurate due to rounding errors. Use carefully.

If x is a subtype of ndarray the return value will be of the same type.

References

[1]

Examples

>>> np.polyval([3,0,1], 5)  # 3 * 5**2 + 0 * 5**1 + 1
76
>>> np.polyval([3,0,1], np.poly1d(5))
poly1d([76])
>>> np.polyval(np.poly1d([3,0,1]), 5)
76
>>> np.polyval(np.poly1d([3,0,1]), np.poly1d(5))
poly1d([76])

numpy.poly(seq_of_zeros)

Find the coefficients of a polynomial with the given sequence of roots.

Note: This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in numpy.
polynomial is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the transition guide.

Returns the coefficients of the polynomial whose leading coefficient is one for the given sequence of zeros (multiple
roots must be included in the sequence as many times as their multiplicity; see Examples). A square matrix (or
array, which will be treated as a matrix) can also be given, in which case the coefficients of the characteristic
polynomial of the matrix are returned.
Parameters

seq_of_zeros

[array_like, shape (N,) or (N, N)] A sequence of polynomial roots, or a square array or matrix object.

Returns

c

[ndarray] 1D array of polynomial coefficients from highest to lowest degree:

```
c[0] * x**(N) + c[1] * x**(N-1) + ... + c[N-1] * x + c[N]
```

where c[0] always equals 1.

Raises

ValueError

If input is the wrong shape (the input must be a 1-D or square 2-D array).

See also:

polyval
Compute polynomial values.

roots
Return the roots of a polynomial.

polyfit
Least squares polynomial fit.

poly1d
A one-dimensional polynomial class.

Notes

Specifying the roots of a polynomial still leaves one degree of freedom, typically represented by an undetermined leading coefficient. [1] In the case of this function, that coefficient - the first one in the returned array - is always taken as one. (If for some reason you have one other point, the only automatic way presently to leverage that information is to use polyfit.)

The characteristic polynomial, $p_a(t)$, of an $n$-by-$n$ matrix $A$ is given by

```
p_a(t) = \det(tI - A),
```

where $I$ is the $n$-by-$n$ identity matrix. [2]
References

[1], [2]

Examples

Given a sequence of a polynomial's zeros:

```python
>>> np.poly((0, 0, 0))  # Multiple root example
array([1., 0., 0., 0.])
```

The line above represents \( z^3 + 0z^2 + 0z + 0. \)

```python
>>> np.poly((-1./2, 0, 1./2))
array([ 1. , 0. , -0.25, 0. ])
```

The line above represents \( z^3 - z/4 \)

```python
>>> np.poly((np.random.random(1)[0], 0, np.random.random(1)[0]))
array([ 1. , -0.77086955, 0.08618131, 0. ])
```

Given a square array object:

```python
>>> P = np.array([[0, 1./3], [-1./2, 0]])
>>> np.poly(P)
array([1. , 0. , 0.16666667])
```

Note how in all cases the leading coefficient is always 1.

`numpy.roots(p)`

Return the roots of a polynomial with coefficients given in `p`.

Note: This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in `numpy.polynomial` is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the transition guide.

The values in the rank-1 array `p` are coefficients of a polynomial. If the length of `p` is `n+1` then the polynomial is described by:

\[
p[0] * x^n + p[1] * x^{n-1} + ... + p[n-1] * x + p[n]
\]

Parameters

- `p`:
  - [array_like] Rank-1 array of polynomial coefficients.

Returns

- `out`:
  - [ndarray] An array containing the roots of the polynomial.

Raises
ValueError

When $p$ cannot be converted to a rank-1 array.

See also:

poly

Find the coefficients of a polynomial with a given sequence of roots.

polyval

Compute polynomial values.

polyfit

Least squares polynomial fit.

poly1d

A one-dimensional polynomial class.

Notes

The algorithm relies on computing the eigenvalues of the companion matrix [1].

References

[1]

Examples

```python
>>> coeff = [3.2, 2, 1]
>>> np.roots(coeff)
array([-0.3125+0.46351241j, -0.3125-0.46351241j])
```

Fitting

polyfit(x, y, deg[, rcond, full, w, cov]) Least squares polynomial fit.

`numpy.polyfit` (x, y, deg=1, rcond=None, full=False, w=None, cov=False)

Least squares polynomial fit.

Note: This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in `numpy.polynomial` is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the transition guide.

Fit a polynomial $p(x) = p[0] * x^{deg} + \ldots + p[deg]$ of degree $deg$ to points $(x, y)$. Returns a vector of coefficients $p$ that minimises the squared error in the order $deg, deg-1, \ldots, 0$.

The `Polynomial.fit` class method is recommended for new code as it is more stable numerically. See the documentation of the method for more information.

Parameters

x
[array_like, shape (M,)] x-coordinates of the M sample points \((x[i], y[i])\).

y

[array_like, shape (M,) or (M, K)] y-coordinates of the sample points. Several data sets of sample points sharing the same x-coordinates can be fitted at once by passing in a 2D-array that contains one dataset per column.

deg

[int] Degree of the fitting polynomial

rcond

[float, optional] Relative condition number of the fit. Singular values smaller than this relative to the largest singular value will be ignored. The default value is \(\text{len}(x) \times \text{eps}\), where \(\text{eps}\) is the relative precision of the float type, about 2e-16 in most cases.

full

[bool, optional] Switch determining nature of return value. When it is False (the default) just the coefficients are returned, when True diagnostic information from the singular value decomposition is also returned.

w

[array_like, shape (M,), optional] Weights to apply to the y-coordinates of the sample points. For gaussian uncertainties, use 1/sigma (not 1/sigma**2).

cov

[bool or str, optional] If given and not False, return not just the estimate but also its covariance matrix. By default, the covariance are scaled by \(\text{chi2}/\text{dof}\), where \(\text{dof} = M - (\text{deg} + 1)\), i.e., the weights are presumed to be unreliable except in a relative sense and everything is scaled such that the reduced chi2 is unity. This scaling is omitted if cov='unscaled', as is relevant for the case that the weights are 1/sigma**2, with sigma known to be a reliable estimate of the uncertainty.

Returns

p

[ndarray, shape (deg + 1,) or (deg + 1, K)] Polynomial coefficients, highest power first. If y was 2-D, the coefficients for k-th data set are in \(p[:, k]\).

residuals, rank, singular_values, rcond

Present only if full = True. Residuals is sum of squared residuals of the least-squares fit, the effective rank of the scaled Vandermonde coefficient matrix, its singular values, and the specified value of rcond. For more details, see linalg.lstsq.

V

[ndarray, shape (M,M) or (M,M,K)] Present only if full = False and cov='True. The covariance matrix of the polynomial coefficient estimates. The diagonal of this matrix are the variance estimates for each coefficient. If y is a 2-D array, then the covariance matrix for the k-th data set are in \(V[:, :, k]\).

Warns

RankWarning
The rank of the coefficient matrix in the least-squares fit is deficient. The warning is only raised if `full = False`.

The warnings can be turned off by

```python
>>> import warnings
>>> warnings.simplefilter('ignore', np.RankWarning)
```

See also:

- `polyval`  
  Compute polynomial values.
- `linalg.lstsq`  
  Computes a least-squares fit.
- `scipy.interpolate.UnivariateSpline`  
  Computes spline fits.

Notes

The solution minimizes the squared error

\[ E = \sum_{j=0}^{k} |p(x_j) - y_j|^2 \]

in the equations:

\[
x[0]^n * p[0] + ... + x[0] * p[n-1] + p[n] = y[0]
\]
\[
\]
\[
...\]
\[
x[k]^n * p[0] + ... + x[k] * p[n-1] + p[n] = y[k]
\]

The coefficient matrix of the coefficients \( p \) is a Vandermonde matrix.

`polyfit` issues a `RankWarning` when the least-squares fit is badly conditioned. This implies that the best fit is not well-defined due to numerical error. The results may be improved by lowering the polynomial degree or by replacing \( x \) by \( x - x.\text{mean()} \). The `rcond` parameter can also be set to a value smaller than its default, but the resulting fit may be spurious: including contributions from the small singular values can add numerical noise to the result.

Note that fitting polynomial coefficients is inherently badly conditioned when the degree of the polynomial is large or the interval of sample points is badly centered. The quality of the fit should always be checked in these cases. When polynomial fits are not satisfactory, splines may be a good alternative.

References

[1], [2]
Examples

```python
>>> import warnings
>>> x = np.array([0.0, 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0])
>>> y = np.array([0.0, 0.8, 0.9, 0.1, -0.8, -1.0])
>>> z = np.polyfit(x, y, 3)
>>> z
array([ 0.08703704, -0.81349206, 1.69312169, -0.03968254]) # may vary
```

It is convenient to use `poly1d` objects for dealing with polynomials:

```python
>>> p = np.poly1d(z)
>>> p(0.5)
0.6143849206349179 # may vary
>>> p(3.5)
-0.34732142857143039 # may vary
>>> p(10)
22.579365079365115 # may vary
```

High-order polynomials may oscillate wildly:

```python
>>> with warnings.catch_warnings():
...     warnings.simplefilter('ignore', np.RankWarning)
...     p30 = np.poly1d(np.polyfit(x, y, 30))
...     p30(4)
-0.80000000000000204 # may vary
>>> p30(5)
-0.99999999999999445 # may vary
>>> p30(4.5)
-0.10547061179440398 # may vary
```

Illustration:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> xp = np.linspace(-2, 6, 100)
>>> _ = plt.plot(x, y, '.', xp, p(xp), '-', xp, p30(xp), '--')
>>> plt.ylim(-2, 2)
>>> plt.show()
```

Calculus

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<td><code>polyder(p, m)</code></td>
<td>Return the derivative of the specified order of a polynomial.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>polyint(p, m, k)</code></td>
<td>Return an antiderivative (indefinite integral) of a polynomial.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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```python
numpy.polyder(p, m=1)
```

Return the derivative of the specified order of a polynomial.

**Note:** This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in `numpy.polynomial` is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the `transition guide`. 
Parameters

p
[poly1d or sequence] Polynomial to differentiate. A sequence is interpreted as polynomial coefficients, see poly1d.

m
[int, optional] Order of differentiation (default: 1)

Returns

der
[poly1d] A new polynomial representing the derivative.

See also:

calculus

polyint
Anti-derivative of a polynomial.

calculus

poly1d
Class for one-dimensional polynomials.
Examples

The derivative of the polynomial $x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$ is:

```python
>>> p = np.poly1d([1,1,1,1])
>>> p2 = np.polyder(p)
>>> p2
poly1d([3, 2, 1])
```

which evaluates to:

```python
>>> p2(2.)
17.0
```

We can verify this, approximating the derivative with $(f(x + h) - f(x))/h$:

```python
>>> (p(2. + 0.001) - p(2.)) / 0.001
17.007000999997857
```

The fourth-order derivative of a 3rd-order polynomial is zero:

```python
>>> np.polyder(p, 2)
poly1d([6, 2])
>>> np.polyder(p, 3)
poly1d([6])
>>> np.polyder(p, 4)
poly1d([0])
```

`numpy.polyint(p, m=1, k=None)`

Return an antiderivative (indefinite integral) of a polynomial.

**Note:** This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in `numpy.polynomial` is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the transition guide.

The returned order $m$ antiderivative $P$ of polynomial $p$ satisfies $\frac{d^m}{dx^m} P(x) = p(x)$ and is defined up to $m - 1$ integration constants $k$. The constants determine the low-order polynomial part

$$k_{m-1} x^0 + \ldots + k_0 (m-1)! x^{m-1}$$

of $P$ so that $P^{(j)}(0) = k_{m-j-1}$.

**Parameters**

- **p**
  - [array_like or poly1d] Polynomial to integrate. A sequence is interpreted as polynomial coefficients, see `poly1d`.

- **m**
  - [int, optional] Order of the antiderivative. (Default: 1)

- **k**
  - [list of $m$ scalars or scalar, optional] Integration constants. They are given in the order of integration: those corresponding to highest-order terms come first.

  If `None` (default), all constants are assumed to be zero. If $m = 1$, a single scalar can be given instead of a list.
See also:

**polyder**

derivative of a polynomial

**poly1d.integ**

equivalent method

Examples

The defining property of the antiderivative:

```python
>>> p = np.poly1d([1,1,1])
>>> P = np.polyint(p)
>>> P
poly1d([ 0.33333333, 0.5 , 1. , 0.   ]) # may vary
>>> np.polyder(P) == p
True
```

The integration constants default to zero, but can be specified:

```python
>>> P = np.polyint(p, 3)
>>> P(0)
0.0
>>> np.polyder(P)(0)
0.0
>>> np.polyder(P, 2)(0)
0.0
>>> P = np.polyint(p, 3, k=[6,5,3])
>>> P
poly1d([ 0.01666667, 0.04166667, 0.16666667, 3. , 5. , 3. ]) # may vary
```

Note that 3 = 6 / 2!, and that the constants are given in the order of integrations. Constant of the highest-order polynomial term comes first:

```python
>>> np.polyder(P, 2)(0)
6.0
>>> np.polyder(P, 1)(0)
5.0
>>> P(0)
3.0
```

Arithmetic

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<td><code>polyadd(a1, a2)</code></td>
<td>Find the sum of two polynomials.</td>
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<td>Returns the quotient and remainder of polynomial division.</td>
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<td><code>polymul(a1, a2)</code></td>
<td>Find the product of two polynomials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>polysub(a1, a2)</code></td>
<td>Difference (subtraction) of two polynomials.</td>
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NumPy: `polyadd(a1, a2)`

Find the sum of two polynomials.
Note: This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in `numpy.polynomial` is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the `transition guide`.

Returns the polynomial resulting from the sum of two input polynomials. Each input must be either a `poly1d` object or a 1D sequence of polynomial coefficients, from highest to lowest degree.

Parameters

- `a1, a2`
  - [array_like or poly1d object] Input polynomials.

Returns

- `out`
  - [ndarray or poly1d object] The sum of the inputs. If either input is a `poly1d` object, then the output is also a `poly1d` object. Otherwise, it is a 1D array of polynomial coefficients from highest to lowest degree.

See also:

- `poly1d`
  - A one-dimensional polynomial class.

- `poly, polyadd, polyder, polydiv, polyfit, polyint, polysub, polyval`

Examples

```python
>>> np.polyadd([1, 2], [9, 5, 4])
array([9, 6, 6])
```

Using `poly1d` objects:

```python
>>> p1 = np.poly1d([1, 2])
>>> p2 = np.poly1d([9, 5, 4])
>>> print(p1)
1 x + 2
>>> print(p2)
9 x + 5 x + 4
>>> print(np.polyadd(p1, p2))
9 x + 6 x + 6
```

`numpy.polydiv(u, v)`

Returns the quotient and remainder of polynomial division.

Note: This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in `numpy.polynomial` is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the `transition guide`.

The input arrays are the coefficients (including any coefficients equal to zero) of the “numerator” (dividend) and “denominator” (divisor) polynomials, respectively.
Parameters

\( u \)
[array_like or poly1d] Dividend polynomial’s coefficients.

\( v \)
[array_like or poly1d] Divisor polynomial’s coefficients.

Returns

\( q \)
[ndarray] Coefficients, including those equal to zero, of the quotient.

\( r \)
[ndarray] Coefficients, including those equal to zero, of the remainder.

See also:

poly, polyadd, polyder, polydiv, polyfit, polyint, polymul, polysub
polyval

Notes

Both \( u \) and \( v \) must be 0-d or 1-d (ndim = 0 or 1), but \( u.\text{ndim} \) need not equal \( v.\text{ndim} \). In other words, all four possible combinations - \( u.\text{ndim} = v.\text{ndim} = 0 \), \( u.\text{ndim} = v.\text{ndim} = 1 \), \( u.\text{ndim} = 0 \), and \( u.\text{ndim} = 0 \), \( v.\text{ndim} = 1 \) - work.

Examples

\[
\frac{3x^2 + 5x + 2}{2x + 1} = 1.5x + 1.75, \text{remainder} 0.25
\]

```python
>>> x = np.array([3.0, 5.0, 2.0])
>>> y = np.array([2.0, 1.0])
>>> np.polydiv(x, y)
(array([1.5 , 1.75]), array([0.25]))
```

numpy.polymul \((a1, a2)\)

Find the product of two polynomials.

| Note: | This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in numpy.polynomial is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the transition guide. |

Finds the polynomial resulting from the multiplication of the two input polynomials. Each input must be either a poly1d object or a 1D sequence of polynomial coefficients, from highest to lowest degree.

Parameters

\( a1, a2 \)
[array_like or poly1d object] Input polynomials.
Returns

out

[ndarray or poly1d object] The polynomial resulting from the multiplication of the inputs. If either inputs is a poly1d object, then the output is also a poly1d object. Otherwise, it is a 1D array of polynomial coefficients from highest to lowest degree.

See also:

poly1d

A one-dimensional polynomial class.

poly, polyadd, polyder, polydiv, polyfit, polyint, polysub, polyval

convolve

Array convolution. Same output as polymul, but has parameter for overlap mode.

Examples

```python
>>> np.polymul([1, 2, 3], [9, 5, 1])
array([ 9, 23, 38, 17, 3])
```

Using poly1d objects:

```python
>>> p1 = np.poly1d([1, 2, 3])
>>> p2 = np.poly1d([9, 5, 1])
>>> print(p1)
 2
1 x + 2 x + 3
>>> print(p2)
 2
9 x + 5 x + 1
>>> print(np.polymul(p1, p2))
4   3   2
9 x + 23 x + 38 x + 17 x + 3
```

```python
numpy.polysub(a1, a2)
Difference (subtraction) of two polynomials.
```

Note: This forms part of the old polynomial API. Since version 1.4, the new polynomial API defined in numpy.polynomial is preferred. A summary of the differences can be found in the transition guide.

Given two polynomials $a_1$ and $a_2$, returns $a_1 - a_2$. $a_1$ and $a_2$ can be either array_like sequences of the polynomials' coefficients (including coefficients equal to zero), or poly1d objects.

Parameters

$a1, a2$

[array_like or poly1d] Minuend and subtrahend polynomials, respectively.

Returns
out

[ndarray or poly1d] Array or poly1d object of the difference polynomial's coefficients.

See also:

polyval, polydiv, polymul, polyadd

Examples

\[(2x^2 + 10x - 2) - (3x^2 + 10x - 4) = (-x^2 + 2)\]

```python
>>> np.polysub([2, 10, -2], [3, 10, -4])
array([-1, 0, 2])
```

Warnings

**RankWarning**

Issued by polyfit when the Vandermonde matrix is rank deficient.

_exception_ numpy.RankWarning

Issued by polyfit when the Vandermonde matrix is rank deficient.

For more information, a way to suppress the warning, and an example of RankWarning being issued, see polyfit.

### 4.23 Random sampling (numpy.random)

Numpy’s random number routines produce pseudo random numbers using combinations of a BitGenerator to create sequences and a Generator to use those sequences to sample from different statistical distributions:

- BitGenerators: Objects that generate random numbers. These are typically unsigned integer words filled with sequences of either 32 or 64 random bits.
- Generators: Objects that transform sequences of random bits from a BitGenerator into sequences of numbers that follow a specific probability distribution (such as uniform, Normal or Binomial) within a specified interval.

Since Numpy version 1.17.0 the Generator can be initialized with a number of different BitGenerators. It exposes many different probability distributions. See NEP 19 for context on the updated random Numpy number routines. The legacy RandomState random number routines are still available, but limited to a single BitGenerator. See What’s New or Different for a complete list of improvements and differences from the legacy RandomState.

For convenience and backward compatibility, a single RandomState instance’s methods are imported into the numpy.random namespace, see Legacy Random Generation for the complete list.
4.23.1 Quick Start

Call `default_rng` to get a new instance of a `Generator`, then call its methods to obtain samples from different distributions. By default, `Generator` uses bits provided by `PCG64` which has better statistical properties than the legacy `MT19937` used in `RandomState`.

```python
# Do this (new version)
from numpy.random import default_rng
rng = default_rng()
vals = rng.standard_normal(10)
more_vals = rng.standard_normal(10)

# instead of this (legacy version)
from numpy import random
vals = random.standard_normal(10)
more_vals = random.standard_normal(10)
```

`Generator` can be used as a replacement for `RandomState`. Both class instances hold a internal `BitGenerator` instance to provide the bit stream, it is accessible as `gen.bit_generator`. Some long-overdue API cleanup means that legacy and compatibility methods have been removed from `Generator`.

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<td>seed</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See *What’s New or Different* for more information.

Something like the following code can be used to support both `RandomState` and `Generator`, with the understanding that the interfaces are slightly different.

```python
try:
    rng_integers = rng.integers
except AttributeError:
    rng_integers = rng.randint
a = rng_integers(1000)
```

Seeds can be passed to any of the BitGenerators. The provided value is mixed via `SeedSequence` to spread a possible sequence of seeds across a wider range of initialization states for the BitGenerator. Here `PCG64` is used and is wrapped with a `Generator`.

```python
from numpy.random import Generator, PCG64
rng = Generator(PCG64(12345))
rng.standard_normal()
```

Here we use `default_rng` to create an instance of `Generator` to generate a random float:

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng(12345)
>>> print(rng)
Generator(PCG64)
>>> rfloat = rng.random()
```
Here we use `default_rng` to create an instance of `Generator` to generate 3 random integers between 0 (inclusive) and 10 (exclusive):

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng(12345)
>>> rints = rng.integers(low=0, high=10, size=3)
>>> rints
array([6, 2, 7])
>>> type(rints[0])
<class 'numpy.int64'>
```

### 4.23.2 Introduction

The new infrastructure takes a different approach to producing random numbers from the `RandomState` object. Random number generation is separated into two components, a bit generator and a random generator.

The `BitGenerator` has a limited set of responsibilities. It manages state and provides functions to produce random doubles and random unsigned 32- and 64-bit values.

The `random generator` takes the bit generator-provided stream and transforms them into more useful distributions, e.g., simulated normal random values. This structure allows alternative bit generators to be used with little code duplication.

The `Generator` is the user-facing object that is nearly identical to the legacy `RandomState`. It accepts a bit generator instance as an argument. The default is currently `PCG64` but this may change in future versions. As a convenience NumPy provides the `default_rng` function to hide these details:

```python
>>> from numpy.random import default_rng
>>> rng = default_rng(12345)
>>> print(rng)
Generator(PCG64)
>>> print(rng.random())
0.22733602246716966
```

One can also instantiate `Generator` directly with a `BitGenerator` instance.

To use the default `PCG64` bit generator, one can instantiate it directly and pass it to `Generator`:

```python
>>> from numpy.random import Generator, PCG64
>>> rng = Generator(PCG64(12345))
>>> print(rng)
Generator(PCG64)
```

Similarly to use the older `MT19937` bit generator (not recommended), one can instantiate it directly and pass it to `Generator`:

```python
>>> from numpy.random import Generator, MT19937
>>> rng = Generator(MT19937(12345))
>>> print(rng)
Generator(MT19937)
```
What’s New or Different

Warning: The Box-Muller method used to produce NumPy’s normals is no longer available in Generator. It is not possible to reproduce the exact random values using Generator for the normal distribution or any other distribution that relies on the normal such as the RandomState.gamma or RandomState.standard_t. If you require bitwise backward compatible streams, use RandomState.

• The Generator’s normal, exponential and gamma functions use 256-step Ziggurat methods which are 2-10 times faster than NumPy’s Box-Muller or inverse CDF implementations.

• Optional dtype argument that accepts np.float32 or np.float64 to produce either single or double precision uniform random variables for select distributions

• Optional out argument that allows existing arrays to be filled for select distributions

• All BitGenerators can produce doubles, uint64s and uint32s via CTypes (PCG64.ctypes) and CFFI (PCG64.cffi). This allows the bit generators to be used in numba.

• The bit generators can be used in downstream projects via Cython.

• Generator.integers is now the canonical way to generate integer random numbers from a discrete uniform distribution. The rand and randn methods are only available through the legacy RandomState. The endpoint keyword can be used to specify open or closed intervals. This replaces both randint and the deprecated random_integers.

• Generator.random is now the canonical way to generate floating-point random numbers, which replaces RandomState.random_sample, RandomState.sample, and RandomState.ranf. This is consistent with Python’s random.random.

• All BitGenerators in numpy use SeedSequence to convert seeds into initialized states.

• The addition of an axis keyword argument to methods such as Generator.choice, Generator.permutation, and Generator.shuffle improves support for sampling from and shuffling multi-dimensional arrays.

See What’s New or Different for a complete list of improvements and differences from the traditional Randomstate.

Parallel Generation

The included generators can be used in parallel, distributed applications in one of three ways:

• SeedSequence spawning

• Independent Streams

• Jumping the BitGenerator state

Users with a very large amount of parallelism will want to consult Upgrading PCG64 with PCG64DXSM.
4.23.3 Concepts

Random Generator

The Generator provides access to a wide range of distributions, and served as a replacement for RandomState. The main difference between the two is that Generator relies on an additional BitGenerator to manage state and generate the random bits, which are then transformed into random values from useful distributions. The default BitGenerator used by Generator is PCG64. The BitGenerator can be changed by passing an instantiated BitGenerator to Generator.

```python
numpy.random.default_rng()
```

Construct a new Generator with the default BitGenerator (PCG64).

Parameters

- **seed**
  
  [[None, int, array_like[ints], SeedSequence, BitGenerator, Generator], optional] A seed to initialize the BitGenerator. If None, then fresh, unpredictable entropy will be pulled from the OS. If an int or array_like[ints] is passed, then it will be passed to SeedSequence to derive the initial BitGenerator state. One may also pass in a SeedSequence instance. Additionally, when passed a BitGenerator, it will be wrapped by Generator. If passed a Generator, it will be returned unaltered.

Returns

- **Generator**

  The initialized generator object.

Notes

If seed is not a BitGenerator or a Generator, a new BitGenerator is instantiated. This function does not manage a default global instance.

Examples

default_rng is the recommended constructor for the random number class Generator. Here are several ways we can construct a random number generator using default_rng and the Generator class.

Here we use default_rng to generate a random float:

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng(12345)
>>> print(rng)
Generator(PCG64)
>>> rfloat = rng.random()
>>> rfloat
0.22733602246716966
>>> type(rfloat)
<class 'float'>
```

Here we use default_rng to generate 3 random integers between 0 (inclusive) and 10 (exclusive):
```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng(12345)
>>> rints = rng.integers(low=0, high=10, size=3)
>>> rints
array([6, 2, 7])
>>> type(rints[0])
<class 'numpy.int64'>
```

Here we specify a seed so that we have reproducible results:

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng(42)
>>> print(rng)
Generator(PCG64)
>>> arr1 = rng.random((3, 3))
>>> arr1
array([[0.77395605, 0.43887844, 0.85859792],
       [0.69736803, 0.09417735, 0.97562235],
       [0.7611397 , 0.78606431, 0.12811363]])
```

If we exit and restart our Python interpreter, we’ll see that we generate the same random numbers again:

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng(42)
>>> arr2 = rng.random((3, 3))
>>> arr2
array([[0.77395605, 0.43887844, 0.85859792],
       [0.69736803, 0.09417735, 0.97562235],
       [0.7611397 , 0.78606431, 0.12811363]])
```

class `numpy.random.Generator(bit_generator)`
Container for the BitGenerators.

`Generator` exposes a number of methods for generating random numbers drawn from a variety of probability distributions. In addition to the distribution-specific arguments, each method takes a keyword argument `size` that defaults to `None`. If `size` is `None`, then a single value is generated and returned. If `size` is an integer, then a 1-D array filled with generated values is returned. If `size` is a tuple, then an array with that shape is filled and returned.

The function `numpy.random.default_rng` will instantiate a `Generator` with numpy’s default `BitGenerator`.

**No Compatibility Guarantee**

`Generator` does not provide a version compatibility guarantee. In particular, as better algorithms evolve the bit stream may change.

**Parameters**

- `bit_generator` ([BitGenerator] BitGenerator to use as the core generator).

**See also:**

- `default_rng`
  Recommended constructor for `Generator`.
Notes

The Python stdlib module `random` contains pseudo-random number generator with a number of methods that are similar to the ones available in `Generator`. It uses Mersenne Twister, and this bit generator can be accessed using MT19937. `Generator`, besides being NumPy-aware, has the advantage that it provides a much larger number of probability distributions to choose from.

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.random import Generator, PCG64
>>> rng = Generator(PCG64())
>>> rng.standard_normal()
-0.203  # random
```

Accessing the BitGenerator

```
bit_generator
```

Returns

```
bit_generator

* [BitGenerator] The bit generator instance used by the generator
```

Simple random data

```
integers(low[, high, size, dtype, endpoint])
random([size, dtype, out])
choice(a[, size, replace, p, axis, shuffle])
bytes(length)
```

method

```
random.Generator.integers (low, high=None, size=None, dtype=np.int64, endpoint=False)
```

Return random integers from `low` (inclusive) to `high` (exclusive), or if endpoint=True, `low` (inclusive) to `high` (inclusive). Replaces `RandomState.randint` (with endpoint=False) and `RandomState.random_integers` (with endpoint=True).

Return random integers from the “discrete uniform” distribution of the specified dtype. If `high` is None (the default), then results are from 0 to `low`.

Parameters

```
low

[ int or array-like of ints] Lowest (signed) integers to be drawn from the distribution (unless high=None, in which case this parameter is 0 and this value is used for high).
```
high
[int or array-like of ints, optional] If provided, one above the largest (signed) integer to be
drawn from the distribution (see above for behavior if high=None). If array-like, must
contain integer values

size
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m
* n * k samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

dtype
[dtype, optional] Desired dtype of the result. Byteorder must be native. The default value is
np.int64.

endpoint
[bool, optional] If true, sample from the interval [low, high] instead of the default [low, high)
Defaults to False

Returns
out
[int or ndarray of ints] size-shaped array of random integers from the appropriate distribu-
tion, or a single such random int if size not provided.

Notes
When using broadcasting with uint64 dtypes, the maximum value (2**64) cannot be represented as a standard
integer type. The high array (or low if high is None) must have object dtype, e.g., array([2**64]).

References
[1]

Examples

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> rng.integers(2, size=10)
array([1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0]) # random
>>> rng.integers(1, size=10)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0])
``` Generate a 2 x 4 array of ints between 0 and 4, inclusive:

```python
>>> rng.integers(5, size=(2, 4))
array([[4, 0, 2, 1],
       [3, 2, 2, 0]]) # random
``` Generate a 1 x 3 array with 3 different upper bounds

```python
>>> rng.integers(1, [3, 5, 10])
array([2, 2, 9]) # random
``` Generate a 1 by 3 array with 3 different lower bounds
Generate a 2 by 4 array using broadcasting with dtype of uint8

```python
>>> rng.integers([1, 3, 5, 7], [[10], [20]], dtype=np.uint8)
array([[8, 6, 9, 7],
       [1, 16, 9, 12]], dtype=uint8) # random
```

method

```python
randomGenerator.random(size=None, dtype=np.float64, out=None)
```

Return random floats in the half-open interval [0.0, 1.0).

Results are from the “continuous uniform” distribution over the stated interval. To sample $Unif[a, b)$ multiply the output of `random` by $(b-a)$ and add $a$:

$$ (b - a) * \text{random()} + a $$

Parameters

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., $(m, n, k)$, then $m * n * k$ samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

- **dtype**
  - [dtype, optional] Desired dtype of the result, only `float64` and `float32` are supported. Byteorder must be native. The default value is np.float64.

- **out**
  - [ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. If size is not None, it must have the same shape as the provided size and must match the type of the output values.

Returns

- **out**
  - [float or ndarray of floats] Array of random floats of shape `size` (unless `size=None`, in which case a single float is returned).

Examples

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> rng.random() 0.47108547995356098 # random
>>> type(rng.random())
<class 'float'>
>>> rng.random((5,))
array([ 0.30220482, 0.86820401, 0.1654503 , 0.11659149, 0.54323428]) # random
```

Three-by-two array of random numbers from [-5, 0):

```python
```
random.Generator.choice(a, size=None, replace=True, p=None, axis=0, shuffle=True)

Generates a random sample from a given array

Parameters

a
   [array_like, int] If an ndarray, a random sample is generated from its elements. If an int, the random sample is generated from np.arange(a).

size
   [int, tuple[int]], optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn from the 1-d a. If a has more than one dimension, the size shape will be inserted into the axis dimension, so the output ndim will be a.ndim - 1 + len(size). Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

replace
   [bool, optional] Whether the sample is with or without replacement. Default is True, meaning that a value of a can be selected multiple times.

p
   [1-D array_like, optional] The probabilities associated with each entry in a. If not given, the sample assumes a uniform distribution over all entries in a.

axis
   [int, optional] The axis along which the selection is performed. The default, 0, selects by row.

shuffle
   [bool, optional] Whether the sample is shuffled when sampling without replacement. Default is True, False provides a speedup.

Returns

samples
   [single item or ndarray] The generated random samples

Raises

ValueError
   If a is an int and less than zero, if p is not 1-dimensional, if a is array-like with a size 0, if p is not a vector of probabilities, if a and p have different lengths, or if replace=False and the sample size is greater than the population size.

See also:

integers, shuffle, permutation
Notes

Setting user-specified probabilities through \(p\) uses a more general but less efficient sampler than the default. The general sampler produces a different sample than the optimized sampler even if each element of \(p\) is \(1 / \text{len}(a)\).

Examples

Generate a uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3:

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> rng.choice(5, 3)
array([0, 3, 4])  # random
```

Generate a non-uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3:

```python
>>> rng.choice(5, 3, p=[0.1, 0, 0.3, 0.6, 0])
array([3, 3, 0])  # random
```

Generate a uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3 without replacement:

```python
>>> rng.choice(5, 3, replace=False)
array([3, 1, 0])  # random
```

Generate a uniform random sample from a 2-D array along the first axis (the default), without replacement:

```python
>>> rng.choice([[0, 1, 2], [3, 4, 5], [6, 7, 8]], 2, replace=False)
array([[3, 4, 5],
       [0, 1, 2]])
```

Generate a non-uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3 without replacement:

```python
>>> rng.choice(5, 3, replace=False, p=[0.1, 0, 0.3, 0.6, 0])
array([2, 3, 0])  # random
```

Any of the above can be repeated with an arbitrary array-like instead of just integers. For instance:

```python
>>> aa_milne_arr = ['pooh', 'rabbit', 'piglet', 'Christopher']
>>> rng.choice(aa_milne_arr, 5, p=[0.5, 0.1, 0.1, 0.3])
array(['pooh', 'pooh', 'pooh', 'Christopher', 'piglet'], dtype='<U11')
```

method

```
random.Generator.bytes(length)
```

Return random bytes.

Parameters

- **length**
  - [int] Number of random bytes.

Returns
out

[bytes] String of length length.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.default_rng().bytes(10)
b' ehU2SZ¿u'  # random
```

Permutations

The methods for randomly permuting a sequence are

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<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<td><code>shuffle(x[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Modify an array or sequence in-place by shuffling its contents.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>permutation(x[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Randomly permute a sequence, or return a permuted range.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>permuted(x[, axis, out])</code></td>
<td>Randomly permute x along axis axis.</td>
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</table>

Method

```python
random.Generator.shuffle(x, axis=0)
```

Modify an array or sequence in-place by shuffling its contents.

The order of sub-arrays is changed but their contents remains the same.

Parameters

- **x**
  - [ndarray or MutableSequence] The array, list or mutable sequence to be shuffled.

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] The axis which x is shuffled along. Default is 0. It is only supported on ndarray objects.

Returns

None

Examples

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> arr = np.arange(10)
>>> rng.shuffle(arr)
>>> arr
[1 7 5 2 9 4 3 6 0 8]  # random

>>> arr = np.arange(9).reshape((3, 3))
>>> rng.shuffle(arr)
>>> arr
array([[3, 4, 5], # random
        [6, 7, 8],
        [0, 1, 2]])
```
```python
>>> arr = np.arange(9).reshape((3, 3))
>>> rng.shuffle(arr, axis=1)
>>> arr
array([[2, 0, 1],  # random
        [5, 3, 4],
        [8, 6, 7]])
```

**method**

```python
random.Generator.permutation(x, axis=0)
```

Randomly permute a sequence, or return a permuted range.

**Parameters**

- **x**
  - [int or array_like] If x is an integer, randomly permute `np.arange(x)`. If x is an array, make a copy and shuffle the elements randomly.
  - **axis**
    - [int, optional] The axis which x is shuffled along. Default is 0.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray] Permuted sequence or array range.

**Examples**

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> rng.permutation(10)
array([1, 7, 4, 3, 0, 9, 2, 5, 8, 6])  # random

>>> rng.permutation([1, 4, 9, 12, 15])
array([15, 1, 9, 4, 12])  # random

>>> arr = np.arange(9).reshape((3, 3))
>>> rng.permutation(arr)
array([[0, 2, 1],  # random
        [3, 5, 4],
        [6, 8, 7]])
```

**method**

**4.23. Random sampling (numpy.random)**
random.Generator.permuted(x, axis=None, out=None)

Randomly permute x along axis axis.

Unlike shuffle, each slice along the given axis is shuffled independently of the others.

Parameters

x
[array_like, at least one-dimensional] Array to be shuffled.

axis
[int, optional] Slices of x in this axis are shuffled. Each slice is shuffled independently of the others. If axis is None, the flattened array is shuffled.

out
[ndarray, optional] If given, this is the destination of the shuffled array. If out is None, a shuffled copy of the array is returned.

Returns

ndarray
If out is None, a shuffled copy of x is returned. Otherwise, the shuffled array is stored in out, and out is returned

See also:

shuffle
permutation

Examples

Create a numpy.random.Generator instance:

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
```

Create a test array:

```python
>>> x = np.arange(24).reshape(3, 8)
>>> x
array([[ 0,  1,  2,  3,  4,  5,  6,  7],
        [ 8,  9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15],
        [16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23]])
```

Shuffle the rows of x:

```python
>>> y = rng.permuted(x, axis=1)
>>> y
array([[ 4,  3,  6,  7,  1,  2,  5,  0],  # random
        [15, 10, 14,  9, 12, 11,  8, 13],
        [17, 16, 20, 21, 18, 22, 23, 19]])
```

x has not been modified:
To shuffle the rows of \( x \) in-place, pass \( x \) as the \( \text{out} \) parameter:

```python
>>> y = rng.permuted(x, axis=1, out=x)
>>> x
array([[ 3, 0, 4, 7, 1, 6, 2, 5],
       [ 8, 14, 13, 9, 12, 11, 15, 10],
       [17, 18, 16, 22, 19, 23, 20, 21]])
```

Note that when the \( \text{out} \) parameter is given, the return value is \( \text{out} \):

```python
>>> y is x
True
```

The following table summarizes the behaviors of the methods.

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>permuted</td>
<td>either (use ‘out’ for in-place)</td>
<td>axis independent</td>
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</table>

The following subsections provide more details about the differences.

### In-place vs. copy

The main difference between \texttt{Generator.shuffle} and \texttt{Generator.permutation} is that \texttt{Generator.shuffle} operates in-place, while \texttt{Generator.permutation} returns a copy.

By default, \texttt{Generator.permuted} returns a copy. To operate in-place with \texttt{Generator.permuted}, pass the same array as the first argument \texttt{and} as the value of the \texttt{out} parameter. For example,

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> x = np.arange(0, 15).reshape(3, 5)
>>> x
array([[ 0,  1,  2,  3,  4],
       [ 5,  6,  7,  8,  9],
       [10, 11, 12, 13, 14]])
>>> y = rng.permuted(x, axis=1, out=x)
>>> x
array([[ 1,  0,  2,  4,  3],
       [ 6,  7,  8,  9,  5],
       [10, 14, 11, 13, 12]])
```

Note that when \texttt{out} is given, the return value is \texttt{out}:

```python
>>> y is x
True
```
Handling the axis parameter

An important distinction for these methods is how they handle the axis parameter. Both Generator.shuffle and Generator.permutation treat the input as a one-dimensional sequence, and the axis parameter determines which dimension of the input array to use as the sequence. In the case of a two-dimensional array, axis=0 will, in effect, rearrange the rows of the array, and axis=1 will rearrange the columns. For example

```python
generator.shuffle = np.random.default_rng()
x = np.arange(0, 15).reshape(3, 5)
x array([[0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
        [5, 6, 7, 8, 9],
        [10, 11, 12, 13, 14]])
generator.permutation(x, axis=1) array([[1, 3, 2, 0, 4],
        [6, 8, 7, 5, 9],
        [11, 13, 12, 10, 14]])
```

Note that the columns have been rearranged “in bulk”: the values within each column have not changed.

The method Generator.permuted treats the axis parameter similar to how numpy.sort treats it. Each slice along the given axis is shuffled independently of the others. Compare the following example of the use of Generator.permuted to the above example of Generator.permutation:

```python
generator.permuted(x, axis=1) array([[1, 0, 2, 4, 3],
        [5, 7, 6, 9, 8],
        [10, 14, 12, 13, 11]])
```

In this example, the values within each row (i.e. the values along axis=1) have been shuffled independently. This is not a “bulk” shuffle of the columns.

Shuffling non-NumPy sequences

Generator.shuffle works on non-NumPy sequences. That is, if it is given a sequence that is not a NumPy array, it shuffles that sequence in-place. For example,

```python
generator.shuffle = np.random.default_rng()
a = ['A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E']
generator.shuffle(a) # shuffle the list in-place
a ['B', 'D', 'A', 'E', 'C'] # random
```

Distributions

- `beta(a, b[, size])` Draw samples from a Beta distribution.
- `binomial(n, p[, size])` Draw samples from a binomial distribution.
- `chisquare(df[, size])` Draw samples from a chi-square distribution.
- `dirichlet(alpha[, size])` Draw samples from the Dirichlet distribution.
- `exponential(scale[, size])` Draw samples from an exponential distribution.
- `f(dfnum, dfden[, size])` Draw samples from an F distribution.
- `gamma(shape[, scale, size])` Draw samples from a Gamma distribution.
- `geometric(p[, size])` Draw samples from the geometric distribution.
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method

`random.Generator.beta(a, b, size=None)`

Draw samples from a Beta distribution.

The Beta distribution is a special case of the Dirichlet distribution, and is related to the Gamma distribution. It has the probability distribution function

\[
f(x; a, b) = \frac{1}{B(a, b)} x^{a-1} (1 - x)^{b-1},
\]

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where the normalization, $B$, is the beta function,

$$
B(\alpha, \beta) = \int_0^1 t^{\alpha-1}(1-t)^{\beta-1} dt.
$$

It is often seen in Bayesian inference and order statistics.

**Parameters**

- $a$ [float or array_like of floats] Alpha, positive (>0).
- $b$ [float or array_like of floats] Beta, positive (>0).
- $size$ [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., $(m, n, k)$, then $m \times n \times k$ samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if $a$ and $b$ are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast($a$, $b$).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- $out$ [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized beta distribution.

**method**

`random.Generator.binomial(n, p, size=None)`

Draw samples from a binomial distribution.

Samples are drawn from a binomial distribution with specified parameters, $n$ trials and $p$ probability of success where $n$ an integer $\geq 0$ and $p$ is in the interval $[0,1]$. ($n$ may be input as a float, but it is truncated to an integer in use)

**Parameters**

- $n$ [int or array_like of ints] Parameter of the distribution, $\geq 0$. Floats are also accepted, but they will be truncated to integers.
- $p$ [float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution, $\geq 0$ and $\leq 1$.
- $size$ [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., $(m, n, k)$, then $m \times n \times k$ samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if $n$ and $p$ are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast($n$, $p$).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- $out$ [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized binomial distribution, where each sample is equal to the number of successes over the $n$ trials.

**See also:**
scipy.stats.binom

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Notes

The probability density for the binomial distribution is

\[ P(N) = \binom{n}{N} p^N (1 - p)^{n-N}, \]

where \( n \) is the number of trials, \( p \) is the probability of success, and \( N \) is the number of successes.

When estimating the standard error of a proportion in a population by using a random sample, the normal distribution works well unless the product \( p \cdot n \leq 5 \), where \( p \) = population proportion estimate, and \( n \) = number of samples, in which case the binomial distribution is used instead. For example, a sample of 15 people shows 4 who are left handed, and 11 who are right handed. Then \( p = \frac{4}{15} = 27\% \). \( 0.27 \cdot 15 = 4 \), so the binomial distribution should be used in this case.

References

[1], [2], [3], [4], [5]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> n, p = 10, .5  # number of trials, probability of each trial
>>> s = rng.binomial(n, p, 1000)  # result of flipping a coin 10 times, tested 1000 times.
```

A real world example. A company drills 9 wild-cat oil exploration wells, each with an estimated probability of success of 0.1. All nine wells fail. What is the probability of that happening?

Let’s do 20,000 trials of the model, and count the number that generate zero positive results.

```python
>>> sum(rng.binomial(9, 0.1, 20000) == 0)/20000.  
# answer = 0.38885, or 39%.
```

method

random.Generator.chisquare(df, size=None)

Draw samples from a chi-square distribution.

When \( df\) independent random variables, each with standard normal distributions (mean 0, variance 1), are squared and summed, the resulting distribution is chi-square (see Notes). This distribution is often used in hypothesis testing.

Parameters

- \( df\)

  [float or array_like of floats] Number of degrees of freedom, must be > 0.
size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m
* n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if df is a
scalar. Otherwise, np.array(df).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized chi-square distribution.

Raises

ValueError

When df <= 0 or when an inappropriate size (e.g. size=-1) is given.

Notes

The variable obtained by summing the squares of df independent, standard normally distributed random variables:

\[ Q = \sum_{i=0}^{df} X_i^2 \]

is chi-square distributed, denoted

\[ Q \sim \chi^2_k. \]

The probability density function of the chi-squared distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{(1/2)^{k/2}}{\Gamma(k/2)} x^{k/2-1} e^{-x/2}, \]

where \( \Gamma \) is the gamma function,

\[ \Gamma(x) = \int_0^{-\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt. \]

References

[1]

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.default_rng().chisquare(2, 4)
array([ 1.89920014, 9.00867716, 3.13710533, 5.62318272])  # random
```

method

`random.Generator.dirichlet(alpha, size=None)`

Draw samples from the Dirichlet distribution.

Draw size samples of dimension k from a Dirichlet distribution. A Dirichlet-distributed random variable can
be seen as a multivariate generalization of a Beta distribution. The Dirichlet distribution is a conjugate prior of a
multinomial distribution in Bayesian inference.
Parameters

alpha

[sequence of floats, length k] Parameter of the distribution (length k for sample of length k).

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n), then m * n * k samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a vector of length k is returned.

Returns

samples

[ndarray.] The drawn samples, of shape (size, k).

Raises

ValueError

If any value in alpha is less than or equal to zero

Notes

The Dirichlet distribution is a distribution over vectors $x$ that fulfil the conditions $x_i > 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_i = 1$.

The probability density function $p$ of a Dirichlet-distributed random vector $X$ is proportional to

$$p(x) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{k} x_i^{\alpha_i - 1},$$

where $\alpha$ is a vector containing the positive concentration parameters.

The method uses the following property for computation: let $Y$ be a random vector which has components that follow a standard gamma distribution, then $X = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} Y_i} Y$ is Dirichlet-distributed.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Taking an example cited in Wikipedia, this distribution can be used if one wanted to cut strings (each of initial length 1.0) into K pieces with different lengths, where each piece had, on average, a designated average length, but allowing some variation in the relative sizes of the pieces.

```python
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().dirichlet((10, 5, 3), 20).transpose()
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> plt.barh(range(20), s[0])
>>> plt.barh(range(20), s[1], left=s[0], color='g')
>>> plt.barh(range(20), s[2], left=s[0]+s[1], color='r')
>>> plt.title("Lengths of Strings")
```
method

```
random.Generator.exponential(scale=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from an exponential distribution.

Its probability density function is

\[
  f(x; \frac{1}{\beta}) = \frac{1}{\beta} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\beta}\right),
\]

for \( x > 0 \) and 0 elsewhere. \( \beta \) is the scale parameter, which is the inverse of the rate parameter \( \lambda = 1/\beta \). The rate parameter is an alternative, widely used parameterization of the exponential distribution [3].

The exponential distribution is a continuous analogue of the geometric distribution. It describes many common situations, such as the size of raindrops measured over many rainstorms [1], or the time between page requests to Wikipedia [2].

**Parameters**

- **scale**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] The scale parameter, \( \beta = 1/\lambda \). Must be non-negative.

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \( m \times n \times k \) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if scale is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(scale).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- **out**
  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized exponential distribution.
**References**

[1], [2], [3]

method

```python
tf = Generator.f(dfnum, dfden, size=None)
```

Draw samples from an F distribution.

Samples are drawn from an F distribution with specified parameters, `dfnum` (degrees of freedom in numerator) and `dfden` (degrees of freedom in denominator), where both parameters must be greater than zero.

The random variate of the F distribution (also known as the Fisher distribution) is a continuous probability distribution that arises in ANOVA tests, and is the ratio of two chi-square variates.

**Parameters**

- **dfnum**
  - [float or array_like of floats] Degrees of freedom in numerator, must be > 0.

- **dfden**
  - [float or array_like of float] Degrees of freedom in denominator, must be > 0.

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `dfnum` and `dfden` are both scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(dfnum, dfden).size` samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Fisher distribution.

**See also:**

- `scipy.stats.f`
  - probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

**Notes**

The F statistic is used to compare in-group variances to between-group variances. Calculating the distribution depends on the sampling, and so it is a function of the respective degrees of freedom in the problem. The variable `dfnum` is the number of samples minus one, the between-groups degrees of freedom, while `dfden` is the within-groups degrees of freedom, the sum of the number of samples in each group minus the number of groups.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

An example from Glantz[1], pp 47-40:

Two groups, children of diabetics (25 people) and children from people without diabetes (25 controls). Fasting blood glucose was measured, case group had a mean value of 86.1, controls had a mean value of 82.2. Standard deviations were 2.09 and 2.49 respectively. Are these data consistent with the null hypothesis that the parents diabetic status does not affect their children's blood glucose levels? Calculating the F statistic from the data gives a value of 36.01.

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> dfnum = 1. # between group degrees of freedom
>>> dfden = 48. # within groups degrees of freedom
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().f(dfnum, dfden, 1000)

The lower bound for the top 1% of the samples is:

```python
>>> np.sort(s)[-10]
7.61988120985 # random
```

So there is about a 1% chance that the F statistic will exceed 7.62, the measured value is 36, so the null hypothesis is rejected at the 1% level.

method

random.Generator.gamma (shape, scale=1.0, size=None)

Draw samples from a Gamma distribution.

Samples are drawn from a Gamma distribution with specified parameters, shape (sometimes designated “k”) and scale (sometimes designated “theta”), where both parameters are > 0.

Parameters

shape

[float or array_like of floats] The shape of the gamma distribution. Must be non-negative.

scale

[float or array_like of floats, optional] The scale of the gamma distribution. Must be non-negative. Default is equal to 1.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if shape and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(shape, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized gamma distribution.
See also:

\texttt{scipy.stats.gamma}

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Notes

The probability density for the Gamma distribution is

\[ p(x) = x^{k-1} \frac{e^{-x/\theta}}{\theta^k \Gamma(k)}, \]

where \( k \) is the shape and \( \theta \) the scale, and \( \Gamma \) is the Gamma function.

The Gamma distribution is often used to model the times to failure of electronic components, and arises naturally in processes for which the waiting times between Poisson distributed events are relevant.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> shape, scale = 2., 2.  # mean=4, std=2*sqrt(2)
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().gamma(shape, scale, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> import scipy.special as sps
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 50, density=True)
>>> y = bins**((shape-1))*(np.exp(-bins/scale) /
... (sps.gamma(shape)*scale**shape))
>>> plt.plot(bins, y, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

method

\texttt{random.Generator.geometric}(p, size=None)

Draw samples from the geometric distribution.

Bernoulli trials are experiments with one of two outcomes: success or failure (an example of such an experiment is flipping a coin). The geometric distribution models the number of trials that must be run in order to achieve success. It is therefore supported on the positive integers, \( k = 1, 2, \ldots \).

The probability mass function of the geometric distribution is

\[ f(k) = (1 - p)^{k-1} p \]

where \( p \) is the probability of success of an individual trial.

Parameters
p
[float or array_like of floats] The probability of success of an individual trial.

size
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if p is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(p).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out
[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized geometric distribution.

Examples

Draw ten thousand values from the geometric distribution, with the probability of an individual success equal to 0.35:

```python
>>> z = np.random.default_rng().geometric(p=0.35, size=10000)
```

How many trials succeeded after a single run?

```python
>>> (z == 1).sum() / 10000.
0.3488999999999999 # random
```

method

random.Generator.gumbel(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)

Draw samples from a Gumbel distribution.

Draw samples from a Gumbel distribution with specified location and scale. For more information on the Gumbel distribution, see Notes and References below.

Parameters

loc
[optional] The location of the mode of the distribution. Default is 0.

scale
[optional] The scale parameter of the distribution. Default is 1. Must be non-negative.

size
[optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if loc and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(loc, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns
out
[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Gumbel distribution.

See also:
scipy.stats.gumbel_l
scipy.stats.gumbel_r
scipy.stats.genextreme
weibull

Notes
The Gumbel (or Smallest Extreme Value (SEV) or the Smallest Extreme Value Type I) distribution is one of a class of Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distributions used in modeling extreme value problems. The Gumbel is a special case of the Extreme Value Type I distribution for maximums from distributions with “exponential-like” tails.

The probability density for the Gumbel distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{e^{-(x-\mu)/\beta}}{\beta} e^{-(x-\mu)/\beta} \]

where \( \mu \) is the mode, a location parameter, and \( \beta \) is the scale parameter.

The Gumbel (named for German mathematician Emil Julius Gumbel) was used very early in the hydrology literature, for modeling the occurrence of flood events. It is also used for modeling maximum wind speed and rainfall rates. It is a “fat-tailed” distribution - the probability of an event in the tail of the distribution is larger than if one used a Gaussian, hence the surprisingly frequent occurrence of 100-year floods. Floods were initially modeled as a Gaussian process, which underestimated the frequency of extreme events.

It is one of a class of extreme value distributions, the Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distributions, which also includes the Weibull and Frechet.

The function has a mean of \( \mu + 0.57721\beta \) and a variance of \( \frac{\pi^2}{6} \beta^2 \).
References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> mu, beta = 0, 0.1 # location and scale
>>> s = rng.gumbel(mu, beta, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 30, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(bins, (1/beta)**np.exp(-(bins - mu)/beta)
... * np.exp(-np.exp(-(bins - mu)/beta)),
... linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

Show how an extreme value distribution can arise from a Gaussian process and compare to a Gaussian:

```python
>>> means = []
>>> maxima = []
>>> for i in range(0,1000):
...     a = rng.normal(mu, beta, 1000)
...     means.append(a.mean())
...     maxima.append(a.max())
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(maxima, 30, density=True)
>>> beta = np.std(maxima) * np.sqrt(6) / np.pi
>>> mu = np.mean(maxima) - 0.57721*beta
>>> plt.plot(bins, (1/beta)**np.exp(-(bins - mu)/beta)
... * np.exp(-np.exp(-(bins - mu)/beta)),
... linewidth=2, color='r')
```

(continues on next page)
method

```
random.Generator.hypergeometric(ngood, nbad, nsample, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a Hypergeometric distribution.

Samples are drawn from a hypergeometric distribution with specified parameters, `ngood` (ways to make a good selection), `nbad` (ways to make a bad selection), and `nsample` (number of items sampled, which is less than or equal to the sum `ngood + nbad`).

**Parameters**

- `ngood`
  - [int or array_like of ints] Number of ways to make a good selection. Must be nonnegative and less than 10**9.

- `nbad`
  - [int or array_like of ints] Number of ways to make a bad selection. Must be nonnegative and less than 10**9.

- `nsample`
  - [int or array_like of ints] Number of items sampled. Must be nonnegative and less than `ngood + nbad`.

- `size`
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m` * `n` * `k` samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `ngood`, `nbad`, and `nsample` are all scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(ngood, nbad, nsample)`. `size` samples are drawn.

**Returns**
Drawn samples from the parameterized hypergeometric distribution. Each sample is the number of good items within a randomly selected subset of size \( n_{\text{sample}} \) taken from a set of \( n_{\text{good}} \) good items and \( n_{\text{bad}} \) bad items.

See also:

- **multivariate_hypergeometric**
  
  Draw samples from the multivariate hypergeometric distribution.

- **scipy.stats.hypergeom**
  
  Probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Notes

The probability density for the Hypergeometric distribution is

\[
P(x) = \frac{{g \choose x} \cdot {b \choose n-x}}{{n \choose x}},
\]

where \( 0 \leq x \leq n \) and \( n - b \leq x \leq g \)

for \( P(x) \) the probability of \( x \) good results in the drawn sample, \( g = n_{\text{good}}, b = n_{\text{bad}}, \) and \( n = n_{\text{sample}} \).

Consider an urn with black and white marbles in it, \( n_{\text{good}} \) of them are black and \( n_{\text{bad}} \) are white. If you draw \( n_{\text{sample}} \) balls without replacement, then the hypergeometric distribution describes the distribution of black balls in the drawn sample.

Note that this distribution is very similar to the binomial distribution, except that in this case, samples are drawn without replacement, whereas in the Binomial case samples are drawn with replacement (or the sample space is infinite). As the sample space becomes large, this distribution approaches the binomial.

The arguments \( n_{\text{good}} \) and \( n_{\text{bad}} \) each must be less than \( 10^{**9} \). For extremely large arguments, the algorithm that is used to compute the samples \([4]\) breaks down because of loss of precision in floating point calculations. For such large values, if \( n_{\text{sample}} \) is not also large, the distribution can be approximated with the binomial distribution, \( \text{binomial}(n = n_{\text{sample}}, p = n_{\text{good}}/(n_{\text{good}} + n_{\text{bad}})) \).

References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> ngood, nbad, nsamp = 100, 2, 10
# number of good, number of bad, and number of samples
>>> s = rng.hypergeometric(ngood, nbad, nsamp, 1000)
>>> from matplotlib.pyplot import hist
>>> hist(s)
# note that it is very unlikely to grab both bad items
```
Suppose you have an urn with 15 white and 15 black marbles. If you pull 15 marbles at random, how likely is it that 12 or more of them are one color?

```python
>>> s = rng.hypergeometric(15, 15, 15, 100000)
>>> sum(s>=12)/100000. + sum(s<=3)/100000.
# answer = 0.003 ... pretty unlikely!
```

method

`RandomGenerator.laplace(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)`

Draw samples from the Laplace or double exponential distribution with specified location (or mean) and scale (decay).

The Laplace distribution is similar to the Gaussian/normal distribution, but is sharper at the peak and has fatter tails. It represents the difference between two independent, identically distributed exponential random variables.

Parameters

- `loc`
  - [float or array_like of floats, optional] The position, µ, of the distribution peak. Default is 0.
- `scale`
  - [float or array_like of floats, optional] λ, the exponential decay. Default is 1. Must be non-negative.
- `size`
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if `loc` and `scale` are both scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(loc, scale).size` samples are drawn.

Returns

- `out`
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Laplace distribution.

Notes

It has the probability density function

\[ f(x; \mu, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2\lambda} \exp\left( -\frac{|x - \mu|}{\lambda} \right) . \]

The first law of Laplace, from 1774, states that the frequency of an error can be expressed as an exponential function of the absolute magnitude of the error, which leads to the Laplace distribution. For many problems in economics and health sciences, this distribution seems to model the data better than the standard Gaussian distribution.
References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution

```python
>>> loc, scale = 0., 1.
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().laplace(loc, scale, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 30, density=True)
>>> x = np.arange(-8., 8., .01)
>>> pdf = np.exp(-abs(x-loc)/scale)/(2.*scale)
>>> plt.plot(x, pdf)
```

Plot Gaussian for comparison:

```python
>>> g = (1/(scale * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)) * 
...     np.exp(-((x - loc)**2 / (2 * scale**2)))
>>> plt.plot(x, g)
```

method

```
random.Generator.logistic(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a logistic distribution.

Samples are drawn from a logistic distribution with specified parameters, `loc` (location or mean, also median), and `scale` (>0).

Parameters

- `loc`
[float or array_like of floats, optional] Parameter of the distribution. Default is 0.

scale
[float or array_like of floats, optional] Parameter of the distribution. Must be non-negative. Default is 1.

size
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if loc and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(loc, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out
[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized logistic distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.logistic

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Notes

The probability density for the Logistic distribution is

\[ P(x) = \frac{e^{-(x-\mu)/s}}{s(1 + e^{-(x-\mu)/s})^2}, \]

where \( \mu \) = location and \( s \) = scale.

The Logistic distribution is used in Extreme Value problems where it can act as a mixture of Gumbel distributions, in Epidemiology, and by the World Chess Federation (FIDE) where it is used in the Elo ranking system, assuming the performance of each player is a logistically distributed random variable.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> loc, scale = 10, 1
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().logistic(loc, scale, 10000)
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, bins=50)
```

# plot against distribution
```python
>>> def logist(x, loc, scale):
...     return np.exp((loc-x)/scale)/(scale*(1+np.exp((loc-x)/scale))**2)
>>> lgst_val = logist(bins, loc, scale)
>>> plt.plot(bins, lgst_val * count.max() / lgst_val.max())
>>> plt.show()
```

method

```python
random.Generator.lognormal(mean=0.0, sigma=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a log-normal distribution.

Draw samples from a log-normal distribution with specified mean, standard deviation, and array shape. Note that the mean and standard deviation are not the values for the distribution itself, but of the underlying normal distribution it is derived from.

**Parameters**

- **mean**
  - [float or array_like of floats, optional] Mean value of the underlying normal distribution. Default is 0.

- **sigma**
  - [float or array_like of floats, optional] Standard deviation of the underlying normal distribution. Must be non-negative. Default is 1.

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if mean and sigma are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(mean, sigma).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized log-normal distribution.
See also:

```
scipy.stats.lognorm
```

probability density function, distribution, cumulative density function, etc.

**Notes**

A variable \( x \) has a log-normal distribution if \( \log(x) \) is normally distributed. The probability density function for the log-normal distribution is:

\[
p(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma x \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(\ln(x) - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}
\]

where \( \mu \) is the mean and \( \sigma \) is the standard deviation of the normally distributed logarithm of the variable. A log-normal distribution results if a random variable is the product of a large number of independent, identically-distributed variables in the same way that a normal distribution results if the variable is the sum of a large number of independent, identically-distributed variables.

**References**

[1], [2]

**Examples**

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> mu, sigma = 3., 1. # mean and standard deviation
>>> s = rng.lognormal(mu, sigma, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 100, density=True, align='mid')
>>> x = np.linspace(min(bins), max(bins), 10000)
>>> pdf = (np.exp(-(np.log(x) - mu)**2 / (2 * sigma**2))
...        / (x * sigma * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)))
>>> plt.plot(x, pdf, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.axis('tight')
>>> plt.show()
```

Demonstrate that taking the products of random samples from a uniform distribution can be fit well by a log-normal probability density function.

```python
>>> # Generate a thousand samples: each is the product of 100 random
>>> # values, drawn from a normal distribution.
>>> rng = rng
>>> b = []
>>> for i in range(1000):
...    a = 10. + rng.standard_normal(100)
...    b.append(np.product(a))
```
```python
>>> b = np.array(b) / np.min(b)  # scale values to be positive
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(b, 100, density=True, align='mid')
>>> sigma = np.std(np.log(b))
>>> mu = np.mean(np.log(b))

>>> x = np.linspace(min(bins), max(bins), 10000)
>>> pdf = (np.exp(-(np.log(x) - mu)**2 / (2 * sigma**2)) / (x * sigma * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)))

>>> plt.plot(x, pdf, color='r', linewidth=2)
>>> plt.show()
```
random.Generator.logseries(p, size=None)

Draw samples from a logarithmic series distribution.

Samples are drawn from a log series distribution with specified shape parameter, \( 0 < p < 1 \).

Parameters

- **p**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Shape parameter for the distribution. Must be in the range \((0, 1)\).

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if \(p\) is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array\((p)\).size samples are drawn.

Returns

- **out**
  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized logarithmic series distribution.

See also:

- scipy.stats.logser

  probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Notes

The probability mass function for the Log Series distribution is

\[
P(k) = \frac{-p^k}{k \ln(1 - p)},
\]

where \(p\) = probability.

The log series distribution is frequently used to represent species richness and occurrence, first proposed by Fisher, Corbet, and Williams in 1943 [2]. It may also be used to model the numbers of occupants seen in cars [3].

References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a = .6
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().logseries(a, 10000)
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s)
# plot against distribution
```
```
>>> def logseries(k, p):
...     return -p**k/(k*np.log(1-p))
>>> plt.plot(bins, logseries(bins, a) * count.max())/
...     logseries(bins, a).max(), 'r')
>>> plt.show()
```

Method

```
random.Generator.multinomial(n, pvals, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a multinomial distribution.

The multinomial distribution is a multivariate generalization of the binomial distribution. Take an experiment with one of \( p \) possible outcomes. An example of such an experiment is throwing a dice, where the outcome can be 1 through 6. Each sample drawn from the distribution represents \( n \) such experiments. Its values, \( X_i = [X_0, X_1, \ldots, X_p] \), represent the number of times the outcome was \( i \).

**Parameters**

\( n \)[int or array-like of ints] Number of experiments.

\( pvals \)[sequence of floats, length \( p \)] Probabilities of each of the \( p \) different outcomes. These must sum to \( 1 \) (however, the last element is always assumed to account for the remaining probability, as long as \( \text{sum}(pvals[:-1]) <= 1 \)).

\( size \)[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \( (m, n, k) \), then \( m * n * k \) samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

**Returns**

\( out \)[ndarray] The drawn samples, of shape \( size \), if that was provided. If not, the shape is \( (N, ) \).
In other words, each entry `out[i,j,...,:]` is an N-dimensional value drawn from the distribution.

**Examples**

Throw a dice 20 times:

```python
g = np.random.default_rng()
g.multinomial(20, [1/6.]*6, size=1)
array([[4, 1, 7, 5, 2, 1]]) # random
```

It landed 4 times on 1, once on 2, etc.

Now, throw the dice 20 times, and 20 times again:

```python
g.multinomial(20, [1/6.]*6, size=2)
array([[3, 4, 3, 3, 4, 3],
        [2, 4, 3, 4, 0, 7]]) # random
```

For the first run, we threw 3 times 1, 4 times 2, etc. For the second, we threw 2 times 1, 4 times 2, etc.

Now, do one experiment throwing the dice 10 time, and 10 times again, and another throwing the dice 20 times, and 20 times again:

```python
g.multinomial([[10], [20]], [1/6.]*6, size=(2, 2))
array([[2, 4, 0, 1, 2, 1],
        [1, 3, 0, 3, 1, 2],
        [1, 4, 4, 4, 4, 3],
        [3, 3, 2, 5, 5, 2]]) # random
```

The first array shows the outcomes of throwing the dice 10 times, and the second shows the outcomes from throwing the dice 20 times.

A loaded die is more likely to land on number 6:

```python
g.multinomial(100, [1/7.]*5 + [2/7.])
array([11, 16, 14, 17, 16, 26]) # random
```

The probability inputs should be normalized. As an implementation detail, the value of the last entry is ignored and assumed to take up any leftover probability mass, but this should not be relied on. A biased coin which has twice as much weight on one side as on the other should be sampled like so:

```python
g.multinomial(100, [1.0 / 3, 2.0 / 3])  # RIGHT
array([38, 62]) # random
```

not like:

```python
g.multinomial(100, [1.0, 2.0])  # WRONG
```

Traceback (most recent call last):
ValueError: pvals < 0, pvals > 1 or pvals contains NaNs

method

random.Generator.multivariate_hypergeometric(colors, nsample, size=None, method='marginals')
Generate variates from a multivariate hypergeometric distribution.

The multivariate hypergeometric distribution is a generalization of the hypergeometric distribution.
Choose `nsample` items at random without replacement from a collection with `N` distinct types. `N` is the length of `colors`, and the values in `colors` are the number of occurrences of that type in the collection. The total number of items in the collection is `sum(colors)`. Each random variate generated by this function is a vector of length `N` holding the counts of the different types that occurred in the `nsample` items.

The name `colors` comes from a common description of the distribution: it is the probability distribution of the number of marbles of each color selected without replacement from an urn containing marbles of different colors; `colors[i]` is the number of marbles in the urn with color `i`.

**Parameters**

- `colors`
  - [sequence of integers] The number of each type of item in the collection from which a sample is drawn. The values in `colors` must be nonnegative. To avoid loss of precision in the algorithm, `sum(colors)` must be less than `10**9` when `method` is “marginals”.

- `nsample`
  - [int] The number of items selected. `nsample` must not be greater than `sum(colors)`.

- `size`
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] The number of variates to generate, either an integer or a tuple holding the shape of the array of variates. If the given size is, e.g., `(k, m)`, then `k * m` variates are drawn, where one variate is a vector of length `len(colors)`, and the return value has shape `(k, m, len(colors))`. If `size` is an integer, the output has shape `(size, len(colors))`. Default is None, in which case a single variate is returned as an array with shape `(len(colors),)`.

- `method`
  - [string, optional] Specify the algorithm that is used to generate the variates. Must be ‘count’ or ‘marginals’ (the default). See the Notes for a description of the methods.

**Returns**

- `variates`
  - [ndarray] Array of variates drawn from the multivariate hypergeometric distribution.

**See also:**

- `hypergeometric`  
  Draw samples from the (univariate) hypergeometric distribution.

**Notes**

The two methods do not return the same sequence of variates.

The “count” algorithm is roughly equivalent to the following numpy code:

```python
choices = np.repeat(np.arange(len(colors)), colors)
selection = np.random.choice(choices, nsample, replace=False)
variate = np.bincount(selection, minlength=len(colors))
```
The “count” algorithm uses a temporary array of integers with length \( \sum(\text{colors}) \).

The “marginals” algorithm generates a variate by using repeated calls to the univariate hypergeometric sampler. It is roughly equivalent to:

```python
variate = np.zeros(len(colors), dtype=np.int64)
remaining = np.cumsum(colors[::-1])[::-1]
for i in range(len(colors)-1):
    if nsample < 1:
        break
    variate[i] = hypergeometric(colors[i], remaining[i+1], nsample)
    nsample -= variate[i+1]
variate[-1] = nsample
```

The default method is “marginals”. For some cases (e.g. when \( \text{colors} \) contains relatively small integers), the “count” method can be significantly faster than the “marginals” method. If performance of the algorithm is important, test the two methods with typical inputs to decide which works best.

New in version 1.18.0.

**Examples**

```python
>>> colors = [16, 8, 4]
>>> seed = 4861946401452
>>> gen = np.random.Generator(np.random.PCG64(seed))
>>> gen.multivariate_hypergeometric(colors, 6)
array([5, 0, 1])
>>> gen.multivariate_hypergeometric(colors, 6, size=3)
array([[5, 2, 2], [3, 3, 0]])
>>> gen.multivariate_hypergeometric(colors, 6, size=(2, 2))
array([[[3, 2, 1], [3, 2, 1]], [[4, 1, 1], [3, 2, 1]]])
```

**method**

`random.Generator.multivariate_normal` (*mean*, *cov*, *size=None*, *check_valid='warn'*, *tol=1e-8*, *_,* *method='svd'*)

Draw random samples from a multivariate normal distribution.

The multivariate normal, multinormal or Gaussian distribution is a generalization of the one-dimensional normal distribution to higher dimensions. Such a distribution is specified by its mean and covariance matrix. These parameters are analogous to the mean (average or “center”) and variance (standard deviation, or “width,” squared) of the one-dimensional normal distribution.

**Parameters**

- **mean**

  [1-D array_like, of length N] Mean of the N-dimensional distribution.
cov

[2-D array_like, of shape (N, N)] Covariance matrix of the distribution. It must be symmetric and positive-semidefinite for proper sampling.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Given a shape of, for example, (m, n, k), m*n*k samples are generated, and packed in an m-by-n-by-k arrangement. Because each sample is N-dimensional, the output shape is (m, n, k, N). If no shape is specified, a single (N-D) sample is returned.

check_valid

[{'warn', 'raise', 'ignore'}, optional] Behavior when the covariance matrix is not positive semidefinite.

tol

[float, optional] Tolerance when checking the singular values in covariance matrix. cov is cast to double before the check.

method

[{'svd', 'eigh', 'cholesky'}, optional] The cov input is used to compute a factor matrix A such that \( A @ A^T = \text{cov} \). This argument is used to select the method used to compute the factor matrix A. The default method 'svd' is the slowest, while 'cholesky' is the fastest but less robust than the slowest method. The method eigh uses eigen decomposition to compute A and is faster than svd but slower than cholesky.

New in version 1.18.0.

Returns

out

[ndarray] The drawn samples, of shape size, if that was provided. If not, the shape is (N, ).

In other words, each entry out[i, j, ..., :] is an N-dimensional value drawn from the distribution.

Notes

The mean is a coordinate in N-dimensional space, which represents the location where samples are most likely to be generated. This is analogous to the peak of the bell curve for the one-dimensional or univariate normal distribution.

Covariance indicates the level to which two variables vary together. From the multivariate normal distribution, we draw N-dimensional samples, \( X = [x_1, x_2, ... x_N] \). The covariance matrix element \( C_{ij} \) is the covariance of \( x_i \) and \( x_j \). The element \( C_{ii} \) is the variance of \( x_i \) (i.e. its “spread”).

Instead of specifying the full covariance matrix, popular approximations include:

- Spherical covariance (cov is a multiple of the identity matrix)
- Diagonal covariance (cov has non-negative elements, and only on the diagonal)

This geometrical property can be seen in two dimensions by plotting generated data-points:

```python
>>> mean = [0, 0]
>>> cov = [[1, 0], [0, 100]]  # diagonal covariance
```

Diagonal covariance means that points are oriented along x or y-axis:
```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x, y = np.random.default_rng().multivariate_normal(mean, cov, 5000).T
>>> plt.plot(x, y, 'x')
>>> plt.axis('equal')
>>> plt.show()
```

Note that the covariance matrix must be positive semidefinite (a.k.a. nonnegative-definite). Otherwise, the behavior of this method is undefined and backwards compatibility is not guaranteed.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

```python
>>> mean = (1, 2)
>>> cov = [[1, 0], [0, 1]]
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> x = rng.multivariate_normal(mean, cov, (3, 3))
>>> x.shape
(3, 3, 2)
```

We can use a different method other than the default to factorize cov: 
```python
>>> y = rng.multivariate_normal(mean, cov, (3, 3), method='cholesky')
>>> y.shape (3, 3, 2)
```

The following is probably true, given that 0.6 is roughly twice the standard deviation:

```python
>>> list((x[0,0,:]-mean) < 0.6)
[True, True] # random
```

method

```python
random.Generator.negative_binomial (n, p, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a negative binomial distribution.

Samples are drawn from a negative binomial distribution with specified parameters, \( n \) successes and \( p \) probability of success where \( n \) is > 0 and \( p \) is in the interval (0, 1].

Parameters

- \( n \)  
  [float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution, > 0.

- \( p \)  
  [float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution. Must satisfy 0 < \( p \) <= 1.

- \( size \)  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \( (m, n, k) \), then \( m \) * \( n \) * \( k \) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if \( n \) and \( p \) are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(\( n \), \( p \)).size samples are drawn.

Returns
out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized negative binomial distribution, where each sample is equal to N, the number of failures that occurred before a total of n successes was reached.

Notes

The probability mass function of the negative binomial distribution is

\[ P(N; n, p) = \frac{\Gamma(N + n)}{N!\Gamma(n)} p^n (1 - p)^N, \]

where \( n \) is the number of successes, \( p \) is the probability of success, \( N + n \) is the number of trials, and \( \Gamma \) is the gamma function. When \( n \) is an integer, \( \frac{\Gamma(N+n)}{N!\Gamma(n)} = \binom{N+n}{N} \), which is the more common form of this term in the pmf. The negative binomial distribution gives the probability of \( N \) failures given \( n \) successes, with a success on the last trial.

If one throws a die repeatedly until the third time a “1” appears, then the probability distribution of the number of non-“1”s that appear before the third “1” is a negative binomial distribution.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

A real world example. A company drills wild-cat oil exploration wells, each with an estimated probability of success of 0.1. What is the probability of having one success for each successive well, that is what is the probability of a single success after drilling 5 wells, after 6 wells, etc.?

```python
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().negative_binomial(1, 0.1, 100000)
>>> for i in range(1, 11):
...     probability = sum(s<i) / 100000.
...     print(i, "wells drilled, probability of one success =", probability)
```

random.Generator.noncentral_chisquare (df, nonc, size=None)

Draw samples from a noncentral chi-square distribution.

The noncentral \( \chi^2 \) distribution is a generalization of the \( \chi^2 \) distribution.

Parameters

- **df**
  - [float or array_like of floats] Degrees of freedom, must be \( > 0 \).

  Changed in version 1.10.0: Earlier NumPy versions required dftype > 1.

- **nonc**
  - [float or array_like of floats] Non-centrality, must be non-negative.
size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if \(df\) and \(nonc\) are both scalars. Otherwise, \(\text{np.broadcast}(df, nonc).size\) samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized noncentral chi-square distribution.

Notes

The probability density function for the noncentral Chi-square distribution is

\[
P(x; df, nonc) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{-nonc/2}(nonc/2)^i \frac{1}{i!} P_{Y_0+2i}(x),
\]

where \(Y_0\) is the Chi-square with \(q\) degrees of freedom.

References

[1]

Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> values = plt.hist(rng.noncentral_chisquare(3, 20, 100000),
                    bins=200, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

Draw values from a noncentral chi-square with very small noncentrality, and compare to a chisquare.

```python
>>> plt.figure()
>>> values = plt.hist(rng.noncentral_chisquare(3, .0000001, 100000),
                    bins=np.arange(0., 25, .1), density=True)
>>> values2 = plt.hist(rng.chisquare(3, 100000),
                    bins=np.arange(0., 25, .1), density=True)
>>> plt.plot(values[1][0:-1], values[0]-values2[0], 'ob')
>>> plt.show()
```

Demonstrate how large values of non-centrality lead to a more symmetric distribution.

```python
>>> plt.figure()
>>> values = plt.hist(rng.noncentral_chisquare(3, 20, 100000),
                    bins=200, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```
random.Generator.noncentral_f (dfnum, dfden, nonc, size=None)

Draw samples from the noncentral F distribution.

Samples are drawn from an F distribution with specified parameters, \( dfnum \) (degrees of freedom in numerator) and \( dfden \) (degrees of freedom in denominator), where both parameters > 1. \( nonc \) is the non-centrality parameter.

**Parameters**

- **dfnum**
  - [float or array_like of floats] Numerator degrees of freedom, must be > 0.
  - Changed in version 1.14.0: Earlier NumPy versions required dfnum > 1.

- **dfden**
  - [float or array_like of floats] Denominator degrees of freedom, must be > 0.

- **nonc**
  - [float or array_like of floats] Non-centrality parameter, the sum of the squares of the numerator means, must be \( \geq 0 \).

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \( m \times n \times k \) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if \( dfnum, dfden, \) and \( nonc \) are all scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(dfnum, dfden, nonc).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized noncentral Fisher distribution.
Notes

When calculating the power of an experiment (power = probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when a specific alternative is true) the non-central F statistic becomes important. When the null hypothesis is true, the F statistic follows a central F distribution. When the null hypothesis is not true, then it follows a non-central F statistic.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

In a study, testing for a specific alternative to the null hypothesis requires use of the Noncentral F distribution. We need to calculate the area in the tail of the distribution that exceeds the value of the F distribution for the null hypothesis. We'll plot the two probability distributions for comparison.

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> dfnum = 3 # between group deg of freedom
>>> dfden = 20 # within groups degrees of freedom
>>> nonc = 3.0
>>> nc_vals = rng.noncentral_f(dfnum, dfden, nonc, 1000000)
>>> NF = np.histogram(nc_vals, bins=50, density=True)
>>> c_vals = rng.f(dfnum, dfden, 1000000)
>>> F = np.histogram(c_vals, bins=50, density=True)
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> plt.plot(F[1][1:], F[0])
>>> plt.plot(NF[1][1:], NF[0])
>>> plt.show()
```

method

random.Generator.normal(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)

Draw random samples from a normal (Gaussian) distribution.
The probability density function of the normal distribution, first derived by De Moivre and 200 years later by both Gauss and Laplace independently [2], is often called the bell curve because of its characteristic shape (see the example below).

The normal distributions occur often in nature. For example, it describes the commonly occurring distribution of samples influenced by a large number of tiny, random disturbances, each with its own unique distribution [2].

Parameters

loc

[float or array_like of floats] Mean (“centre”) of the distribution.

scale

[float or array_like of floats] Standard deviation (spread or “width”) of the distribution. Must be non-negative.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if loc and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(loc, scale).shape size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized normal distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.norm

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Notes

The probability density for the Gaussian distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} , \]

where \( \mu \) is the mean and \( \sigma \) the standard deviation. The square of the standard deviation, \( \sigma^2 \), is called the variance.

The function has its peak at the mean, and its “spread” increases with the standard deviation (the function reaches 0.607 times its maximum at \( x + \sigma \) and \( x - \sigma \) [2]). This implies that normal is more likely to return samples lying close to the mean, rather than those far away.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> mu, sigma = 0, 0.1 # mean and standard deviation
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().normal(mu, sigma, 1000)
```

Verify the mean and the variance:

```python
>>> abs(mu - np.mean(s))
0.0 # may vary

>>> abs(sigma - np.std(s, ddof=1))
0.0 # may vary
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 30, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(bins, 1/(sigma * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)) * ...
... np.exp( - (bins - mu)**2 / (2 * sigma**2) ),
... linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

Two-by-four array of samples from $N(3, 6.25)$:

```python
>>> np.random.default_rng().normal(3, 2.5, size=(2, 4))
array([[-4.49401501, 4.00950034, -1.81814867, 7.29718677], # random
       [ 0.39924804, 4.68456316, 4.99394529, 4.84057254]]) # random
```
random.Generator.pareto(a, size=None)

Draw samples from a Pareto II or Lomax distribution with specified shape.

The Lomax or Pareto II distribution is a shifted Pareto distribution. The classical Pareto distribution can be obtained from the Lomax distribution by adding 1 and multiplying by the scale parameter $m$ (see Notes). The smallest value of the Lomax distribution is zero while for the classical Pareto distribution it is $mu$, where the standard Pareto distribution has location $mu = 1$. Lomax can also be considered as a simplified version of the Generalized Pareto distribution (available in SciPy), with the scale set to one and the location set to zero.

The Pareto distribution must be greater than zero, and is unbounded above. It is also known as the “80-20 rule”. In this distribution, 80 percent of the weights are in the lowest 20 percent of the range, while the other 20 percent fill the remaining 80 percent of the range.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Shape of the distribution. Must be positive.

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., $(m, n, k)$, then $m \times n \times k$ samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if a is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(a).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- **out**
  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Pareto distribution.

**See also:**

- scipy.stats.lomax
  
  probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

- scipy.stats.genpareto
  
  probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

**Notes**

The probability density for the Pareto distribution is

$$p(x) = \frac{am^a}{x^{a+1}}$$

where $a$ is the shape and $m$ the scale.

The Pareto distribution, named after the Italian economist Vilfredo Pareto, is a power law probability distribution useful in many real world problems. Outside the field of economics it is generally referred to as the Bradford distribution. Pareto developed the distribution to describe the distribution of wealth in an economy. It has also found use in insurance, web page access statistics, oil field sizes, and many other problems, including the download frequency for projects in Sourceforge [1]. It is one of the so-called “fat-tailed” distributions.
References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a, m = 3., 2.  # shape and mode
>>> s = (np.random.default_rng().pareto(a, 1000) + 1) * m
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, _ = plt.hist(s, 100, density=True)
>>> fit = a*m**a / bins**(a+1)
>>> plt.plot(bins, max(count)*fit/max(fit), linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

method

```
random.Generator.poisson(lam=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a Poisson distribution.

The Poisson distribution is the limit of the binomial distribution for large N.

Parameters

- **lam**

  [float or array_like of floats] Expected number of events occurring in a fixed-time interval, must be >= 0. A sequence must be broadcastable over the requested size.

- **size**

  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if lam is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(lam).size samples are drawn.
Returns

out

[array or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Poisson distribution.

Notes

The Poisson distribution

\[ f(k; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!} \]

For events with an expected separation \( \lambda \) the Poisson distribution \( f(k; \lambda) \) describes the probability of \( k \) events occurring within the observed interval \( \lambda \).

Because the output is limited to the range of the C int64 type, a ValueError is raised when \( \text{lam} \) is within 10 sigma of the maximum representable value.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> s = rng.poisson(5, 10000)
```

Display histogram of the sample:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 14, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

Draw each 100 values for lambda 100 and 500:

```python
>>> s = rng.poisson(lam=(100., 500.), size=(100, 2))
```

method

```
random.Generator.power (a, size=None)
```

Draws samples in [0, 1] from a power distribution with positive exponent \( a - 1 \).

Also known as the power function distribution.

Parameters

- \( a \)
  - [float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution. Must be non-negative.
size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if a is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(a).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized power distribution.

Raises

ValueError

If a < 1.

Notes

The probability density function is

\[ P(x; a) = ax^{a-1}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1, \quad a > 0. \]

The power function distribution is just the inverse of the Pareto distribution. It may also be seen as a special case of the Beta distribution.

It is used, for example, in modeling the over-reporting of insurance claims.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> a = 5.  # shape
>>> samples = 1000
>>> s = rng.power(a, samples)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, bins=30)
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 1, 100)
>>> y = a**x**(a-1.)
>>> normed_y = samples*np.diff(bins)[0]*y
>>> plt.plot(x, normed_y)
>>> plt.show()
```

Compare the power function distribution to the inverse of the Pareto.

```python
>>> from scipy import stats
>>> rvs = rng.power(5, 1000000)
>>> rvsp = rng.pareto(5, 1000000)
>>> xx = np.linspace(0, 1, 100)
>>> powpdf = stats.powerlaw.pdf(xx, 5)

>>> plt.figure()
>>> plt.hist(rvs, bins=50, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(xx, powpdf, 'r-')
>>> plt.title('power(5)')
```
method

```
random.Generator.rayleigh(scale=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a Rayleigh distribution.

The χ and Weibull distributions are generalizations of the Rayleigh.
Parameters

scale

[float or array_like of floats, optional] Scale, also equals the mode. Must be non-negative. Default is 1.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if scale is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Rayleigh distribution.

Notes

The probability density function for the Rayleigh distribution is

\[ P(x; \text{scale}) = \frac{x}{\text{scale}^2} e^{\frac{-x^2}{2 \cdot \text{scale}^2}} \]

The Rayleigh distribution would arise, for example, if the East and North components of the wind velocity had identical zero-mean Gaussian distributions. Then the wind speed would have a Rayleigh distribution.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram

```python
>>> from matplotlib.pyplot import hist
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> values = hist(rng.rayleigh(3, 100000), bins=200, density=True)
```

Wave heights tend to follow a Rayleigh distribution. If the mean wave height is 1 meter, what fraction of waves are likely to be larger than 3 meters?

```python
>>> meanvalue = 1
>>> modevalue = np.sqrt(2 / np.pi) * meanvalue
>>> s = rng.rayleigh(modevalue, 1000000)
```

The percentage of waves larger than 3 meters is:

```python
>>> 100.*sum(s>3)/1000000.
0.08730000000000003 # random
```

random.Generator.standard_cauchy(size=None)

Draw samples from a standard Cauchy distribution with mode = 0.

Also known as the Lorentz distribution.

Parameters

- size
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

Returns

- samples
  
  [ndarray or scalar] The drawn samples.

Notes

The probability density function for the full Cauchy distribution is

\[ P(x; x_0, \gamma) = \frac{1}{\pi \gamma \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{x - x_0}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right] } \]

and the Standard Cauchy distribution just sets \( x_0 = 0 \) and \( \gamma = 1 \)

The Cauchy distribution arises in the solution to the driven harmonic oscillator problem, and also describes spectral line broadening. It also describes the distribution of values at which a line tilted at a random angle will cut the x axis.
When studying hypothesis tests that assume normality, seeing how the tests perform on data from a Cauchy distribution is a good indicator of their sensitivity to a heavy-tailed distribution, since the Cauchy looks very much like a Gaussian distribution, but with heavier tails.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples and plot the distribution:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().standard_cauchy(1000000)
>>> s = s[(s>-25) & (s<25)] # truncate distribution so it plots well
>>> plt.hist(s, bins=100)
>>> plt.show()
```

method

`random.Generator.standard_exponential(size=None, dtype=np.float64, method='zig', out=None)`

Draw samples from the standard exponential distribution.

`standard_exponential` is identical to the exponential distribution with a scale parameter of 1.

Parameters

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

- **dtype**
  - [dtype, optional] Desired dtype of the result, only `float64` and `float32` are supported. Byteorder must be native. The default value is `np.float64`. 

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method

[str, optional] Either 'inv' or 'zig'. 'inv' uses the default inverse CDF method. 'zig' uses the much faster Ziggurat method of Marsaglia and Tsang.

out

[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. If size is not None, it must have the same shape as the provided size and must match the type of the output values.

Returns

out

[float or ndarray] Drawn samples.

Examples

Output a 3x8000 array:

```python
>>> n = np.random.default_rng().standard_exponential((3, 8000))
```

random.Generator.standard_gamma (shape, size=None, dtype=np.float64, out=None)

Draw samples from a standard Gamma distribution.

Samples are drawn from a Gamma distribution with specified parameters, shape (sometimes designated “k”) and scale=1.

Parameters

shape

[float or array_like of floats] Parameter, must be non-negative.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if shape is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(shape).size samples are drawn.

dtype

[dtype, optional] Desired dtype of the result, only float64 and float32 are supported. Byteorder must be native. The default value is np.float64.

out

[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. If size is not None, it must have the same shape as the provided size and must match the type of the output values.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized standard gamma distribution.

See also:
**scipy.stats.gamma**

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

**Notes**

The probability density for the Gamma distribution is

\[
p(x) = x^{k-1} e^{-x/\theta} \frac{e^{-x/\theta}}{\theta^k \Gamma(k)},
\]

where \(k\) is the shape and \(\theta\) the scale, and \(\Gamma\) is the Gamma function.

The Gamma distribution is often used to model the times to failure of electronic components, and arises naturally in processes for which the waiting times between Poisson distributed events are relevant.

**References**

[1], [2]

**Examples**

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> shape, scale = 2., 1. # mean and width
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().standard_gamma(shape, 1000000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> import scipy.special as sps
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 50, density=True)
... y = bins**(shape-1) * ((np.exp(-bins/scale))/
... (sps.gamma(shape) * scale**shape))
>>> plt.plot(bins, y, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

method

`random.Generator.standard_normal(size=None, dtype=np.float64, out=None)`

Draw samples from a standard Normal distribution (mean=0, stdev=1).

**Parameters**

- `size`
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

- `dtype`
  - [dtype, optional] Desired dtype of the result, only float64 and float32 are supported. Byteorder must be native. The default value is np.float64.

- `out`
  - [ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. If size is not None, it must have the same shape as the provided size and must match the type of the output values.
Returns

out

[float or ndarray] A floating-point array of shape size of drawn samples, or a single sample if size was not specified.

See also:

normal

Equivalent function with additional loc and scale arguments for setting the mean and standard deviation.

Notes

For random samples from \( N(\mu, \sigma^2) \), use one of:

\[
\mu + \sigma \cdot \text{rng.standard_normal(size=...)} \\
\text{rng.normal(mu, sigma, size=...)}
\]

Examples

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> rng.standard_normal()
2.1923875335537315 # random

>>> s = rng.standard_normal(8000)
>>> s
array([ 0.6888893 , 0.78096262, -0.89086505, ..., 0.49876311, # random
       -0.38672696, -0.4685006 ], dtype=float64) # random

>>> s.shape
(8000,)

>>> s = rng.standard_normal(size=(3, 4, 2))
```

(continues on next page)
Two-by-four array of samples from $N(3, 6.25)$:

```python
>>> 3 + 2.5 * rng.standard_normal(size=(2, 4))
array([[[-4.49401501,  4.00950034, -1.81814867,  7.29718677],
        [ 0.39924804,  4.68456316,  4.99394529,  4.84057254]],
       [[-4.49401501,  4.00950034, -1.81814867,  7.29718677],
        [ 0.39924804,  4.68456316,  4.99394529,  4.84057254]])
```

The t test is based on an assumption that the data come from a Normal distribution. The t test provides a way to test whether the sample mean (that is the mean calculated from the data) is a good estimate of the true mean.

The derivation of the t-distribution was first published in 1908 by William Gosset while working for the Guinness Brewery in Dublin. Due to proprietary issues, he had to publish under a pseudonym, and so he used the name Student.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

From Dalgaard page 83 [1], suppose the daily energy intake for 11 women in kilojoules (kJ) is:

```python
>>> intake = np.array([5260., 5470, 5640, 6180, 6390, 6515, 6805, 7515, 7515, 8230, 8770])
```

Does their energy intake deviate systematically from the recommended value of 7725 kJ? Our null hypothesis will be the absence of deviation, and the alternate hypothesis will be the presence of an effect that could be either positive or negative, hence making our test 2-tailed.

Because we are estimating the mean and we have N=11 values in our sample, we have N-1=10 degrees of freedom. We set our significance level to 95% and compute the t statistic using the empirical mean and empirical standard deviation of our intake. We use a ddof of 1 to base the computation of our empirical standard deviation on an unbiased estimate of the variance (note: the final estimate is not unbiased due to the concave nature of the square root).

```python
>>> np.mean(intake)
6753.636363636364
>>> intake.std(ddof=1)
1142.1232221373727
>>> t = (np.mean(intake)-7725)/(intake.std(ddof=1)/np.sqrt(len(intake)))
>>> t
-2.8207540608310198
```

We draw 1000000 samples from Student’s t distribution with the adequate degrees of freedom.

```python
>>> np.random.default_rng().standard_t(10, size=1000000)
>>> h = plt.hist(s, bins=100, density=True)
```

Does our t statistic land in one of the two critical regions found at both tails of the distribution?

```python
>>> np.sum(np.abs(t) < np.abs(s)) / float(len(s))
0.018318 #random < 0.05, statistic is in critical region
```

The probability value for this 2-tailed test is about 1.83%, which is lower than the 5% pre-determined significance threshold.

Therefore, the probability of observing values as extreme as our intake conditionally on the null hypothesis being true is too low, and we reject the null hypothesis of no deviation.

**method**

```python
random.Generator.triangular(left, mode, right, size=None)
```

Draw samples from the triangular distribution over the interval [left, right].

The triangular distribution is a continuous probability distribution with lower limit left, peak at mode, and upper limit right. Unlike the other distributions, these parameters directly define the shape of the pdf.

**Parameters**

- **left**
  - [float or array_like of floats] Lower limit.
mode

[float or array_like of floats] The value where the peak of the distribution occurs. The value must fulfill the condition left <= mode <= right.

right

[float or array_like of floats] Upper limit, must be larger than left.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if left, mode, and right are all scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(left, mode, right).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized triangular distribution.

Notes

The probability density function for the triangular distribution is

\[
P(x; l, m, r) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{2(x-l)}{(r-l)(m-l)} & \text{for } l \leq x \leq m, \\
\frac{2(r-x)}{(r-l)(r-m)} & \text{for } m \leq x \leq r, \\
0 & \text{otherwise}.
\end{cases}
\]

The triangular distribution is often used in ill-defined problems where the underlying distribution is not known, but some knowledge of the limits and mode exists. Often it is used in simulations.
Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> h = plt.hist(np.random.default_rng().triangular(-3, 0, 8, 100000), bins=200,
...     density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

method

```python
random.Generator.uniform(low=0.0, high=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a uniform distribution.

Samples are uniformly distributed over the half-open interval \([\text{low}, \text{high})\) (includes low, but excludes high). In other words, any value within the given interval is equally likely to be drawn by `uniform`.

Parameters

- **low**
  
  [float or array_like of floats, optional] Lower boundary of the output interval. All values generated will be greater than or equal to low. The default value is 0.

- **high**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Upper boundary of the output interval. All values generated will be less than high. high - low must be non-negative. The default value is 1.0.

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if low
and high are both scalars. Otherwise, \( \text{np.broadcast(low, high).size} \) samples are drawn.

Returns

**out**

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized uniform distribution.

See also:

- **integers**
  Discrete uniform distribution, yielding integers.
- **random**
  Floats uniformly distributed over \([0, 1)\).

Notes

The probability density function of the uniform distribution is

\[
p(x) = \frac{1}{b - a}
\]

anywhere within the interval \([a, b)\), and zero elsewhere. When high == low, values of low will be returned.

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().uniform(-1,0,1000)
```

All values are within the given interval:

```python
>>> np.all(s >= -1)
True
>>> np.all(s < 0)
True
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 15, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(bins, np.ones_like(bins), linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

method

`random.Generator.vonmises(mu, kappa, size=None)`

Draw samples from a von Mises distribution.

Samples are drawn from a von Mises distribution with specified mode (mu) and dispersion (kappa), on the interval \([-\pi, \pi]\).
The von Mises distribution (also known as the circular normal distribution) is a continuous probability distribution on the unit circle. It may be thought of as the circular analogue of the normal distribution.

**Parameters**

**mu**

[float or array_like of floats] Mode ("center") of the distribution.

**kappa**

[float or array_like of floats] Dispersion of the distribution, has to be >=0.

**size**

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if mu and kappa are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(mu, kappa).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

**out**

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized von Mises distribution.

**See also:**

*scipy.stats.vonmises*

probability density function, distribution, or cumulative density function, etc.
Notes

The probability density for the von Mises distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{e^{\kappa \cos(x-\mu)}}{2\pi I_0(\kappa)}, \]

where \( \mu \) is the mode and \( \kappa \) the dispersion, and \( I_0(\kappa) \) is the modified Bessel function of order 0.

The von Mises is named for Richard Edler von Mises, who was born in Austria-Hungary, in what is now the Ukraine. He fled to the United States in 1939 and became a professor at Harvard. He worked in probability theory, aerodynamics, fluid mechanics, and philosophy of science.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> mu, kappa = 0.0, 4.0 # mean and dispersion
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().vonmises(mu, kappa, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from scipy.special import i0
>>> x = np.linspace(-np.pi, np.pi, num=51)
>>> y = np.exp(kappa*np.cos(x-mu))/(2*np.pi*i0(kappa))
>>> plt.plot(x, y, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```
random.Generator.wald(mean, scale, size=None)

Draw samples from a Wald, or inverse Gaussian, distribution.

As the scale approaches infinity, the distribution becomes more like a Gaussian. Some references claim that the Wald is an inverse Gaussian with mean equal to 1, but this is by no means universal.

The inverse Gaussian distribution was first studied in relationship to Brownian motion. In 1956 M.C.K. Tweedie used the name inverse Gaussian because there is an inverse relationship between the time to cover a unit distance and distance covered in unit time.

Parameters

- mean
  - [float or array_like of floats] Distribution mean, must be > 0.
- scale
  - [float or array_like of floats] Scale parameter, must be > 0.
- size
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if mean and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(mean, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

- out
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Wald distribution.

Notes

The probability density function for the Wald distribution is

\[ P(x; \text{mean}, \text{scale}) = \frac{\text{scale}}{2\pi x^3} e^{-\frac{\text{scale}(x-\text{mean})^2}{2(\text{mean}^2 x)}} \]

As noted above the inverse Gaussian distribution first arise from attempts to model Brownian motion. It is also a competitor to the Weibull for use in reliability modeling and modeling stock returns and interest rate processes.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> h = plt.hist(np.random.default_rng().wald(3, 2, 100000), bins=200, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```
random.Generator.weibull(a, size=None)

Draw samples from a Weibull distribution.

Draw samples from a 1-parameter Weibull distribution with the given shape parameter \( a \).

\[ X = (-\ln(U))^{1/a} \]

Here, \( U \) is drawn from the uniform distribution over (0,1].

The more common 2-parameter Weibull, including a scale parameter \( \lambda \) is just \( X = \lambda(-\ln(U))^{1/a} \).

Parameters

- **a**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Shape parameter of the distribution. Must be nonnegative.

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if a is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(a).size samples are drawn.

Returns

- **out**

  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Weibull distribution.

See also:

- scipy.stats.weibull_max
- scipy.stats.weibull_min
- scipy.stats.genextreme
- gumbel
Notes

The Weibull (or Type III asymptotic extreme value distribution for smallest values, SEV Type III, or Rosin-Rammler distribution) is one of a class of Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distributions used in modeling extreme value problems. This class includes the Gumbel and Frechet distributions.

The probability density for the Weibull distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{a}{\lambda} \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{a-1} e^{-\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^a} , \]

where \( a \) is the shape and \( \lambda \) the scale.

The function has its peak (the mode) at \( \lambda^{(a-1)/a} \).

When \( a = 1 \), the Weibull distribution reduces to the exponential distribution.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng()
>>> a = 5.  # shape
>>> s = rng.weibull(a, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = np.arange(1,100.)/50.
>>> def weib(x,n,a):
...     return (a / n) * (x / n)**(a - 1) * np.exp(-(x / n)**a)

>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(rng.weibull(5.,1000))
>>> x = np.arange(1,100.)/50.
>>> scale = count.max()/weib(x, 1., 5.).max()
>>> plt.plot(x, weib(x, 1., 5.)*scale)
>>> plt.show()
```

method

random.Generator.zipf(a, size=None)

Draw samples from a Zipf distribution.

Samples are drawn from a Zipf distribution with specified parameter \( a \geq 1 \).

The Zipf distribution (also known as the zeta distribution) is a continuous probability distribution that satisfies Zipf’s law: the frequency of an item is inversely proportional to its rank in a frequency table.

Parameters

\( a \)

[float or array_like of floats] Distribution parameter. Must be greater than \( 1 \).
size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if \(a\) is a scalar. Otherwise, \(\text{np.array}(a).\text{size}\) samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Zipf distribution.

See also:

\texttt{scipy.stats.zipf}

probability density function, distribution, or cumulative density function, etc.

Notes

The probability density for the Zipf distribution is

\[
p(x) = \frac{x^{-a}}{\zeta(a)},
\]

where \(\zeta\) is the Riemann Zeta function.

It is named for the American linguist George Kingsley Zipf, who noted that the frequency of any word in a sample of a language is inversely proportional to its rank in the frequency table.
References

[1]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a = 2.  # parameter
>>> s = np.random.default_rng().zipf(a, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from scipy import special

Truncate s values at 50 so plot is interesting:

```python
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s[s<50],
...                               50, density=True)
>>> x = np.arange(1., 50.)
>>> y = x**(-a) / special.zetac(a)
>>> plt.plot(x, y/max(y), linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```
Legacy Random Generation

The `RandomState` provides access to legacy generators. This generator is considered frozen and will have no further improvements. It is guaranteed to produce the same values as the final point release of NumPy v1.16. These all depend on Box-Muller normals or inverse CDF exponentials or gammas. This class should only be used if it is essential to have randoms that are identical to what would have been produced by previous versions of NumPy.

`RandomState` adds additional information to the state which is required when using Box-Muller normals since these are produced in pairs. It is important to use `RandomState.get_state`, and not the underlying bit generators `state`, when accessing the state so that these extra values are saved.

Although we provide the `MT19937` BitGenerator for use independent of `RandomState`, note that its default seeding uses `SeedSequence` rather than the legacy seeding algorithm. `RandomState` will use the legacy seeding algorithm. The methods to use the legacy seeding algorithm are currently private as the main reason to use them is just to implement `RandomState`. However, one can reset the state of `MT19937` using the state of the `RandomState`:

from numpy.random import MT19937
from numpy.random import RandomState

rs = RandomState(12345)
mt19937 = MT19937()
mt19937.state = rs.get_state()
rs2 = RandomState(mt19937)

# Same output
rs.standard_normal()
rs2.standard_normal()

rs.random()
rs2.random()

rs.standard_exponential()
rs2.standard_exponential()

class numpy.random.RandomState (seed=None)
Container for the slow Mersenne Twister pseudo-random number generator. Consider using a different BitGenerator with the Generator container instead.

`RandomState` and `Generator` expose a number of methods for generating random numbers drawn from a variety of probability distributions. In addition to the distribution-specific arguments, each method takes a keyword argument `size` that defaults to `None`. If `size` is `None`, then a single value is generated and returned. If `size` is an integer, then a 1-D array filled with generated values is returned. If `size` is a tuple, then an array with that shape is filled and returned.

Compatibility Guarantee

A fixed bit generator using a fixed seed and a fixed series of calls to ‘RandomState’ methods using the same parameters will always produce the same results up to roundoff error except when the values were incorrect. `RandomState` is effectively frozen and will only receive updates that are required by changes in the the internals of NumPy. More substantial changes, including algorithmic improvements, are reserved for `Generator`.

Parameters

- `seed`

  [[None, int, array_like, BitGenerator], optional] Random seed used to initialize the pseudo-random number generator or an instantized BitGenerator. If an integer or array, used as a seed for the MT19937 BitGenerator. Values can be any integer between 0 and 2**32 - 1 inclusive, an array (or other sequence) of such integers, or `None` (the default). If `seed` is

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None, then the \texttt{MT19937} BitGenerator is initialized by reading data from /dev/urandom (or the Windows analogue) if available or seed from the clock otherwise.

See also:

- \texttt{Generator}
- \texttt{MT19937}
- \texttt{numpy.random.BitGenerator}

Notes

The Python stdlib module “random” also contains a Mersenne Twister pseudo-random number generator with a number of methods that are similar to the ones available in \texttt{RandomState}. \texttt{RandomState}, besides being NumPy-aware, has the advantage that it provides a much larger number of probability distributions to choose from.

Seeding and State

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method

\begin{verbatim}
random.RandomState.get\_state()
Return a tuple representing the internal state of the generator.

For more details, see set\_state.

Parameters

 legacy
[bool, optional] Flag indicating to return a legacy tuple state when the BitGenerator is MT19937, instead of a dict.

Returns

 out
[(tuple(str, ndarray of 624 uints, int, int, float), dict)] The returned tuple has the following items:
1. the string ‘MT19937’.
2. a 1-D array of 624 unsigned integer keys.
3. an integer pos.
4. an integer has\_gauss.
5. a float cached\_gaussian.

If legacy is False, or the BitGenerator is not MT19937, then state is returned as a dictionary.

See also:
\end{verbatim}
**set_state**

**Notes**

`set_state` and `get_state` are not needed to work with any of the random distributions in NumPy. If the internal state is manually altered, the user should know exactly what he/she is doing.

method

```python
random.RandomState.set_state(state)
```

Set the internal state of the generator from a tuple.

For use if one has reason to manually (re-)set the internal state of the bit generator used by the RandomState instance. By default, RandomState uses the “Mersenne Twister”[1] pseudo-random number generating algorithm.

**Parameters**

state

```
[(tuple(str, ndarray of 624 uints, int, int, float), dict)]
```

The `state` tuple has the following items:

1. the string ‘MT19937’, specifying the Mersenne Twister algorithm.
2. a 1-D array of 624 unsigned integers `keys`.
3. an integer `pos`.
4. an integer `has_gauss`.
5. a float `cached_gaussian`.

If state is a dictionary, it is directly set using the BitGenerators `state` property.

**Returns**

out

```
[None]
```

Returns ‘None’ on success.

**See also:**

`get_state`

**Notes**

`set_state` and `get_state` are not needed to work with any of the random distributions in NumPy. If the internal state is manually altered, the user should know exactly what he/she is doing.

For backwards compatibility, the form (str, array of 624 uints, int) is also accepted although it is missing some information about the cached Gaussian value: `state = ('MT19937', keys, pos)`. 
References

[1]

method

```
random.RandomState.seed(self, seed=None)

Reseed a legacy MT19937 BitGenerator
```

Notes

This is a convenience, legacy function.

The best practice is to **not** reseed a BitGenerator, rather to recreate a new one. This method is here for legacy reasons. This example demonstrates best practice.

```
>>> from numpy.random import MT19937
>>> from numpy.random import RandomState, SeedSequence

# Later, you want to restart the stream
>>> rs = RandomState(MT19937(SeedSequence(987654321)))
```

**Simple random data**

```
random(d0, d1, ..., dn)  Random values in a given shape.
randn(d0, d1, ..., dn)  Return a sample (or samples) from the “standard normal” distribution.
randint(low[, high, size, dtype])  Return random integers from low (inclusive) to high (exclusive).
random_integers(low[, high, size])  Random integers of type np.int_ between low and high, inclusive.
random_sample([size])  Return random floats in the half-open interval [0.0, 1.0).
choice(a[, size, replace, p])  Generates a random sample from a given 1-D array
bytes(length)  Return random bytes.
```

method

```
random.RandomState.rand(d0, d1, ..., dn)  Random values in a given shape.
```

**Note:** This is a convenience function for users porting code from Matlab, and wraps `random_sample`. That function takes a tuple to specify the size of the output, which is consistent with other NumPy functions like `numpy.zeros` and `numpy.ones`.

Create an array of the given shape and populate it with random samples from a uniform distribution over \([0, 1)\).

**Parameters**

```
d0, d1, ..., dn  [int, optional] The dimensions of the returned array, must be non-negative. If no argument is given a single Python float is returned.
```

**Returns**
out

[ndarray, shape (d0, d1, ..., dn)] Random values.

See also:

random

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.rand(3, 2)
array([[0.14022471, 0.96360618],
       [0.37601032, 0.25528411],
       [0.49313049, 0.94909878]])
```

method

random.RandomState.rand(d0, d1, ..., dn)

Return a sample (or samples) from the “standard normal” distribution.

Note: This is a convenience function for users porting code from Matlab, and wraps standard_normal. That function takes a tuple to specify the size of the output, which is consistent with other NumPy functions like numpy.zeros and numpy.ones.

Note: New code should use the standard_normal method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

If positive int_like arguments are provided, randn generates an array of shape (d0, d1, ..., dn), filled with random floats sampled from a univariate “normal” (Gaussian) distribution of mean 0 and variance 1. A single float randomly sampled from the distribution is returned if no argument is provided.

Parameters

d0, d1, ..., dn

[int, optional] The dimensions of the returned array, must be non-negative. If no argument is given a single Python float is returned.

Returns

Z

[ndarray or float] A (d0, d1, ..., dn)-shaped array of floating-point samples from the standard normal distribution, or a single such float if no parameters were supplied.

See also:

standard_normal

Similar, but takes a tuple as its argument.

normal

Also accepts mu and sigma arguments.
Generator.standard_normal

which should be used for new code.

Notes

For random samples from \( N(\mu, \sigma^2) \), use:

\[
sigma * \text{np.random.randn}(...) + \mu
\]

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.randn()
2.1923875335537315  # random
```

Two-by-four array of samples from \( N(3, 6.25) \):

```python
>>> 3 + 2.5 * np.random.randn(2, 4)
array([[-4.49401501, 4.00950034, -1.81814867, 7.29718677],
       [ 0.39924804, 4.68456316, 4.99394529, 4.84057254]])  # random
```

method

```
random.RandomState.randint(low, high=None, size=None, dtype=int)
Return random integers from low (inclusive) to high (exclusive).
```

Return random integers from the “discrete uniform” distribution of the specified dtype in the “half-open” interval \([low, high)\). If high is None (the default), then results are from \([0, low)\).

Note: New code should use the integers method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- low
  - [int or array-like of ints] Lowest (signed) integers to be drawn from the distribution (unless high=None, in which case this parameter is one above the highest such integer).

- high
  - [int or array-like of ints, optional] If provided, one above the largest (signed) integer to be drawn from the distribution (see above for behavior if high=None). If array-like, must contain integer values.

- size
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

- dtype
  - [dtype, optional] Desired dtype of the result. Byteorder must be native. The default value is int.

New in version 1.11.0.
Returns

out

[int or ndarray of ints] size-shaped array of random integers from the appropriate distribution, or a single such random int if size not provided.

See also:

random_integers

similar to randint, only for the closed interval [low, high], and 1 is the lowest value if high is omitted.

Generator.integers

which should be used for new code.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.randint(2, size=10)
array([1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0]) # random
>>> np.random.randint(1, size=10)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0])
```

Generate a 2 x 4 array of ints between 0 and 4, inclusive:

```python
>>> np.random.randint(5, size=(2, 4))
array([[4, 0, 2, 1], # random
       [3, 2, 2, 0]])
```

Generate a 1 x 3 array with 3 different upper bounds

```python
>>> np.random.randint(1, [3, 5, 10])
array([2, 2, 9]) # random
```

Generate a 1 by 3 array with 3 different lower bounds

```python
>>> np.random.randint([1, 5, 7], 10)
array([9, 8, 7]) # random
```

Generate a 2 by 4 array using broadcasting with dtype of uint8

```python
>>> np.random.randint([1, 3, 5, 7], [[10], [20]], dtype=np.uint8)
array([[ 8,  6,  9,  7], # random
       [ 1, 16,  9, 12]], dtyp=uint8)
```

decl method

random.RandomState.random_integers (low, high=None, size=None)

Random integers of type np.int_ between low and high, inclusive.

Return random integers of type np.int_ from the “discrete uniform” distribution in the closed interval [low, high]. If high is None (the default), then results are from [1, low]. The np.int_ type translates to the C long integer type and its precision is platform dependent.

This function has been deprecated. Use randint instead.

Deprecated since version 1.11.0.
Parameters

low

[int] Lowest (signed) integer to be drawn from the distribution (unless high=None, in which case this parameter is the highest such integer).

high

[int, optional] If provided, the largest (signed) integer to be drawn from the distribution (see above for behavior if high=None).

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

Returns

out

[int or ndarray of ints] size-shaped array of random integers from the appropriate distribution, or a single such random int if size not provided.

See also:

randint

Similar to random integers, only for the half-open interval [low, high), and 0 is the lowest value if high is omitted.

Notes

To sample from N evenly spaced floating-point numbers between a and b, use:

\[ a + (b - a) \times (\text{np.random.random_integers}(N) - 1) / (N - 1.) \]

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.random_integers(5)
4 # random
>>> type(np.random.random_integers(5))
<class 'numpy.int64'>
>>> np.random.random_integers(5, size=(3,2))
array([[5, 4], # random
       [3, 3],
       [4, 5]])
```

Choose five random numbers from the set of five evenly-spaced numbers between 0 and 2.5, inclusive (i.e., from the set 0, 5/8, 10/8, 15/8, 20/8):

```python
>>> 2.5 * (np.random.random_integers(5, size=(5,)) - 1) / 4.
array([ 0.625,  1.25 ,  0.625,  0.625,  2.5 ]) # random
```

Roll two six sided dice 1000 times and sum the results:
Display results as a histogram:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(dsums, 11, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

```
2 4 6 8 10 12
0.000
0.025
0.050
0.075
0.100
0.125
0.150
0.175
```

```
(b - a) * random_sample() + a
```

**Note:** New code should use the `random` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

**Returns**

- **out**
[float or ndarray of floats] Array of random floats of shape \( \text{size} \) (unless \( \text{size}=\text{None} \), in which case a single float is returned).

See also:

Generator.random

which should be used for new code.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.random_sample()
0.47108547995356098  # random
>>> type(np.random.random_sample())
<class 'float'>
>>> np.random.random_sample((5,))
array([ 0.30220482, 0.86820401, 0.1654503 , 0.11659149, 0.54323428])  # random
```

Three-by-two array of random numbers from \([-5, 0)\):

```python
>>> 5 * np.random.random_sample((3, 2)) - 5
array([[ 3.99149989, -0.52338984],  # random
        [-2.99091858, -0.79479508],
        [-1.23204345, -1.75224494]])
```

method

```python
random.RandomState.choice(a, size=\text{None}, replace=\text{True}, p=\text{None})
```

Generates a random sample from a given 1-D array

New in version 1.7.0.

**Note:** New code should use the choice method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

\( a \)

[1-D array-like or int] If an ndarray, a random sample is generated from its elements. If an int, the random sample is generated as if it were \( \text{np.arange}(a) \)

\( \text{size} \)

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, \ n, \ k)\), then \( m \ * \ n \ * \ k \) samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

\( \text{replace} \)

[boolean, optional] Whether the sample is with or without replacement. Default is True, meaning that a value of \( a \) can be selected multiple times.

\( p \)

[1-D array-like, optional] The probabilities associated with each entry in \( a \). If not given, the sample assumes a uniform distribution over all entries in \( a \).
Returns

samples

[single item or ndarray] The generated random samples

Raises

ValueError

If a is an int and less than zero, if a or p are not 1-dimensional, if a is an array-like of size 0, if p is not a vector of probabilities, if a and p have different lengths, or if replace=False and the sample size is greater than the population size

See also:

randint, shuffle, permutation

Generator.choice

which should be used in new code

Notes

Setting user-specified probabilities through p uses a more general but less efficient sampler than the default. The general sampler produces a different sample than the optimized sampler even if each element of p is 1 / len(a).

Sampling random rows from a 2-D array is not possible with this function, but is possible with Generator.choice through its axis keyword.

Examples

Generate a uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3:

>>> np.random.choice(5, 3)
array([0, 3, 4]) # random

>>> #This is equivalent to np.random.randint(0,5,3)

Generate a non-uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3:

>>> np.random.choice(5, 3, p=[0.1, 0, 0.3, 0.6, 0])
array([3, 3, 0]) # random

Generate a uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3 without replacement:

>>> np.random.choice(5, 3, replace=False)
array([3, 1, 0]) # random

>>> #This is equivalent to np.random.permutation(np.arange(5))[:3]

Generate a non-uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3 without replacement:

>>> np.random.choice(5, 3, replace=False, p=[0.1, 0, 0.3, 0.6, 0])
array([2, 3, 0]) # random

Any of the above can be repeated with an arbitrary array-like instead of just integers. For instance:
```python
>>> aa_milne_arr = ['pooh', 'rabbit', 'piglet', 'Christopher']
>>> np.random.choice(aa_milne_arr, 5, p=[0.5, 0.1, 0.1, 0.3])
array(['pooh', 'pooh', 'pooh', 'Christopher', 'piglet'], dtype='<U11')
```

method

```python
random.RandomState.bytes(length)
    Return random bytes.
```

Note: New code should use the `bytes` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

length
    [int] Number of random bytes.

Returns

table
    [bytes] String of length `length`.

See also:

`Generator.bytes`
which should be used for new code.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.bytes(10)
b'ehU)2SZ¿u' # random
```

Permutations

```python
shuffle(x)          Modify a sequence in-place by shuffling its contents.
permutation(x)     Randomly permute a sequence, or return a permuted range.
```

method

```python
random.RandomState.shuffle(x)
    Modify a sequence in-place by shuffling its contents.
```

This function only shuffles the array along the first axis of a multi-dimensional array. The order of sub-arrays is changed but their contents remains the same.

Note: New code should use the `shuffle` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.
Parameters

x
[ndarray or MutableSequence] The array, list or mutable sequence to be shuffled.

Returns

None

See also:

Generator.shuffle
which should be used for new code.

Examples

```python
>>> arr = np.arange(10)
>>> np.random.shuffle(arr)
>>> arr
[1 7 5 2 9 4 3 6 0 8] # random
```

Multi-dimensional arrays are only shuffled along the first axis:

```python
>>> arr = np.arange(9).reshape((3, 3))
>>> np.random.shuffle(arr)
>>> arr
array([[3, 4, 5], # random
       [6, 7, 8],
       [0, 1, 2]])
```

method
random.RandomState.permutation(x)
Randomly permute a sequence, or return a permuted range.

If x is a multi-dimensional array, it is only shuffled along its first index.

**Note:** New code should use the permutation method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the *Quick Start.*

Parameters

x
[int or array_like] If x is an integer, randomly permute np.arange(x). If x is an array, make a copy and shuffle the elements randomly.

Returns

out
[ndarray] Permuted sequence or array range.
See also:

**Generator.permutation**

which should be used for new code.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.permutation(10)
array([1, 7, 4, 3, 0, 9, 2, 5, 8, 6]) # random
```

```python
>>> np.random.permutation([1, 4, 9, 12, 15])
array([15, 1, 9, 4, 12]) # random
```

```python
>>> arr = np.arange(9).reshape((3, 3))
>>> np.random.permutation(arr)
array([[6, 7, 8],
       [0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5]]) # random
```

Distributions

```text
beta(a, b[, size])
binomial(n, p[, size])
chisquare(df[, size])
dirichlet(alpha[, size])
exponential([scale, size])
f(dfnum, dfden[, size])
gamma(shape[, scale, size])
geometric(p[, size])
gumbel([loc, scale, size])
hypergeometric(ngood, nbad, nsample[, size])
laplace([loc, scale, size])
logistic([loc, scale, size])
lognormal([mean, sigma, size])
logseries(p[, size])
multinomial(n, pvals[, size])
multivariate_normal(mean, cov[, size, ...])
negative_binomial(n, p[, size])
noncentral_chisquare(df, nonc[, size])
noncentral_f(dfnum, dfden, nonc[, size])
normal([loc, scale, size])
pareto(a[, size])
poisson([lam, size])
power(a[, size])
```

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### random.RandomState.beta(a, b, size=None)

Draw samples from a Beta distribution.

The Beta distribution is a special case of the Dirichlet distribution, and is related to the Gamma distribution. It has the probability distribution function

\[
f(x; a, b) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1},
\]

where the normalization, \(B\), is the beta function,

\[
B(\alpha, \beta) = \int_0^1 t^{\alpha-1} (1-t)^{\beta-1} dt.
\]

It is often seen in Bayesian inference and order statistics.

**Note:** New code should use the `beta` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Alpha, positive (>0).

- **b**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Beta, positive (>0).

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if \(a\) and \(b\) are both scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(a, b).size` samples are drawn.

**Returns**

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out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized beta distribution.

See also:

Generator.beta

which should be used for new code.

method

random.RandomState.binomial(n, p, size=None)

Draw samples from a binomial distribution.

Samples are drawn from a binomial distribution with specified parameters, n trials and p probability of success where n an integer >= 0 and p is in the interval [0,1]. (n may be input as a float, but it is truncated to an integer in use)

Note: New code should use the binomial method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

n

[int or array_like of ints] Parameter of the distribution, >= 0. Floats are also accepted, but they will be truncated to integers.

p

[float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution, >= 0 and <=1.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if n and p are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(n, p).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized binomial distribution, where each sample is equal to the number of successes over the n trials.

See also:

scipy.stats.binom

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.binomial

which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density for the binomial distribution is

\[ P(N) = \binom{n}{N} p^N (1 - p)^{n-N}, \]

where \( n \) is the number of trials, \( p \) is the probability of success, and \( N \) is the number of successes.

When estimating the standard error of a proportion in a population by using a random sample, the normal distribution works well unless the product \( p \times n \leq 5 \), where \( p \) = population proportion estimate, and \( n \) = number of samples, in which case the binomial distribution is used instead. For example, a sample of 15 people shows 4 who are left handed, and 11 who are right handed. Then \( p = \frac{4}{15} = 27\% \). \( 0.27 \times 15 = 4 \), so the binomial distribution should be used in this case.

References

[1], [2], [3], [4], [5]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> n, p = 10, .5  # number of trials, probability of each trial
>>> s = np.random.binomial(n, p, 1000)
# result of flipping a coin 10 times, tested 1000 times.
```

A real world example. A company drills 9 wild-cat oil exploration wells, each with an estimated probability of success of 0.1. All nine wells fail. What is the probability of that happening?

Let's do 20,000 trials of the model, and count the number that generate zero positive results.

```python
>>> sum(np.random.binomial(9, 0.1, 20000) == 0)/20000.
# answer = 0.38885, or 38%.
```

method

```python
random.RandomState.chisquare(df, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a chi-square distribution.

When \( df \) independent random variables, each with standard normal distributions (mean 0, variance 1), are squared and summed, the resulting distribution is chi-square (see Notes). This distribution is often used in hypothesis testing.

**Note:** New code should use the chisquare method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.
size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if df is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(df).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized chi-square distribution.

Raises

ValueError

When df <= 0 or when an inappropriate size (e.g. size=-1) is given.

See also:

Generator.chisquare

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The variable obtained by summing the squares of df independent, standard normally distributed random variables:

\[ Q = \sum_{i=0}^{df} X_i^2 \]

is chi-square distributed, denoted

\[ Q \sim \chi^2_k. \]

The probability density function of the chi-squared distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{(1/2)^{k/2}}{\Gamma(k/2)} x^{k/2-1} e^{-x/2}, \]

where \( \Gamma \) is the gamma function,

\[ \Gamma(x) = \int_{0}^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt. \]

References

[1]
**Examples**

```python
>>> np.random.chisquare(2, 4)
array([ 1.89920014, 9.00867716, 3.13710533, 5.62318272])  # random
```

**Method**

`random.RandomState.dirichlet(alpha, size=None)`

Draw samples from the Dirichlet distribution.

Draw `size` samples of dimension `k` from a Dirichlet distribution. A Dirichlet-distributed random variable can be seen as a multivariate generalization of a Beta distribution. The Dirichlet distribution is a conjugate prior of a multinomial distribution in Bayesian inference.

**Note:** New code should use the `dirichlet` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the `Quick Start`.

**Parameters**

- `alpha`
  
  [sequence of floats, length k] Parameter of the distribution (length `k` for sample of length `k`).

- `size`
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n)`, then `m * n` * `k` samples are drawn. Default is `None`, in which case a vector of length `k` is returned.

**Returns**

- `samples`
  
  [ndarray,] The drawn samples, of shape `(size, k)`.

**Raises**

- `ValueError`
  
  If any value in `alpha` is less than or equal to zero

**See also:**

`Generator.dirichlet`

which should be used for new code.
Notes

The Dirichlet distribution is a distribution over vectors \( x \) that fulfil the conditions \( x_i > 0 \) and \( \sum_{i=1}^{k} x_i = 1 \).

The probability density function \( p \) of a Dirichlet-distributed random vector \( X \) is proportional to

\[
p(x) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{k} x_i^{\alpha_i - 1},
\]

where \( \alpha \) is a vector containing the positive concentration parameters.

The method uses the following property for computation: let \( Y \) be a random vector which has components that follow a standard gamma distribution, then \( X = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} Y_i} Y \) is Dirichlet-distributed.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Taking an example cited in Wikipedia, this distribution can be used if one wanted to cut strings (each of initial length 1.0) into \( K \) pieces with different lengths, where each piece had, on average, a designated average length, but allowing some variation in the relative sizes of the pieces.

```python
>>> s = np.random.dirichlet((10, 5, 3), 20).transpose()
```

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> plt.barh(range(20), s[0])
>>> plt.barh(range(20), s[1], left=s[0], color='g')
>>> plt.barh(range(20), s[2], left=s[0]+s[1], color='r')
>>> plt.title("Lengths of Strings")
```

```python
```

method
random.RandomState.exponential (scale=1.0, size=None)

Draw samples from an exponential distribution.

Its probability density function is

\[ f(x; \beta) = \frac{1}{\beta} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\beta}\right), \]

for \( x > 0 \) and 0 elsewhere. \( \beta \) is the scale parameter, which is the inverse of the rate parameter \( \lambda = 1/\beta \). The rate parameter is an alternative, widely used parameterization of the exponential distribution [3].

The exponential distribution is a continuous analogue of the geometric distribution. It describes many common situations, such as the size of raindrops measured over many rainstorms [1], or the time between page requests to Wikipedia [2].

**Note:** New code should use the exponential method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- **scale**
  - [float or array_like of floats] The scale parameter, \( \beta = 1/\lambda \). Must be non-negative.

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if scale (default), a single value is returned if scale is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(scale).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized exponential distribution.

**See also:**

- Generator.exponential
  - which should be used for new code.

**References**

[1], [2], [3]

method

random.RandomState.f (dfnum, dfden, size=None)

Draw samples from an F distribution.

Samples are drawn from an F distribution with specified parameters, \( dfnum \) (degrees of freedom in numerator) and \( dfden \) (degrees of freedom in denominator), where both parameters must be greater than zero.

The random variate of the F distribution (also known as the Fisher distribution) is a continuous probability distribution that arises in ANOVA tests, and is the ratio of two chi-square variates.
**Parameters**

- **dfnum**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Degrees of freedom in numerator, must be > 0.

- **dfden**
  
  [float or array_like of float] Degrees of freedom in denominator, must be > 0.

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `dfnum` and `dfden` are both scalars. Otherwise, \(\text{np.broadcast}(\text{dfnum}, \text{dfden}).\text{size}\) samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- **out**
  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Fisher distribution.

**See also:**

- `scipy.stats.f`
  
  probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

- `Generator.f`
  
  which should be used for new code.

**Notes**

The F statistic is used to compare in-group variances to between-group variances. Calculating the distribution depends on the sampling, and so it is a function of the respective degrees of freedom in the problem. The variable `dfnum` is the number of samples minus one, the between-groups degrees of freedom, while `dfden` is the within-groups degrees of freedom, the sum of the number of samples in each group minus the number of groups.

**References**

[1], [2]
Examples

An example from Glantz[1], pp 47-40:

Two groups, children of diabetics (25 people) and children from people without diabetes (25 controls). Fasting blood glucose was measured, case group had a mean value of 86.1, controls had a mean value of 82.2. Standard deviations were 2.09 and 2.49 respectively. Are these data consistent with the null hypothesis that the parents diabetic status does not affect their children’s blood glucose levels? Calculating the F statistic from the data gives a value of 36.01.

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> dfnum = 1. # between group degrees of freedom
>>> dfden = 48. # within groups degrees of freedom
>>> s = np.random.f(dfnum, dfden, 1000)
```

The lower bound for the top 1% of the samples is:

```python
>>> np.sort(s)[-10]
7.61988120985 # random
```

So there is about a 1% chance that the F statistic will exceed 7.62, the measured value is 36, so the null hypothesis is rejected at the 1% level.

Method

```python
random.RandomState.gamma(shape, scale=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a Gamma distribution.

Samples are drawn from a Gamma distribution with specified parameters, shape (sometimes designated “k”) and scale (sometimes designated “theta”), where both parameters are > 0.

**Note:** New code should use the gamma method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- `shape`
  - [float or array_like of floats] The shape of the gamma distribution. Must be non-negative.

- `scale`
  - [float or array_like of floats, optional] The scale of the gamma distribution. Must be non-negative. Default is equal to 1.

- `size`
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if shape and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(shape, scale).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- `out`
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized gamma distribution.
See also:

`scipy.stats.gamma`

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

`Generator.gamma`

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Gamma distribution is

\[
p(x) = x^{k-1} e^{-x/\theta} \frac{1}{\theta^k \Gamma(k)},
\]

where \(k\) is the shape and \(\theta\) the scale, and \(\Gamma\) is the Gamma function.

The Gamma distribution is often used to model the times to failure of electronic components, and arises naturally in processes for which the waiting times between Poisson distributed events are relevant.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> shape, scale = 2., 2. # mean=4, std=2*sqrt(2)
>>> s = np.random.gamma(shape, scale, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> import scipy.special as sps
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 50, density=True)
>>> y = bins**(shape-1)*(np.exp(-bins/scale) /... (sps.gamma(shape)*scale**shape))
>>> plt.plot(bins, y, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

method

`random.RandomState.geometric(p, size=None)`

Draw samples from the geometric distribution.

Bernoulli trials are experiments with one of two outcomes: success or failure (an example of such an experiment is flipping a coin). The geometric distribution models the number of trials that must be run in order to achieve success. It is therefore supported on the positive integers, \(k = 1, 2, \ldots\).

The probability mass function of the geometric distribution is

\[
f(k) = (1-p)^{k-1} p
\]

where \(p\) is the probability of success of an individual trial.
Note: New code should use the `geometric` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

`p`

[float or array_like of floats] The probability of success of an individual trial.

`size`

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `p` is a scalar. Otherwise, `np.array(p).size` samples are drawn.

Returns

`out`

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized geometric distribution.

See also:

`Generator.geometric`

which should be used for new code.
Examples

Draw ten thousand values from the geometric distribution, with the probability of an individual success equal to 0.35:

```python
>>> z = np.random.geometric(p=0.35, size=10000)
```

How many trials succeeded after a single run?

```python
>>> (z == 1).sum() / 10000.
0.34889999999999999 #random
```

method

```python
random.RandomState.gumbel(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a Gumbel distribution.

Draw samples from a Gumbel distribution with specified location and scale. For more information on the Gumbel distribution, see Notes and References below.

**Note:** New code should use the `gumbel` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- `loc`
  - [float or array_like of floats, optional] The location of the mode of the distribution. Default is 0.

- `scale`
  - [float or array_like of floats, optional] The scale parameter of the distribution. Default is 1. Must be non-negative.

- `size`
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `loc` and `scale` are both scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(loc, scale).size` samples are drawn.

Returns

- `out`
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Gumbel distribution.

See also:

- `scipy.stats.gumbel_l`
- `scipy.stats.gumbel_r`
- `scipy.stats.genextreme`
- `weibull`
Generator.gumbel

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The Gumbel (or Smallest Extreme Value (SEV) or the Smallest Extreme Value Type I) distribution is one of a class of Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distributions used in modeling extreme value problems. The Gumbel is a special case of the Extreme Value Type I distribution for maximums from distributions with “exponential-like” tails.

The probability density for the Gumbel distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{e^{-(x-\mu)/\beta}}{\beta} e^{-e^{-(x-\mu)/\beta}}, \]

where \( \mu \) is the mode, a location parameter, and \( \beta \) is the scale parameter.

The Gumbel (named for German mathematician Emil Julius Gumbel) was used very early in the hydrology literature, for modeling the occurrence of flood events. It is also used for modeling maximum wind speed and rainfall rates. It is a “fat-tailed” distribution - the probability of an event in the tail of the distribution is larger than if one used a Gaussian, hence the surprisingly frequent occurrence of 100-year floods. Floods were initially modeled as a Gaussian process, which underestimated the frequency of extreme events.

It is one of a class of extreme value distributions, the Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distributions, which also includes the Weibull and Frechet.

The function has a mean of \( \mu + 0.57721 \beta \) and a variance of \( \frac{\pi^2}{6} \beta^2 \).

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> mu, beta = 0, 0.1 # location and scale
>>> s = np.random.gumbel(mu, beta, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 30, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(bins, (1/beta)*np.exp(-((bins - mu)/beta)),
>>>          linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

Show how an extreme value distribution can arise from a Gaussian process and compare to a Gaussian:

```python
>>> means = []
>>> maxima = []
>>> for i in range(0,1000) :
...     a = np.random.normal(mu, beta, 1000)
...     means.append(np.mean(a))
...     maxima.append(a.max())
```
... means.append(a.mean())
... maxima.append(a.max())

>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(maxima, 30, density=True)

>>> beta = np.std(maxima) * np.sqrt(6) / np.pi
>>> mu = np.mean(maxima) - 0.57721*beta

>>> plt.plot(bins, (1/beta)*np.exp(-(bins - mu)/beta)
... * np.exp(-(bins - mu)/beta),
... linewidth=2, color='r')

>>> plt.plot(bins, 1/(beta * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi))
... * np.exp(-(bins - mu)**2 / (2 * beta**2)),
... linewidth=2, color='g')

>>> plt.show()
Draw samples from a Hypergeometric distribution.

Samples are drawn from a hypergeometric distribution with specified parameters, `ngood` (ways to make a good selection), `nbad` (ways to make a bad selection), and `nsample` (number of items sampled, which is less than or equal to the sum `ngood + nbad`).

**Note:** New code should use the `hypergeometric` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the [Quick Start](https://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/reference/random/generated/numpy.random.default_rng.html).

**Parameters**

- `ngood`  
  [int or array_like of ints] Number of ways to make a good selection. Must be nonnegative.

- `nbad`  
  [int or array_like of ints] Number of ways to make a bad selection. Must be nonnegative.

- `nsample`  
  [int or array_like of ints] Number of items sampled. Must be at least 1 and at most `ngood + nbad`.

- `size`  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `ngood`, `nbad`, and `nsample` are all scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(ngood, nbad, nsample)`. size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- `out`  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized hypergeometric distribution. Each sample is the number of good items within a randomly selected subset of size `nsample` taken from a set of `ngood` good items and `nbad` bad items.

**See also:**

- `scipy.stats.hypergeom`  
  probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

- `Generator.hypergeometric`  
  which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density for the Hypergeometric distribution is

\[ P(x) = \frac{{g \choose x} {b \choose n-x}}{{n \choose n}}. \]

where \( 0 \leq x \leq n \) and \( n-b \leq x \leq g \)

for \( P(x) \) the probability of \( x \) good results in the drawn sample, \( g = ngood \), \( b = nbad \), and \( n = nsample \).

Consider an urn with black and white marbles in it, \( ngood \) of them are black and \( nbad \) are white. If you draw \( nsample \) balls without replacement, then the hypergeometric distribution describes the distribution of black balls in the drawn sample.

Note that this distribution is very similar to the binomial distribution, except that in this case, samples are drawn without replacement, whereas in the Binomial case samples are drawn with replacement (or the sample space is infinite). As the sample space becomes large, this distribution approaches the binomial.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> ngood, nbad, nsamp = 100, 2, 10
# number of good, number of bad, and number of samples
>>> s = np.random.hypergeometric(ngood, nbad, nsamp, 1000)
>>> from matplotlib.pyplot import hist
>>> hist(s)
# note that it is very unlikely to grab both bad items
```

Suppose you have an urn with 15 white and 15 black marbles. If you pull 15 marbles at random, how likely is it that 12 or more of them are one color?

```python
>>> s = np.random.hypergeometric(15, 15, 15, 100000)
>>> sum(s>=12)/100000. + sum(s<=3)/100000.
# answer = 0.003 ... pretty unlikely!
```

method

random.RandomState.laplace (loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)

Draw samples from the Laplace or double exponential distribution with specified location (or mean) and scale (decay).

The Laplace distribution is similar to the Gaussian/normal distribution, but is sharper at the peak and has fatter tails. It represents the difference between two independent, identically distributed exponential random variables.

Note: New code should use the laplace method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters
loc

[float or array_like of floats, optional] The position, \( \mu \), of the distribution peak. Default is 0.

scale

[float or array_like of floats, optional] \( \lambda \), the exponential decay. Default is 1. Must be non-negative.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m * n * k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if loc and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(loc, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Laplace distribution.

See also:

Generator.laplace

which should be used for new code.

Notes

It has the probability density function

\[
f(x; \mu, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2\lambda} \exp\left(-\frac{|x - \mu|}{\lambda}\right).
\]

The first law of Laplace, from 1774, states that the frequency of an error can be expressed as an exponential function of the absolute magnitude of the error, which leads to the Laplace distribution. For many problems in economics and health sciences, this distribution seems to model the data better than the standard Gaussian distribution.

References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution

```python
>>> loc, scale = 0., 1.
>>> s = np.random.laplace(loc, scale, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 30, density=True)
>>> x = np.arange(-8., 8., .01)
>>> pdf = np.exp(-abs(x-loc)/scale)/(2.*scale)
>>> plt.plot(x, pdf)
```
Plot Gaussian for comparison:

```python
>>> g = (1/(scale * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi))) * 
    ... np.exp(-(x - loc)**2 / (2 * scale**2))
>>> plt.plot(x, g)
```

method

```python
random.RandomState.logistic(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a logistic distribution.

Samples are drawn from a logistic distribution with specified parameters, loc (location or mean, also median), and scale (>0).

**Note:** New code should use the logistic method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- `loc`
  - [float or array_like of floats, optional] Parameter of the distribution. Default is 0.

- `scale`
  - [float or array_like of floats, optional] Parameter of the distribution. Must be non-negative. Default is 1.

- `size`
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if loc and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(loc, scale).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**
out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized logistic distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.logistic

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.logistic

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Logistic distribution is

\[ P(x) = P(x) = \frac{e^{-(x-\mu)/s}}{s(1 + e^{-(x-\mu)/s})^2}, \]

where \( \mu = \) location and \( s = \) scale.

The Logistic distribution is used in Extreme Value problems where it can act as a mixture of Gumbel distributions, in Epidemiology, and by the World Chess Federation (FIDE) where it is used in the Elo ranking system, assuming the performance of each player is a logistically distributed random variable.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> loc, scale = 10, 1
>>> s = np.random.logistic(loc, scale, 10000)
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, bins=50)
```

# plot against distribution

```python
>>> def logist(x, loc, scale):
...     return np.exp((loc-x)/scale)/((scale*(1+np.exp((loc-x)/scale)))**2)
>>> lgst_val = logist(bins, loc, scale)
>>> plt.plot(bins, lgst_val * count.max() / lgst_val.max())
>>> plt.show()
```

method

random.RandomState.lognormal (mean=0.0, sigma=1.0, size=\texttt{None})

Draw samples from a log-normal distribution.

Draw samples from a log-normal distribution with specified mean, standard deviation, and array shape. Note that the mean and standard deviation are not the values for the distribution itself, but of the underlying normal distribution it is derived from.
Note: New code should use the `lognormal` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- **mean**
  
  [float or array_like of floats, optional] Mean value of the underlying normal distribution. Default is 0.

- **sigma**
  
  [float or array_like of floats, optional] Standard deviation of the underlying normal distribution. Must be non-negative. Default is 1.

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `mean` and `sigma` are both scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(mean, sigma).size` samples are drawn.

Returns

- **out**
  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized log-normal distribution.

See also:

- `scipy.stats.lognorm`
  
  probability density function, distribution, cumulative density function, etc.

- `Generator.lognormal`
  
  which should be used for new code.
Notes

A variable \( x \) has a log-normal distribution if \( \log(x) \) is normally distributed. The probability density function for the log-normal distribution is:

\[
p(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma x \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(\ln(x) - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}
\]

where \( \mu \) is the mean and \( \sigma \) is the standard deviation of the normally distributed logarithm of the variable. A log-normal distribution results if a random variable is the product of a large number of independent, identically-distributed variables in the same way that a normal distribution results if the variable is the sum of a large number of independent, identically-distributed variables.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> mu, sigma = 3., 1. # mean and standard deviation
>>> s = np.random.lognormal(mu, sigma, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 100, density=True, align='mid')
```

```python
>>> x = np.linspace(min(bins), max(bins), 10000)
>>> pdf = (np.exp(-(np.log(x) - mu)**2 / (2 * sigma**2))
...       / (x * sigma * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)))
```

```python
>>> plt.plot(x, pdf, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.axis('tight')
>>> plt.show()
```

Demonstrate that taking the products of random samples from a uniform distribution can be fit well by a log-normal probability density function.

```python
>>> # Generate a thousand samples: each is the product of 100 random values, drawn from a normal distribution.
>>> b = []
>>> for i in range(1000):
...     a = 10. + np.random.standard_normal(100)
...     b.append(np.product(a))
```

```python
>>> b = np.array(b) / np.min(b) # scale values to be positive
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(b, 100, density=True, align='mid')
>>> sigma = np.std(np.log(b))
>>> mu = np.mean(np.log(b))
```

```python
>>> x = np.linspace(min(bins), max(bins), 10000)
>>> pdf = (np.exp(-(np.log(x) - mu)**2 / (2 * sigma**2))
...       / (x * sigma * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)))
```
```python
>>> plt.plot(x, pdf, color='r', linewidth=2)
>>> plt.show()
```

```python
method
random.RandomState.logseries(p, size=None)
Draw samples from a logarithmic series distribution.

Samples are drawn from a log series distribution with specified shape parameter, $0 < p < 1$.

Note: New code should use the logseries method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters
p
[ float or array_like of floats ] Shape parameter for the distribution. Must be in the range (0, 1).

size
[ int or tuple of ints, optional ] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m
* n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if p is a
scalar. Otherwise, np.array(p).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out
[ ndarray or scalar ] Drawn samples from the parameterized logarithmic series distribution.

See also:
scipy.stats.logser
probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.logseries
which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Log Series distribution is

\[ P(k) = \frac{-p^k}{k \ln(1 - p)}, \]

where \( p \) = probability.

The log series distribution is frequently used to represent species richness and occurrence, first proposed by Fisher,
Corbet, and Williams in 1943 [2]. It may also be used to model the numbers of occupants seen in cars [3].

References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a = .6
>>> s = np.random.logseries(a, 10000)
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s)
```

# plot against distribution
```python
>>> def logseries(k, p):
...     return -p**k/(k*np.log(1-p))
>>> plt.plot(bins, logseries(bins, a)*count.max()/
...     logseries(bins, a).max(), 'r')
>>> plt.show()
```

```
method

```
```random.RandomState.multinomial(n, pvals, size=None)```  
Draw samples from a multinomial distribution.

The multinomial distribution is a multivariate generalization of the binomial distribution. Take an experiment with one of \( p \) possible outcomes. An example of such an experiment is throwing a dice, where the outcome can be 1 through 6. Each sample drawn from the distribution represents \( n \) such experiments. Its values, \( X_i = [X_0, X_1, \ldots, X_p] \), represent the number of times the outcome was \( i \).

**Note:** New code should use the `multinomial` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

\( n \)

[int] Number of experiments.

\( pvals \)

[sequence of floats, length \( p \)] Probabilities of each of the \( p \) different outcomes. These must sum to 1 (however, the last element is always assumed to account for the remaining probability, as long as \( \text{sum}(pvals[:-1]) \leq 1 \)).

\( size \)

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \( m * n * k \) samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.
Returns

```
out
```

[ndarray] The drawn samples, of shape `size`, if that was provided. If not, the shape is `(N,)`.

In other words, each entry `out[i,j,...,:]` is an N-dimensional value drawn from the distribution.

See also:

`Generator.multinomial` which should be used for new code.

Examples

Throw a dice 20 times:

```
>>> np.random.multinomial(20, [1/6.]*6, size=1)
array([[4, 1, 7, 5, 2, 1]])  # random
```

It landed 4 times on 1, once on 2, etc.

Now, throw the dice 20 times, and 20 times again:

```
>>> np.random.multinomial(20, [1/6.]*6, size=2)
array([[3, 4, 3, 4, 3],  # random
        [2, 4, 3, 4, 0]])
```

For the first run, we threw 3 times 1, 4 times 2, etc. For the second, we threw 2 times 1, 4 times 2, etc.

A loaded die is more likely to land on number 6:

```
>>> np.random.multinomial(100, [1/7.]*5 + [2/7.])
array([11, 16, 14, 17, 16, 26])  # random
```

The probability inputs should be normalized. As an implementation detail, the value of the last entry is ignored and assumed to take up any leftover probability mass, but this should not be relied on. A biased coin which has twice as much weight on one side as on the other should be sampled like so:

```
>>> np.random.multinomial(100, [1.0 / 3, 2.0 / 3])  # RIGHT
array([38, 62])  # random
```

not like:

```
>>> np.random.multinomial(100, [1.0, 2.0])  # WRONG
Traceback (most recent call last):
ValueError: pvals < 0, pvals > 1 or pvals contains NaNs
```

method

`random.RandomState.multivariate_normal(mean, cov, size=None, check_valid='warn', tol=1e-8)`

Draw random samples from a multivariate normal distribution.

The multivariate normal, multinormal or Gaussian distribution is a generalization of the one-dimensional normal distribution to higher dimensions. Such a distribution is specified by its mean and covariance matrix. These parameters are analogous to the mean (average or “center”) and variance (standard deviation, or “width,” squared) of the one-dimensional normal distribution.
Note: New code should use the `multivariate_normal` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

**mean**

[1-D array_like, of length N] Mean of the N-dimensional distribution.

**cov**

[2-D array_like, of shape (N, N)] Covariance matrix of the distribution. It must be symmetric and positive-semidefinite for proper sampling.

**size**

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Given a shape of, for example, (m, n, k), m*n*k samples are generated, and packed in an m-by-n-by-k arrangement. Because each sample is N-dimensional, the output shape is (m, n, k, N). If no shape is specified, a single (N-D) sample is returned.

**check_valid**

[{'warn', 'raise', 'ignore'}, optional] Behavior when the covariance matrix is not positive semidefinite.

**tol**

[float, optional] Tolerance when checking the singular values in covariance matrix. cov is cast to double before the check.

Returns

**out**

[ndarray] The drawn samples, of shape size, if that was provided. If not, the shape is (N,).

In other words, each entry `out[i, j, ..., :]` is an N-dimensional value drawn from the distribution.

See also:

* `Generator.multivariate_normal` which should be used for new code.

Notes

The mean is a coordinate in N-dimensional space, which represents the location where samples are most likely to be generated. This is analogous to the peak of the bell curve for the one-dimensional or univariate normal distribution.

Covariance indicates the level to which two variables vary together. From the multivariate normal distribution, we draw N-dimensional samples, \( X = [x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N] \). The covariance matrix element \( C_{ij} \) is the covariance of \( x_i \) and \( x_j \). The element \( C_{ii} \) is the variance of \( x_i \) (i.e. its “spread”).

Instead of specifying the full covariance matrix, popular approximations include:

- Spherical covariance (\( \text{cov} \) is a multiple of the identity matrix)
- Diagonal covariance (\( \text{cov} \) has non-negative elements, and only on the diagonal)
This geometrical property can be seen in two dimensions by plotting generated data-points:

```python
>>> mean = [0, 0]
>>> cov = [[1, 0], [0, 100]]  # diagonal covariance
```

Diagonal covariance means that points are oriented along x or y-axis:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x, y = np.random.multivariate_normal(mean, cov, 5000).T
>>> plt.plot(x, y, 'x')
>>> plt.axis('equal')
>>> plt.show()
```

Note that the covariance matrix must be positive semidefinite (a.k.a. nonnegative-definite). Otherwise, the behavior of this method is undefined and backwards compatibility is not guaranteed.

**References**

[1], [2]

**Examples**

```python
>>> mean = (1, 2)
>>> cov = [[1, 0], [0, 1]]
>>> x = np.random.multivariate_normal(mean, cov, (3, 3))
>>> x.shape
(3, 3, 2)
```

The following is probably true, given that 0.6 is roughly twice the standard deviation:

```python
>>> list((x[0, 0, :] - mean) < 0.6)
[True, True]  # random
```

**random.RandomState.negative_binomial** *(n, p, size=None)*

Draw samples from a negative binomial distribution.

Samples are drawn from a negative binomial distribution with specified parameters, *n* successes and *p* probability of success where *n* is >0 and *p* is in the interval [0, 1].

**Note:** New code should use the `negative_binomial` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- **n**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution, >0.

- **p**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution, >= 0 and <=1.
size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if \(n\) and \(p\) are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast\((n, p)\).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized negative binomial distribution, where each sample is equal to \(N\), the number of failures that occurred before a total of \(n\) successes was reached.

See also:

Generator.negative_binomial

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability mass function of the negative binomial distribution is

\[
P(N; n, p) = \frac{\Gamma(N + n)}{N! \Gamma(n)} p^n (1 - p)^N,
\]

where \(n\) is the number of successes, \(p\) is the probability of success, \(N + n\) is the number of trials, and \(\Gamma\) is the gamma function. When \(n\) is an integer, \(\frac{\Gamma(N + n)}{N! \Gamma(n)} = \binom{N+n-1}{N}\), which is the more common form of this term in the pmf. The negative binomial distribution gives the probability of \(N\) failures given \(n\) successes, with a success on the last trial.

If one throws a die repeatedly until the third time a “1” appears, then the probability distribution of the number of non-“1”s that appear before the third “1” is a negative binomial distribution.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

A real world example. A company drills wild-cat oil exploration wells, each with an estimated probability of success of 0.1. What is the probability of having one success for each successive well, that is what is the probability of a single success after drilling 5 wells, after 6 wells, etc.?

```python
>>> s = np.random.negative_binomial(1, 0.1, 100000)
>>> for i in range(1, 11):
...     probability = sum(s<i) / 100000.
...     print(i, "wells drilled, probability of one success =", probability)
```

method
random.RandomState.noncentral_chisquare(df, nonc, size=None)

Draw samples from a noncentral chi-square distribution.

The noncentral \( \chi^2 \) distribution is a generalization of the \( \chi^2 \) distribution.

**Note:** New code should use the noncentral_chisquare method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- **df**
  - [float or array_like of floats] Degrees of freedom, must be > 0.
  - Changed in version 1.10.0: Earlier NumPy versions required dfnum > 1.

- **nonc**
  - [float or array_like of floats] Non-centrality, must be non-negative.

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if df and nonc are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(df, nonc).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized noncentral chi-square distribution.

**See also:**

Generator.noncentral_chisquare

which should be used for new code.

**Notes**

The probability density function for the noncentral Chi-square distribution is

\[
P(x; df, nonc) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-nonc/2}(nonc/2)^i}{i!} P_{Y_{df+2i}}(x),
\]

where \( Y_q \) is the Chi-square with \( q \) degrees of freedom.
References

[1]

Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> values = plt.hist(np.random.noncentral_chisquare(3, 20, 100000),
...                     bins=200, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

![Histogram of non-central chi-square distribution](image)

Draw values from a noncentral chi-square with very small noncentrality, and compare to a chi-square.

```python
>>> plt.figure()
>>> values = plt.hist(np.random.noncentral_chisquare(3, 0.000001, 100000),
...                    bins=np.arange(0., 25, .1), density=True)
>>> values2 = plt.hist(np.random.chisquare(3, 100000),
...                    bins=np.arange(0., 25, .1), density=True)
>>> plt.plot(values[1][0:-1], values[0]-values2[0], 'ob')
>>> plt.show()
```

Demonstrate how large values of non-centrality lead to a more symmetric distribution.

```python
>>> plt.figure()
>>> values = plt.hist(np.random.noncentral_chisquare(3, 20, 100000),
...                    bins=200, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

method

```python
random.RandomState.noncentral_f(dfnum, dfden, nonc, size=None)
```

Draw samples from the noncentral F distribution.

Samples are drawn from an F distribution with specified parameters, \(dfnum\) (degrees of freedom in numerator) and \(dfden\) (degrees of freedom in denominator), where both parameters > 1. \(nonc\) is the non-centrality parameter.
4.23. Random sampling (*numpy.random*)
Note: New code should use the `noncentral_f` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

**dfnum**

[float or array_like of floats] Numerator degrees of freedom, must be > 0.

Changed in version 1.14.0: Earlier NumPy versions required dfnum > 1.

**dfden**

[float or array_like of floats] Denominator degrees of freedom, must be > 0.

**nonc**

[float or array_like of floats] Non-centrality parameter, the sum of the squares of the numerator means, must be >= 0.

**size**

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `dfnum`, `dfden`, and `nonc` are all scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(dfnum, dfden, nonc).size` samples are drawn.

Returns

**out**

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized noncentral Fisher distribution.

See also:

`Generator.noncentral_f`

which should be used for new code.

Notes

When calculating the power of an experiment (power = probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when a specific alternative is true) the non-central F statistic becomes important. When the null hypothesis is true, the F statistic follows a central F distribution. When the null hypothesis is not true, then it follows a non-central F statistic.

References

[1], [2]
Examples

In a study, testing for a specific alternative to the null hypothesis requires use of the Noncentral F distribution. We need to calculate the area in the tail of the distribution that exceeds the value of the F distribution for the null hypothesis. We'll plot the two probability distributions for comparison.

```python
>>> dfnum = 3  # between group deg of freedom
>>> dfden = 20  # within groups degrees of freedom
>>> nonc = 3.0
>>> nc_vals = np.random.noncentral_f(dfnum, dfden, nonc, 1000000)
>>> NF = np.histogram(nc_vals, bins=50, density=True)
>>> c_vals = np.random.f(dfnum, dfden, 1000000)
>>> F = np.histogram(c_vals, bins=50, density=True)
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> plt.plot(F[1][1:], F[0])
>>> plt.plot(NF[1][1:], NF[0])
>>> plt.show()
```

Draw random samples from a normal (Gaussian) distribution. The probability density function of the normal distribution, first derived by De Moivre and 200 years later by both Gauss and Laplace independently [2], is often called the bell curve because of its characteristic shape (see the example below).

The normal distributions occurs often in nature. For example, it describes the commonly occurring distribution of samples influenced by a large number of tiny, random disturbances, each with its own unique distribution [2].

**Note:** New code should use the `normal` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- `loc`
[float or array_like of floats] Mean (“centre”) of the distribution.

scale
[float or array_like of floats] Standard deviation (spread or “width”) of the distribution. Must be non-negative.

size
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if loc and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(loc, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out
[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized normal distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.norm
probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.normal
which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Gaussian distribution is

\[
p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}},
\]

where \(\mu\) is the mean and \(\sigma\) the standard deviation. The square of the standard deviation, \(\sigma^2\), is called the variance.

The function has its peak at the mean, and its “spread” increases with the standard deviation (the function reaches 0.607 times its maximum at \(x + \sigma\) and \(x - \sigma\) [2]). This implies that normal is more likely to return samples lying close to the mean, rather than those far away.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```
>>> mu, sigma = 0, 0.1 # mean and standard deviation
>>> s = np.random.normal(mu, sigma, 1000)
```

Verify the mean and the variance:
>>> abs(mu - np.mean(s))
0.0  # may vary

>>> abs(sigma - np.std(s, ddof=1))
0.1  # may vary

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 30, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(bins, 1/(sigma * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)) * ... np.exp(- (bins - mu)**2 / (2 * sigma**2)), ... linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

Two-by-four array of samples from $N(3, 6.25)$:

```python
>>> np.random.normal(3, 2.5, size=(2, 4))
array([[-4.49401501, 4.00950034, -1.81814867, 7.29718677],
       [ 0.39924804, 4.68456316, 4.99394529, 4.84057254]])
```

method

random.RandomState.pareto(a, size=None)

Draw samples from a Pareto II or Lomax distribution with specified shape.

The Lomax or Pareto II distribution is a shifted Pareto distribution. The classical Pareto distribution can be obtained from the Lomax distribution by adding 1 and multiplying by the scale parameter $m$ (see Notes). The smallest value of the Lomax distribution is zero while for the classical Pareto distribution it is $mu$, where the standard Pareto distribution has location $mu = 1$. Lomax can also be considered as a simplified version of the Generalized Pareto distribution (available in SciPy), with the scale set to one and the location set to zero.

The Pareto distribution must be greater than zero, and is unbounded above. It is also known as the "80-20 rule". In this distribution, 80 percent of the weights are in the lowest 20 percent of the range, while the other 20 percent fill the remaining 80 percent of the range.
Note: New code should use the `pareto` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- `a` [float or array_like of floats] Shape of the distribution. Must be positive.

- `size` [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `a` is a scalar. Otherwise, `np.array(a).size` samples are drawn.

Returns

- `out` [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Pareto distribution.

See also:

- `scipy.stats.lomax` probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.
- `scipy.stats.genpareto` probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.
- `Generator.pareto` which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Pareto distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{am^a}{x^{a+1}} \]

where `a` is the shape and `m` the scale.

The Pareto distribution, named after the Italian economist Vilfredo Pareto, is a power law probability distribution useful in many real world problems. Outside the field of economics it is generally referred to as the Bradford distribution. Pareto developed the distribution to describe the distribution of wealth in an economy. It has also found use in insurance, web page access statistics, oil field sizes, and many other problems, including the download frequency for projects in Sourceforge [1]. It is one of the so-called “fat-tailed” distributions.
References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a, m = 3., 2.  # shape and mode
>>> s = (np.random.pareto(a, 1000) + 1) * m
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, _ = plt.hist(s, 100, density=True)
>>> fit = a**m*a / bins**(a+1)
>>> plt.plot(bins, max(count)*fit/max(fit), linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

method

```python
random.RandomState.poisson(lam=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a Poisson distribution.

The Poisson distribution is the limit of the binomial distribution for large N.

**Note:** New code should use the `poisson` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- **lam**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Expected number of events occurring in a fixed-time interval, must be >= 0. A sequence must be broadcastable over the requested size.
size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if lam is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(lam).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Poisson distribution.

See also:

Generator.poisson

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The Poisson distribution

\[ f(k; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!} \]

For events with an expected separation \( \lambda \) the Poisson distribution \( f(k; \lambda) \) describes the probability of \( k \) events occurring within the observed interval \( \lambda \).

Because the output is limited to the range of the C int64 type, a ValueError is raised when \( \text{lam} \) is within 10 sigma of the maximum representable value.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> s = np.random.poisson(5, 10000)
```

Display histogram of the sample:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 14, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

Draw each 100 values for lambda 100 and 500:

```python
>>> s = np.random.poisson(lam=(100., 500.), size=(100, 2))
```
random.RandomState.\texttt{power}(a, size=None)

Draws samples in [0, 1] from a power distribution with positive exponent $a - 1$.

Also known as the power function distribution.

\textbf{Note: } New code should use the \texttt{power} method of a \texttt{default_rng()} instance instead; please see the \textit{Quick Start}.

\begin{description}
  \item[Parameters]
    \begin{description}
      \item[a]
        [float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution. Must be non-negative.
      \item[size]
        [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is \texttt{None} (default), a single value is returned if a is a scalar. Otherwise, \texttt{np.array(a).size} samples are drawn.
    \end{description}
  \item[Returns]
    \begin{description}
      \item[out]
        [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized power distribution.
    \end{description}
  \item[Raises]
    \begin{description}
      \item[ValueError]
        If $a < 1$.
    \end{description}
  \item[See also:]
    \begin{description}
      \item[Generator.power]
    \end{description}
\end{description}
which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density function is

\[ P(x; a) = ax^{a-1}, 0 \leq x \leq 1, a > 0. \]

The power function distribution is just the inverse of the Pareto distribution. It may also be seen as a special case of the Beta distribution.

It is used, for example, in modeling the over-reporting of insurance claims.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a = 5. # shape
>>> samples = 1000
>>> s = np.random.power(a, samples)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, bins=30)
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 1, 100)
>>> y = a*x**(a-1.)
>>> normed_y = samples*np.diff(bins)[0]*y
>>> plt.plot(x, normed_y)
>>> plt.show()
```
Compare the power function distribution to the inverse of the Pareto.

```python
>>> from scipy import stats
>>> rvs = np.random.power(5, 1000000)
>>> rvsp = np.random.pareto(5, 1000000)
>>> xx = np.linspace(0,1,100)
>>> powpdf = stats.powerlaw.pdf(xx,5)

>>> plt.figure()
>>> plt.hist(rvs, bins=50, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(xx,powpdf,'r-')
>>> plt.title('np.random.power(5)')

>>> plt.figure()
>>> plt.hist(1./(1.+rvsp), bins=50, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(xx,powpdf,'r-')
>>> plt.title('inverse of 1 + np.random.pareto(5)')

>>> plt.figure()
>>> plt.hist(1./(1.+rvsp), bins=50, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(xx,powpdf,'r-')
>>> plt.title('inverse of stats.pareto(5)')
```

method

`random.RandomState.rayleigh`(scale=1.0, size=None)

Draw samples from a Rayleigh distribution.

The χ and Weibull distributions are generalizations of the Rayleigh.

**Note:** New code should use the `rayleigh` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the [Quick Start](#).

**Parameters**
inverse of 1 + np.random.pareto(5)

inverse of stats.pareto(5)
scale

[float or array_like of floats, optional] Scale, also equals the mode. Must be non-negative. Default is 1.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if scale is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Rayleigh distribution.

See also:

Generator.rayleigh

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density function for the Rayleigh distribution is

\[ P(x; scale) = \frac{x}{scale^2} e^{\frac{-x^2}{2\cdot scale^2}} \]

The Rayleigh distribution would arise, for example, if the East and North components of the wind velocity had identical zero-mean Gaussian distributions. Then the wind speed would have a Rayleigh distribution.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram

```python
>>> from matplotlib.pyplot import hist
>>> values = hist(np.random.rayleigh(3, 100000), bins=200, density=True)
```

Wave heights tend to follow a Rayleigh distribution. If the mean wave height is 1 meter, what fraction of waves are likely to be larger than 3 meters?

```python
>>> meanvalue = 1
>>> modevalue = np.sqrt(2 / np.pi) * meanvalue
>>> s = np.random.rayleigh(modevalue, 1000000)
```

The percentage of waves larger than 3 meters is:

```python
>>> 100.*sum(s>3)/1000000.
0.0873000000000003 # random
```
method

```python
random.RandomState.standard_cauchy(size=None)
```

Draw samples from a standard Cauchy distribution with mode = 0.

Also known as the Lorentz distribution.

Note: New code should use the `standard_cauchy` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- `size`:
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. Default is `None`, in which case a single value is returned.

Returns

- `samples`:
  
  [ndarray or scalar] The drawn samples.

See also:

- `Generator.standard_cauchy`
  
  which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density function for the full Cauchy distribution is

\[
P(x; x_0, \gamma) = \frac{1}{\pi \gamma [1 + (x - x_0)^2 / \gamma^2]}\]

and the Standard Cauchy distribution just sets `x_0 = 0` and `\gamma = 1`

The Cauchy distribution arises in the solution to the driven harmonic oscillator problem, and also describes spectral line broadening. It also describes the distribution of values at which a line tilted at a random angle will cut the x axis.

When studying hypothesis tests that assume normality, seeing how the tests perform on data from a Cauchy distribution is a good indicator of their sensitivity to a heavy-tailed distribution, since the Cauchy looks very much like a Gaussian distribution, but with heavier tails.
References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples and plot the distribution:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> s = np.random.standard_cauchy(1000000)
>>> s = s[(s>-25) & (s<25)]  # truncate distribution so it plots well
>>> plt.hist(s, bins=100)
>>> plt.show()
```

Method

```python
random.RandomState.standard_exponential(size=None)
```

Draw samples from the standard exponential distribution.

`standard_exponential` is identical to the exponential distribution with a scale parameter of 1.

**Note:** New code should use the `standard_exponential` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the `Quick Start`.

**Parameters**

`size`

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

**Returns**

`out`
[float or ndarray] Drawn samples.

See also:

**Generator.standard_exponential**

which should be used for new code.

**Examples**

Output a 3x8000 array:

```python
>>> n = np.random.standard_exponential((3, 8000))
```

Method

```
random.RandomState.standard_gamma(shape, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a standard Gamma distribution.

Samples are drawn from a Gamma distribution with specified parameters, shape (sometimes designated “k”) and scale=1.

**Note:** New code should use the `standard_gamma` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the `Quick Start`.

**Parameters**

- `shape`
  - [float or array_like of floats] Parameter, must be non-negative.

- `size`
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `shape` is a scalar. Otherwise, `np.array(shape).size` samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- `out`
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized standard gamma distribution.

See also:

- `scipy.stats.gamma`
  - probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

- **Generator.standard_gamma**
  - which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density for the Gamma distribution is

\[ p(x) = x^{k-1} e^{-x/\theta} \frac{1}{\theta^k \Gamma(k)} , \]

where \( k \) is the shape and \( \theta \) the scale, and \( \Gamma \) is the Gamma function.

The Gamma distribution is often used to model the times to failure of electronic components, and arises naturally in processes for which the waiting times between Poisson distributed events are relevant.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> shape, scale = 2., 1. # mean and width
>>> s = np.random.standard_gamma(shape, 1000000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> import scipy.special as sps
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 50, density=True)
>>> y = bins**(shape-1) * (np.exp(-bins/scale)/
... (sps.gamma(shape) * scale**shape))
>>> plt.plot(bins, y, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```
random.RandomState.standard_normal(size=None)

Draw samples from a standard Normal distribution (mean=0, stdev=1).

**Note:** New code should use the `standard_normal` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the *Quick Start*.

**Parameters**

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. Default is `None`, in which case a single value is returned.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [float or ndarray] A floating-point array of shape `size` of drawn samples, or a single sample if `size` was not specified.

**See also:**

- **normal**
  - Equivalent function with additional `loc` and `scale` arguments for setting the mean and standard deviation.

- **Generator.standard_normal**
  - which should be used for new code.

**Notes**

For random samples from $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, use one of:

```
mu + sigma * np.random.standard_normal(size=...)
np.random.normal(mu, sigma, size=...)
```

**Examples**

```
>>> np.random.standard_normal()
2.1923875335537315 #random

>>> s = np.random.standard_normal(8000)
>>> s
array([ 0.6888893 , 0.78096262, -0.89086505, ..., 0.49876311, # random
       -0.38672696, -0.4685006 ])
>>> s.shape
(8000,)

>>> s = np.random.standard_normal(size=(3, 4, 2))
>>> s.shape
(3, 4, 2)
```

Two-by-four array of samples from $N(3, 6.25)$:
random.RandomState.standard_t(df, size=None)

Draw samples from a standard Student’s t distribution with df degrees of freedom.

A special case of the hyperbolic distribution. As df gets large, the result resembles that of the standard normal distribution (standard_normal).

Note: New code should use the standard_t method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- df
  [float or array_like of floats] Degrees of freedom, must be > 0.

- size
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if df is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(df).size samples are drawn.

Returns

- out
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized standard Student’s t distribution.

See also:

Generator.standard_t

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density function for the t distribution is

\[
P(x, df) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{df+1}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{\pi df} \Gamma\left(\frac{df}{2}\right)} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{df}\right)^{-(df+1)/2}
\]

The t test is based on an assumption that the data come from a Normal distribution. The t test provides a way to test whether the sample mean (that is the mean calculated from the data) is a good estimate of the true mean.

The derivation of the t-distribution was first published in 1908 by William Gosset while working for the Guinness Brewery in Dublin. Due to proprietary issues, he had to publish under a pseudonym, and so he used the name Student.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

From Dalgaard page 83 [1], suppose the daily energy intake for 11 women in kilojoules (kJ) is:

```python
>> intakes = np.array([5260., 5470, 5640, 6180, 6390, 6515, 6805, 7515, ...
    ... 7515, 8230, 8770])
```

Does their energy intake deviate systematically from the recommended value of 7725 kJ? Our null hypothesis will be the absence of deviation, and the alternate hypothesis will be the presence of an effect that could be either positive or negative, hence making our test 2-tailed.

Because we are estimating the mean and we have N=11 values in our sample, we have N-1=10 degrees of freedom. We set our significance level to 95% and compute the t statistic using the empirical mean and empirical standard deviation of our intake. We use a ddof of 1 to base the computation of our empirical standard deviation on an unbiased estimate of the variance (note: the final estimate is not unbiased due to the concave nature of the square root).

```python
>>> np.mean(intakes)
6753.636363636364
>>> intakes.std(ddof=1)
1142.1232221373727
>>> t = (np.mean(intakes) - 7725) / (intakes.std(ddof=1) / np.sqrt(len(intakes)))
>>> t
-2.8207540608310198
```

We draw 1000000 samples from Student's t distribution with the adequate degrees of freedom.

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> s = np.random.standard_t(10, size=1000000)
>>> h = plt.hist(s, bins=100, density=True)
```

Does our t statistic land in one of the two critical regions found at both tails of the distribution?

```python
>>> np.sum(np.abs(t) < np.abs(s)) / float(len(s))
0.018318  # random < 0.05, statistic is in critical region
```

The probability value for this 2-tailed test is about 1.83%, which is lower than the 5% pre-determined significance threshold.

Therefore, the probability of observing values as extreme as our intake conditionally on the null hypothesis being true is too low, and we reject the null hypothesis of no deviation.

method

```
random.RandomState.triangular(left, mode, right, size=None)
```

Draw samples from the triangular distribution over the interval [left, right].

The triangular distribution is a continuous probability distribution with lower limit left, peak at mode, and upper limit right. Unlike the other distributions, these parameters directly define the shape of the pdf.

Note: New code should use the triangular method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.
Parameters

left
[ float or array_like of floats ] Lower limit.

mode
[ float or array_like of floats ] The value where the peak of the distribution occurs. The value must fulfill the condition left <= mode <= right.

right
[ float or array_like of floats ] Upper limit, must be larger than left.

size
[ int or tuple of ints, optional ] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if left, mode, and right are all scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast (left, mode, right).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out
[ ndarray or scalar ] Drawn samples from the parameterized triangular distribution.

See also:

Generator.triangular

which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density function for the triangular distribution is

\[
P(x; l, m, r) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{2(x-l)}{(r-l)(m-l)} & \text{for } l \leq x \leq m, \\
\frac{2(r-x)}{(r-l)(r-m)} & \text{for } m \leq x \leq r, \\
0 & \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases}
\]

The triangular distribution is often used in ill-defined problems where the underlying distribution is not known, but some knowledge of the limits and mode exists. Often it is used in simulations.

References

[1]

Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> h = plt.hist(np.random.triangular(-3, 0, 8, 100000), bins=200, ...
               density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

method

`random.RandomState.uniform(low=0.0, high=1.0, size=None)`

Draw samples from a uniform distribution.

Samples are uniformly distributed over the half-open interval \([low, high)\) (includes low, but excludes high). In other words, any value within the given interval is equally likely to be drawn by `uniform`.

**Note:** New code should use the `uniform` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.
Parameters

low

[float or array_like of floats, optional] Lower boundary of the output interval. All values generated will be greater than or equal to low. The default value is 0.

high

[float or array_like of floats] Upper boundary of the output interval. All values generated will be less than or equal to high. The default value is 1.0.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if low and high are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(low, high).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized uniform distribution.

See also:

mint
Discrete uniform distribution, yielding integers.

random_integers
Discrete uniform distribution over the closed interval [low, high].

random_sample
Floats uniformly distributed over [0, 1).

random
Alias for random_sample.

rand
Convenience function that accepts dimensions as input, e.g., rand(2, 2) would generate a 2-by-2 array of floats, uniformly distributed over [0, 1).

Generator.uniform
which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density function of the uniform distribution is

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{b - a}$$

anywhere within the interval $[a, b)$, and zero elsewhere.

When $high == low$, values of low will be returned. If $high < low$, the results are officially undefined and may eventually raise an error, i.e. do not rely on this function to behave when passed arguments satisfying that inequality condition. The high limit may be included in the returned array of floats due to floating-point rounding in the equation $low + (high-low) \times \text{random\_sample()}$. For example:

```python
>>> x = np.float32(5*0.99999999)
>>> x
5.0
```

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> s = np.random.uniform(-1,0,1000)
```

All values are within the given interval:

```python
>>> np.all(s >= -1)
True
>>> np.all(s < 0)
True
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 15, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(bins, np.ones_like(bins), linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

method

```python
random.RandomState.vonmises(mu, kappa, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a von Mises distribution.

Samples are drawn from a von Mises distribution with specified mode (mu) and dispersion (kappa), on the interval $[-\pi, \pi]$.

The von Mises distribution (also known as the circular normal distribution) is a continuous probability distribution on the unit circle. It may be thought of as the circular analogue of the normal distribution.

**Note:** New code should use the vonmises method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- **mu**

  [float or array_like of floats] Mode (“center”) of the distribution.
kappa

[float or array_like of floats] Dispersion of the distribution, has to be >=0.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if mu and kappa are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(mu, kappa).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized von Mises distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.vonmises

probability density function, distribution, or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.vonmises

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the von Mises distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{e^{\kappa \cos(x-\mu)}}{2\pi I_0(\kappa)}, \]

where \( \mu \) is the mode and \( \kappa \) the dispersion, and \( I_0(\kappa) \) is the modified Bessel function of order 0.

The von Mises is named for Richard Edler von Mises, who was born in Austria-Hungary, in what is now the Ukraine. He fled to the United States in 1939 and became a professor at Harvard. He worked in probability theory, aerodynamics, fluid mechanics, and philosophy of science.
References

[1],[2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> mu, kappa = 0.0, 4.0  # mean and dispersion
>>> s = np.random.vonmises(mu, kappa, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from scipy.special import i0
>>> plt.hist(s, 50, density=True)
>>> x = np.linspace(-np.pi, np.pi, num=51)
>>> y = np.exp(kappa*np.cos(x-mu))/(2*np.pi*i0(kappa))
>>> plt.plot(x, y, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

method

```
random.RandomState.wald(mean, scale, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a Wald, or inverse Gaussian, distribution.

As the scale approaches infinity, the distribution becomes more like a Gaussian. Some references claim that the Wald is an inverse Gaussian with mean equal to 1, but this is by no means universal.

The inverse Gaussian distribution was first studied in relationship to Brownian motion. In 1956 M.C.K. Tweedie used the name inverse Gaussian because there is an inverse relationship between the time to cover a unit distance and distance covered in unit time.

Note: New code should use the wald method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.
Parameters

- **mean**
  [float or array_like of floats] Distribution mean, must be > 0.
- **scale**
  [float or array_like of floats] Scale parameter, must be > 0.
- **size**
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if mean and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(mean, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

- **out**
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Wald distribution.

See also:

**Generator.wald**

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density function for the Wald distribution is

\[
P(x; \text{mean}, \text{scale}) = \frac{\text{scale}}{2\pi x^3} e^{-\frac{\text{scale}(x-\text{mean})^2}{2\text{mean}^2 x^2}}
\]

As noted above the inverse Gaussian distribution first arise from attempts to model Brownian motion. It is also a competitor to the Weibull for use in reliability modeling and modeling stock returns and interest rate processes.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> h = plt.hist(np.random.wald(3, 2, 100000), bins=200, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```
random.RandomState.weibull(a, size=None)

Draw samples from a Weibull distribution.

Draw samples from a 1-parameter Weibull distribution with the given shape parameter $a$.

$$X = (-\ln(U))^{1/a}$$

Here, $U$ is drawn from the uniform distribution over (0,1).

The more common 2-parameter Weibull, including a scale parameter $\lambda$ is just $X = \lambda(-\ln(U))^{1/a}$.

**Note:** New code should use the weibull method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  [float or array_like of floats] Shape parameter of the distribution. Must be nonnegative.

- **size**
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., $(m, n, k)$, then $m \times n \times k$ samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if a is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(a).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- **out**
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Weibull distribution.

**See also:**

- scipy.stats.weibull_max
- scipy.stats.weibull_min
scipy.stats.genextreme
gumbel
Generator.weibull
which should be used for new code.

Notes

The Weibull (or Type III asymptotic extreme value distribution for smallest values, SEV Type III, or Rosin-Rammler distribution) is one of a class of Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distributions used in modeling extreme value problems. This class includes the Gumbel and Frechet distributions.

The probability density for the Weibull distribution is
\[ p(x) = \frac{a}{\lambda} \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{a-1} e^{-(x/\lambda)^a} \]

where \( a \) is the shape and \( \lambda \) the scale.

The function has its peak (the mode) at \( \lambda \left(\frac{a-1}{a}\right)^{1/a} \).

When \( a = 1 \), the Weibull distribution reduces to the exponential distribution.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a = 5. # shape
>>> s = np.random.weibull(a, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = np.arange(1,100.)/50.
>>> def weib(x,n,a):
...    return (a / n) * (x / n)**(a - 1) * np.exp(-((x / n)**a)

>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(np.random.weibull(5.,1000))
>>> x = np.arange(1,100.)/50.
>>> scale = count.max()/weib(x, 1., 5.).max()
>>> plt.plot(x, weib(x, 1., 5.)*scale)
>>> plt.show()
```

method

random.RandomState.zipf(a, size=None)

Draw samples from a Zipf distribution.

Samples are drawn from a Zipf distribution with specified parameter \( a > 1 \).

The Zipf distribution (also known as the zeta distribution) is a continuous probability distribution that satisfies Zipf’s law: the frequency of an item is inversely proportional to its rank in a frequency table.
Note: New code should use the `zipf` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- **a**
  [float or array_like of floats] Distribution parameter. Must be greater than 1.

- **size**
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `a` is a scalar. Otherwise, `np.array(a).size` samples are drawn.

Returns

- **out**
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Zipf distribution.

See also:

- `scipy.stats.zipf`
  probability density function, distribution, or cumulative density function, etc.

- `Generator.zipf`
  which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density for the Zipf distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{x^{-a}}{\zeta(a)}, \]

where \( \zeta \) is the Riemann Zeta function.

It is named for the American linguist George Kingsley Zipf, who noted that the frequency of any word in a sample of a language is inversely proportional to its rank in the frequency table.

References

[1]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a = 2. # parameter
>>> s = np.random.zipf(a, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from scipy import special

Truncate s values at 50 so plot is interesting:

```python
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s[s<50], 50, density=True)
>>> x = np.arange(1., 50.)
>>> y = x**(-a) / special.zetac(a)
>>> plt.plot(x, y/max(y), linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```
## Functions in `numpy.random`

Many of the RandomState methods above are exported as functions in `numpy.random`. This usage is discouraged, as it is implemented via a global `RandomState` instance which is not advised on two counts:

- It uses global state, which means results will change as the code changes.
- It uses a `RandomState` rather than the more modern `Generator`.

For backward compatible legacy reasons, we cannot change this. See **Quick Start**.

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<tr>
<td><code>randint(low[, high, size, dtype])</code></td>
<td>Return random integers from low (inclusive) to high (exclusive).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>randn(d0, d1, ..., dn)</code></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>random([size])</code></td>
<td>Return random floats in the half-open interval [0.0, 1.0).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>random_integers(low[, high, size])</code></td>
<td>Random integers of type <code>np.int_</code> between low and high, inclusive.</td>
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<td>Draw samples from a uniform distribution.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>wald([mean, scale[, size]])</code></td>
<td>Draw samples from a Wald, or inverse Gaussian, distribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>weibull(a[, size])</code></td>
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</tr>
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<td><code>zipf(a[, size])</code></td>
<td>Draw samples from a Zipf distribution.</td>
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</table>

**random.beta (a, b, size=None)**

Draw samples from a Beta distribution.

The Beta distribution is a special case of the Dirichlet distribution, and is related to the Gamma distribution. It has the probability distribution function

\[
f(x; a, b) = \frac{1}{B(a, b)} x^{a-1} (1 - x)^{b-1},
\]

where the normalization, \(B\), is the beta function,

\[
B(a, b) = \int_0^1 t^{a-1} (1 - t)^{b-1} dt.
\]

It is often seen in Bayesian inference and order statistics.

**Note:** New code should use the beta method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- \(a\)
  - [float or array_like of floats] Alpha, positive (>0).

- \(b\)
  - [float or array_like of floats] Beta, positive (>0).

**size**
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if \(a\) and \(b\) are both scalars. Otherwise, \(\text{np.broadcast}(a, b).\text{size}\) samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized beta distribution.

See also:

**Generator.beta**

which should be used for new code.

**random.binomial\((n, p, size=\text{None})\)**

Draw samples from a binomial distribution.

Samples are drawn from a binomial distribution with specified parameters, \(n\) trials and \(p\) probability of success where \(n\) an integer \(\geq 0\) and \(p\) is in the interval \([0,1]\). (\(n\) may be input as a float, but it is truncated to an integer in use)

**Note:** New code should use the binomial method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

\(n\)

[int or array_like of ints] Parameter of the distribution, \(\geq 0\). Floats are also accepted, but they will be truncated to integers.

\(p\)

[float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution, \(\geq 0\) and \(\leq 1\).

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if \(n\) and \(p\) are both scalars. Otherwise, \(\text{np.broadcast}(n, p).\text{size}\) samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized binomial distribution, where each sample is equal to the number of successes over the \(n\) trials.

See also:

**scipy.stats.binom**

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.
Generator.binomial

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the binomial distribution is

\[ P(N) = \binom{n}{N} p^N (1 - p)^{n-N}, \]

where \( n \) is the number of trials, \( p \) is the probability of success, and \( N \) is the number of successes.

When estimating the standard error of a proportion in a population by using a random sample, the normal distribution works well unless the product \( p^*n \leq 5 \), where \( p \) is population proportion estimate, and \( n \) is number of samples, in which case the binomial distribution is used instead. For example, a sample of 15 people shows 4 who are left handed, and 11 who are right handed. Then \( p = \frac{4}{15} = 27\% \). \( 0.27 \times 15 = 4 \), so the binomial distribution should be used in this case.

References

[1], [2], [3], [4], [5]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> n, p = 10, .5  # number of trials, probability of each trial
>>> s = np.random.binomial(n, p, 1000)
# result of flipping a coin 10 times, tested 1000 times.
```

A real world example. A company drills 9 wild-cat oil exploration wells, each with an estimated probability of success of 0.1. All nine wells fail. What is the probability of that happening?

Let's do 20,000 trials of the model, and count the number that generate zero positive results.

```python
>>> sum(np.random.binomial(9, 0.1, 20000) == 0)/20000.
# answer = 0.38885, or 38%.
```

random.bytes (length)

Return random bytes.

**Note:** New code should use the bytes method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- **length**

  [int] Number of random bytes.

Returns
out
[bytes] String of length length.

See also:

`Generator.bytes`
which should be used for new code.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.bytes(10)
b' ehU)2S2¿u' # random
```

`random.chisquare(df, size=None)`

Draw samples from a chi-square distribution.

When `df` independent random variables, each with standard normal distributions (mean 0, variance 1), are squared and summed, the resulting distribution is chi-square (see Notes). This distribution is often used in hypothesis testing.

**Note:** New code should use the `chisquare` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the *Quick Start*.

**Parameters**

df
[float or array_like of floats] Number of degrees of freedom, must be > 0.

size
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `df` is a scalar. Otherwise, `np.array(df).size` samples are drawn.

**Returns**

out
[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized chi-square distribution.

**Raises**

`ValueError`

When `df <= 0` or when an inappropriate `size` (e.g. `size=-1`) is given.

See also:

`Generator.chisquare`
which should be used for new code.
Notes

The variable obtained by summing the squares of $df$ independent, standard normally distributed random variables:

$$Q = \sum_{i=0}^{df} X_i^2$$

is chi-square distributed, denoted

$$Q \sim \chi_k^2.$$

The probability density function of the chi-squared distribution is

$$p(x) = \frac{(1/2)^{k/2}}{\Gamma(k/2)} x^{k/2-1} e^{-x/2},$$

where $\Gamma$ is the gamma function,

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{-\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt.$$

References

[1]

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.chisquare(2,4)
array([ 1.89920014, 9.00867716, 3.13710533, 5.62318272]) # random
```

`random.choice(a, size=None, replace=True, p=None)`

Generates a random sample from a given 1-D array

New in version 1.7.0.

**Note:** New code should use the `choice` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- `a`
  [1-D array-like or int] If an ndarray, a random sample is generated from its elements. If an int, the random sample is generated as if it were `np.arange(a)`

- `size`
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

- `replace`
  [boolean, optional] Whether the sample is with or without replacement. Default is True, meaning that a value of `a` can be selected multiple times.
p
[1-D array-like, optional] The probabilities associated with each entry in a. If not given, the
sample assumes a uniform distribution over all entries in a.

Returns

samples
[single item or ndarray] The generated random samples

Raises

ValueError
If a is an int and less than zero, if a or p are not 1-dimensional, if a is an array-like of size 0, if
p is not a vector of probabilities, if a and p have different lengths, or if replace=False and the
sample size is greater than the population size

See also:

randint, shuffle, permutation
Generator.choice

which should be used in new code

Notes

Setting user-specified probabilities through p uses a more general but less efficient sampler than the default. The
general sampler produces a different sample than the optimized sampler even if each element of p is 1/len(a).
Sampling random rows from a 2-D array is not possible with this function, but is possible with Generator.choice
through its axis keyword.

Examples

Generate a uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3:

```python
>>> np.random.choice(5, 3)
array([0, 3, 4]) # random
>>> #This is equivalent to np.random.randint(0,5,3)
```

Generate a non-uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3:

```python
>>> np.random.choice(5, 3, p=[0.1, 0, 0.3, 0.6, 0])
array([3, 3, 0]) # random
```

Generate a uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3 without replacement:

```python
>>> np.random.choice(5, 3, replace=False)
array([3, 1, 0]) # random
>>> #This is equivalent to np.random.permutation(np.arange(5))[:3]
```

Generate a non-uniform random sample from np.arange(5) of size 3 without replacement:
```python
>>> np.random.choice(5, 3, replace=False, p=[0.1, 0, 0.3, 0.6, 0])
array([2, 3, 0])  # random
```

Any of the above can be repeated with an arbitrary array-like instead of just integers. For instance:

```python
>>> aa_milne_arr = ['pooh', 'rabbit', 'piglet', 'Christopher']
>>> np.random.choice(aa_milne_arr, 5, p=[0.5, 0.1, 0.1, 0.3])
array(['pooh', 'pooh', 'pooh', 'Christopher', 'piglet'], dtype='<U11')
```

```
random.dirichlet(alpha, size=None)
```

Draw samples from the Dirichlet distribution.

Draw size samples of dimension k from a Dirichlet distribution. A Dirichlet-distributed random variable can be seen as a multivariate generalization of a Beta distribution. The Dirichlet distribution is a conjugate prior of a multinomial distribution in Bayesian inference.

**Note:** New code should use the `dirichlet` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the `Quick Start`.

**Parameters**

- `alpha`
  - [sequence of floats, length k] Parameter of the distribution (length k for sample of length k).
  - `size`
    - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n), then m * n * k samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a vector of length k is returned.

**Returns**

- `samples`
  - [ndarray,] The drawn samples, of shape (size, k).

**Raises**

- `ValueError`
  - If any value in `alpha` is less than or equal to zero

**See also:**

- `Generator.dirichlet`
  - which should be used for new code.
Notes

The Dirichlet distribution is a distribution over vectors $x$ that fulfill the conditions $x_i > 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_i = 1$. The probability density function $p$ of a Dirichlet-distributed random vector $X$ is proportional to

$$p(x) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{k} x_i^{\alpha_i - 1},$$

where $\alpha$ is a vector containing the positive concentration parameters.

The method uses the following property for computation: let $Y$ be a random vector which has components that follow a standard gamma distribution, then $X = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} Y} Y$ is Dirichlet-distributed.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Taking an example cited in Wikipedia, this distribution can be used if one wanted to cut strings (each of initial length 1.0) into K pieces with different lengths, where each piece had, on average, a designated average length, but allowing some variation in the relative sizes of the pieces.

```python
>>> s = np.random.dirichlet((10, 5, 3), 20).transpose()

>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> plt.barh(range(20), s[0])
>>> plt.barh(range(20), s[1], left=s[0], color='g')
>>> plt.barh(range(20), s[2], left=s[0]+s[1], color='r')
>>> plt.title("Lengths of Strings")
```

```
Lengths of Strings
```

```python
random.exponential(scale=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from an exponential distribution.
Its probability density function is

\[ f(x; \frac{1}{\beta}) = \frac{1}{\beta} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\beta}\right), \]

for \( x > 0 \) and 0 elsewhere. \( \beta \) is the scale parameter, which is the inverse of the rate parameter \( \lambda = 1/\beta \). The rate parameter is an alternative, widely used parameterization of the exponential distribution [3].

The exponential distribution is a continuous analogue of the geometric distribution. It describes many common situations, such as the size of raindrops measured over many rainstorms [1], or the time between page requests to Wikipedia [2].

**Note:** New code should use the `exponential` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the _Quick Start_.

**Parameters**

- `scale`
  
  [float or array_like of floats] The scale parameter, \( \beta = 1/\lambda \). Must be non-negative.

- `size`
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `scale` is a scalar. Otherwise, \(np.array(scale).size\) samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- `out`
  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized exponential distribution.

**See also:**

- `Generator.exponential`
  which should be used for new code.

**References**

[1], [2], [3]

`random.f`(`dfnum`, `dfden`, `size=None`)

Draw samples from an F distribution.

Samples are drawn from an F distribution with specified parameters, \(dfnum\) degrees of freedom in numerator) and \(dfden\) (degrees of freedom in denominator), where both parameters must be greater than zero.

The random variate of the F distribution (also known as the Fisher distribution) is a continuous probability distribution that arises in ANOVA tests, and is the ratio of two chi-square variates.

**Note:** New code should use the `f` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the _Quick Start_.

**Parameters**
dfnum

[Float or array_like of floats] Degrees of freedom in numerator, must be > 0.

dfden

[Float or array_like of float] Degrees of freedom in denominator, must be > 0.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if dfnum and dfden are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(dfnum, dfden).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Fisher distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.f

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.f

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The F statistic is used to compare in-group variances to between-group variances. Calculating the distribution depends on the sampling, and so it is a function of the respective degrees of freedom in the problem. The variable dfnum is the number of samples minus one, the between-groups degrees of freedom, while dfden is the within-groups degrees of freedom, the sum of the number of samples in each group minus the number of groups.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

An example from Glantz[1], pp 47-40:

Two groups, children of diabetics (25 people) and children from people without diabetes (25 controls). Fasting blood glucose was measured, case group had a mean value of 86.1, controls had a mean value of 82.2. Standard deviations were 2.09 and 2.49 respectively. Are these data consistent with the null hypothesis that the parents diabetic status does not affect their children's blood glucose levels? Calculating the F statistic from the data gives a value of 36.01.

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> dfnum = 1. # between group degrees of freedom
>>> dfden = 48. # within groups degrees of freedom
>>> s = np.random.f(dfnum, dfden, 1000)
```
The lower bound for the top 1% of the samples is:

```
>>> np.sort(s)[-10]
7.61988120985 # random
```

So there is about a 1% chance that the F statistic will exceed 7.62, the measured value is 36, so the null hypothesis is rejected at the 1% level.

```
random.gamma (shape, scale=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a Gamma distribution.

Samples are drawn from a Gamma distribution with specified parameters, `shape` (sometimes designated “k”) and `scale` (sometimes designated “theta”), where both parameters are > 0.

**Note:** New code should use the `gamma` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- `shape`
  
  [float or array_like of floats] The shape of the gamma distribution. Must be non-negative.

- `scale`
  
  [float or array_like of floats, optional] The scale of the gamma distribution. Must be non-negative. Default is equal to 1.

- `size`
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `shape` and `scale` are both scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(shape, scale).size` samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- `out`
  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized gamma distribution.

**See also:**

- `scipy.stats.gamma`
  
  probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

- `Generator.gamma`
  
  which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density for the Gamma distribution is

\[ p(x) = x^{k-1} e^{-x/\theta} \frac{\theta^k}{\Gamma(k)}, \]

where \( k \) is the shape and \( \theta \) the scale, and \( \Gamma \) is the Gamma function.

The Gamma distribution is often used to model the times to failure of electronic components, and arises naturally in processes for which the waiting times between Poisson distributed events are relevant.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> shape, scale = 2., 2.  # mean=4, std=2*sqrt(2)
>>> s = np.random.gamma(shape, scale, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> import scipy.special as sps
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 50, density=True)
>>> y = bins**(shape-1)*(np.exp(-bins/scale) / ... (sps.gamma(shape)*scale**shape))
>>> plt.plot(bins, y, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

Draw samples from the geometric distribution.

```python
random.geometric(p, size=None)
```

Draw samples from the geometric distribution.
Bernoulli trials are experiments with one of two outcomes: success or failure (an example of such an experiment is flipping a coin). The geometric distribution models the number of trials that must be run in order to achieve success. It is therefore supported on the positive integers, \( k = 1, 2, \ldots \).

The probability mass function of the geometric distribution is

\[
 f(k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p
\]

where \( p \) is the probability of success of an individual trial.

**Note:** New code should use the `geometric` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the *Quick Start*.

### Parameters

- **p**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] The probability of success of an individual trial.

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m * n * k\) samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `p` is a scalar. Otherwise, `np.array(p).size` samples are drawn.

### Returns

- **out**
  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized geometric distribution.

### See also:

- `Generator.geometric` which should be used for new code.

### Examples

Draw ten thousand values from the geometric distribution, with the probability of an individual success equal to 0.35:

```python
>>> z = np.random.geometric(p=0.35, size=10000)
```

How many trials succeeded after a single run?

```python
>>> (z == 1).sum() / 10000.
0.34889999999999999 #random
```

`random.get_state()`

Return a tuple representing the internal state of the generator.

For more details, see `set_state`.

### Parameters
legacy

[bool, optional] Flag indicating to return a legacy tuple state when the BitGenerator is MT19937, instead of a dict.

Returns

out

[[tuple(str, ndarray of 624 uints, int, int, float), dict]] The returned tuple has the following items:
1. the string ‘MT19937’.
2. a 1-D array of 624 unsigned integer keys.
3. an integer pos.
4. an integer has_gauss.
5. a float cached_gaussian.

If legacy is False, or the BitGenerator is not MT19937, then state is returned as a dictionary.

See also:

set_state

Notes

set_state and get_state are not needed to work with any of the random distributions in NumPy. If the internal state is manually altered, the user should know exactly what he/she is doing.

random.gumbel(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)

Draw samples from a Gumbel distribution.

Draw samples from a Gumbel distribution with specified location and scale. For more information on the Gumbel distribution, see Notes and References below.

Note: New code should use the gumbel method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

loc

[float or array_like of floats, optional] The location of the mode of the distribution. Default is 0.

scale

[float or array_like of floats, optional] The scale parameter of the distribution. Default is 1. Must be non-negative.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if loc and
scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(loc, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Gumbel distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.gumbel_l
scipy.stats.gumbel_r
scipy.stats.genextreme
weibull
Generator.gumbel

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The Gumbel (or Smallest Extreme Value (SEV) or the Smallest Extreme Value Type I) distribution is one of a class of Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distributions used in modeling extreme value problems. The Gumbel is a special case of the Extreme Value Type I distribution for maximums from distributions with "exponential-like" tails.

The probability density for the Gumbel distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{e^{-(x-\mu)/\beta}}{\beta} e^{-(x-\mu)/\beta}, \]

where \( \mu \) is the mode, a location parameter, and \( \beta \) is the scale parameter.

The Gumbel (named for German mathematician Emil Julius Gumbel) was used very early in the hydrology literature, for modeling the occurrence of flood events. It is also used for modeling maximum wind speed and rainfall rates. It is a “fat-tailed” distribution - the probability of an event in the tail of the distribution is larger than if one used a Gaussian, hence the surprisingly frequent occurrence of 100-year floods. Floods were initially modeled as a Gaussian process, which underestimated the frequency of extreme events.

It is one of a class of extreme value distributions, the Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distributions, which also includes the Weibull and Frechet.

The function has a mean of \( \mu + 0.57721\beta \) and a variance of \( \frac{\pi^2}{6} \beta^2 \).

References

[1], [2]
Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> mu, beta = 0, 0.1 # location and scale
>>> s = np.random.gumbel(mu, beta, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 30, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(bins, (1/beta)*np.exp(-(bins - mu)/beta)
... * np.exp(-np.exp(-(bins - mu)/beta)),
... linewidth=2, color='r')
```

Show how an extreme value distribution can arise from a Gaussian process and compare to a Gaussian:

```python
>>> means = []
>>> maxima = []
>>> for i in range(0,1000) :
...     a = np.random.normal(mu, beta, 1000)
...     means.append(a.mean())
...     maxima.append(a.max())
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(maxima, 30, density=True)
>>> beta = np.std(maxima) * np.sqrt(6) / np.pi
>>> mu = np.mean(maxima) - 0.57721*beta
>>> plt.plot(bins, (1/beta)*np.exp(-(bins - mu)/beta)
... * np.exp(-np.exp(-(bins - mu)/beta)),
... linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.plot(bins, 1/(beta * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi))
... * np.exp(-(bins - mu)**2 / (2 * beta**2)),
... linewidth=2, color='g')
```

`random.hypergeometric(ngood, nbad, nsample, size=None)`

Draw samples from a Hypergeometric distribution.
Samples are drawn from a hypergeometric distribution with specified parameters, $n_{good}$ (ways to make a good selection), $n_{bad}$ (ways to make a bad selection), and $n_{sample}$ (number of items sampled, which is less than or equal to the sum $n_{good} + n_{bad}$).

**Note:** New code should use the `hypergeometric` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the *Quick Start.*

**Parameters**

$n_{good}$

[int or array_like of ints] Number of ways to make a good selection. Must be nonnegative.

$n_{bad}$

[int or array_like of ints] Number of ways to make a bad selection. Must be nonnegative.

$n_{sample}$

[int or array_like of ints] Number of items sampled. Must be at least 1 and at most $n_{good} + n_{bad}$.

`size`

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., $(m, n, k)$, then $m * n * k$ samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if $n_{good}$, $n_{bad}$, and $n_{sample}$ are all scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(n_{good}, n_{bad}, n_{sample})`. `size` samples are drawn.

**Returns**

`out`

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized hypergeometric distribution. Each sample is the number of good items within a randomly selected subset of size $n_{sample}$ taken from a set of $n_{good}$ good items and $n_{bad}$ bad items.
See also:

`scipy.stats.hypergeom`

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

`Generator.hypergeometric`

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Hypergeometric distribution is

\[ P(x) = \frac{\binom{g}{x} \binom{b}{n-x}}{\binom{n}{x}}, \]

where \( 0 \leq x \leq n \) and \( n - b \leq x \leq g \) for \( P(x) \) the probability of \( x \) good results in the drawn sample, \( g = ngood \), \( b = nbad \), and \( n = nsample \).

Consider an urn with black and white marbles in it, \( ngood \) of them are black and \( nbad \) are white. If you draw \( nsample \) balls without replacement, then the hypergeometric distribution describes the distribution of black balls in the drawn sample.

Note that this distribution is very similar to the binomial distribution, except that in this case, samples are drawn without replacement, whereas in the Binomial case samples are drawn with replacement (or the sample space is infinite). As the sample space becomes large, this distribution approaches the binomial.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> ngood, nbad, nsamp = 100, 2, 10
# number of good, number of bad, and number of samples
>>> s = np.random.hypergeometric(ngood, nbad, nsamp, 1000)
>>> from matplotlib.pyplot import hist
>>> hist(s)
# note that it is very unlikely to grab both bad items
```

Suppose you have an urn with 15 white and 15 black marbles. If you pull 15 marbles at random, how likely is it that 12 or more of them are one color?

```python
>>> s = np.random.hypergeometric(15, 15, 15, 100000)
>>> sum(s>=12)/100000. + sum(s<=3)/100000.
# answer = 0.003 ... pretty unlikely!
```

`random.laplace(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)`

Draw samples from the Laplace or double exponential distribution with specified location (or mean) and scale (decay).

The Laplace distribution is similar to the Gaussian/normal distribution, but is sharper at the peak and has fatter tails. It represents the difference between two independent, identically distributed exponential random variables.
Note: New code should use the laplace method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

loc

[float or array_like of floats, optional] The position, \( \mu \), of the distribution peak. Default is 0.

scale

[float or array_like of floats, optional] \( \lambda \), the exponential decay. Default is 1. Must be non-negative.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \( (m, n, k) \), then \( m \times n \times k \) samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if loc and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(loc, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Laplace distribution.

See also:

**Generator.laplace**

which should be used for new code.

Notes

It has the probability density function

\[
    f(x; \mu, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2\lambda} \exp\left( -\frac{|x - \mu|}{\lambda} \right).
\]

The first law of Laplace, from 1774, states that the frequency of an error can be expressed as an exponential function of the absolute magnitude of the error, which leads to the Laplace distribution. For many problems in economics and health sciences, this distribution seems to model the data better than the standard Gaussian distribution.

References

[1], [2], [3], [4]
Examples

Draw samples from the distribution

```python
>>> loc, scale = 0., 1.
>>> s = np.random.laplace(loc, scale, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 30, density=True)
>>> x = np.arange(-8., 8., .01)
>>> pdf = np.exp(-abs(x-loc)/scale)/(2.*scale)
>>> plt.plot(x, pdf)
```

Plot Gaussian for comparison:

```python
>>> g = (1/(scale * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)) * ...
...     np.exp(-(x - loc)**2 / (2 * scale**2)))
>>> plt.plot(x, g)
```

```
random.logistic (loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)

Draw samples from a logistic distribution.

Samples are drawn from a logistic distribution with specified parameters, loc (location or mean, also median), and scale (>0).

Note: New code should use the logistic method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.
```

Parameters

- **loc**
  - [float or array_like of floats, optional] Parameter of the distribution. Default is 0.
scale

[float or array_like of floats, optional] Parameter of the distribution. Must be non-negative. Default is 1.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if loc and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(loc, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized logistic distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.logistic

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.logistic

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Logistic distribution is

\[ P(x) = P(\mu) = \frac{e^{-(x-\mu)/s}}{s(1 + e^{-(x-\mu)/s})^2}, \]

where \( \mu \) = location and \( s \) = scale.

The Logistic distribution is used in Extreme Value problems where it can act as a mixture of Gumbel distributions, in Epidemiology, and by the World Chess Federation (FIDE) where it is used in the Elo ranking system, assuming the performance of each player is a logistically distributed random variable.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> loc, scale = 10, 1
>>> s = np.random.logistic(loc, scale, 10000)
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, bins=50)
>>> # plot against distribution
```
```python
>>> def logist(x, loc, scale):
...     return np.exp((loc-x)/scale)/(scale*(1+np.exp((loc-x)/scale))**2)
>>> lgst_val = logist(bins, loc, scale)
>>> plt.plot(bins, lgst_val * count.max() / lgst_val.max())
>>> plt.show()
```

**random.lognormal(mean=0.0, sigma=1.0, size=None)**

Draw samples from a log-normal distribution.

Draw samples from a log-normal distribution with specified mean, standard deviation, and array shape. Note that the mean and standard deviation are not the values for the distribution itself, but of the underlying normal distribution it is derived from.

**Note:** New code should use the lognormal method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- **mean**
  [float or array_like of floats, optional] Mean value of the underlying normal distribution. Default is 0.

- **sigma**
  [float or array_like of floats, optional] Standard deviation of the underlying normal distribution. Must be non-negative. Default is 1.

- **size**
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if mean and sigma are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(mean, sigma).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**
out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized log-normal distribution.

See also:

`scipy.stats.lognorm`

probability density function, distribution, cumulative density function, etc.

`Generator.lognormal`

which should be used for new code.

Notes

A variable $x$ has a log-normal distribution if $\log(x)$ is normally distributed. The probability density function for the log-normal distribution is:

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma x \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(\ln(x) - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

where $\mu$ is the mean and $\sigma$ is the standard deviation of the normally distributed logarithm of the variable. A log-normal distribution results if a random variable is the product of a large number of independent, identically-distributed variables in the same way that a normal distribution results if the variable is the sum of a large number of independent, identically-distributed variables.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> mu, sigma = 3., 1. # mean and standard deviation
>>> s = np.random.lognormal(mu, sigma, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 100, density=True, align='mid')
>>> x = np.linspace(min(bins), max(bins), 10000)
>>> pdf = (np.exp(-(np.log(x) - mu)**2 / (2 * sigma**2))
...       / (x * sigma * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)))
>>> plt.plot(x, pdf, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.axis('tight')
>>> plt.show()
```

Demonstrate that taking the products of random samples from a uniform distribution can be fit well by a log-normal probability density function.
```python
>>> # Generate a thousand samples: each is the product of 100 random
>>> # values, drawn from a normal distribution.
>>> b = []
>>> for i in range(1000):
...     a = 10. + np.random.standard_normal(100)
...     b.append(np.product(a))

>>> b = np.array(b) / np.min(b) # scale values to be positive
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(b, 100, density=True, align='mid')
>>> sigma = np.std(np.log(b))
>>> mu = np.mean(np.log(b))

>>> x = np.linspace(min(bins), max(bins), 10000)
>>> pdf = (np.exp(-(np.log(x) - mu)**2 / (2 * sigma**2))
...         / (x * sigma * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)))

>>> plt.plot(x, pdf, color='r', linewidth=2)
>>> plt.show()
```

`random.logseries(p, size=None)`

Draw samples from a logarithmic series distribution.

Samples are drawn from a log series distribution with specified shape parameter, \(0 < p < 1\).

**Note:** New code should use the `logseries` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- `p`
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Shape parameter for the distribution. Must be in the range \((0, 1)\).  

- `size`
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if p is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(p).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized logarithmic series distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.logser

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.logseries

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Log Series distribution is

\[
P(k) = \frac{-p^k}{k \ln(1-p)},
\]

where p = probability.

The log series distribution is frequently used to represent species richness and occurrence, first proposed by Fisher, Corbet, and Williams in 1943 [2]. It may also be used to model the numbers of occupants seen in cars [3].
References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a = .6
>>> s = np.random.logseries(a, 10000)
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s)

# plot against distribution

>>> def logseries(k, p):
...     return -p**k/(k*np.log(1-p))
>>> plt.plot(bins, logseries(bins, a)*count.max()/
...          logseries(bins, a).max(), 'r')
>>> plt.show()
```

**random.multinomial** *(n, pvals, size=None)*

Draw samples from a multinomial distribution.

The multinomial distribution is a multivariate generalization of the binomial distribution. Take an experiment with one of p possible outcomes. An example of such an experiment is throwing a dice, where the outcome can be 1 through 6. Each sample drawn from the distribution represents n such experiments. Its values, \(X_i = [X_0, X_1, \ldots, X_p]\), represent the number of times the outcome was i.

**Note:** New code should use the multinomial method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.
n
[int] Number of experiments.

pvals
[sequence of floats, length p] Probabilities of each of the p different outcomes. These must sum to 1 (however, the last element is always assumed to account for the remaining probability, as long as sum(pvals[:-1]) <= 1).

size
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

Returns

out
[ndarray] The drawn samples, of shape size, if that was provided. If not, the shape is (N,).
In other words, each entry out[i, j, ..., :] is an N-dimensional value drawn from the distribution.

See also:

Generator.multinomial
which should be used for new code.

Examples

Throw a dice 20 times:

```python
>>> np.random.multinomial(20, [1/6.]*6, size=1)
array([[4, 1, 7, 5, 2, 1]]) # random
```

It landed 4 times on 1, once on 2, etc.

Now, throw the dice 20 times, and 20 times again:

```python
>>> np.random.multinomial(20, [1/6.]*6, size=2)
array([[3, 4, 3, 3, 4, 3], # random
       [2, 4, 3, 4, 0, 7]])
```

For the first run, we threw 3 times 1, 4 times 2, etc. For the second, we threw 2 times 1, 4 times 2, etc.

A loaded die is more likely to land on number 6:

```python
>>> np.random.multinomial(100, [1/7.]*5 + [2/7.])
array([11, 16, 14, 17, 16, 26]) # random
```

The probability inputs should be normalized. As an implementation detail, the value of the last entry is ignored and assumed to take up any leftover probability mass, but this should not be relied on. A biased coin which has twice as much weight on one side as on the other should be sampled like so:

```python
>>> np.random.multinomial(100, [1.0 / 3, 2.0 / 3]) # RIGHT
array([38, 62]) # random
```

not like:
random.multivariate_normal (mean, cov, size=None, check_valid='warn', tol=1e-8)

Draw random samples from a multivariate normal distribution.

The multivariate normal, multinormal or Gaussian distribution is a generalization of the one-dimensional normal distribution to higher dimensions. Such a distribution is specified by its mean and covariance matrix. These parameters are analogous to the mean (average or "center") and variance (standard deviation, or "width," squared) of the one-dimensional normal distribution.

Note: New code should use the multivariate_normal method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

mean

[1-D array_like, of length N] Mean of the N-dimensional distribution.

cov

[2-D array_like, of shape (N, N)] Covariance matrix of the distribution. It must be symmetric and positive-semidefinite for proper sampling.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Given a shape of, for example, (m, n, k), m*n*k samples are generated, and packed in an m-by-n-by-k arrangement. Because each sample is N-dimensional, the output shape is (m, n, k, N). If no shape is specified, a single (N-D) sample is returned.

check_valid

[{'warn', 'raise', 'ignore'}, optional] Behavior when the covariance matrix is not positive semidefinite.

tol

[float, optional] Tolerance when checking the singular values in covariance matrix. cov is cast to double before the check.

Returns

out

[ndarray] The drawn samples, of shape size, if that was provided. If not, the shape is (N,).

In other words, each entry out[i, j, ..., :] is an N-dimensional value drawn from the distribution.

See also:

Generator.multivariate_normal

which should be used for new code.
Notes

The mean is a coordinate in N-dimensional space, which represents the location where samples are most likely to be generated. This is analogous to the peak of the bell curve for the one-dimensional or univariate normal distribution.

Covariance indicates the level to which two variables vary together. From the multivariate normal distribution, we draw N-dimensional samples, \( \mathbf{X} = [x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N] \). The covariance matrix element \( C_{ij} \) is the covariance of \( x_i \) and \( x_j \). The element \( C_{ii} \) is the variance of \( x_i \) (i.e. its “spread”).

Instead of specifying the full covariance matrix, popular approximations include:

- Spherical covariance (\( \text{cov} \) is a multiple of the identity matrix)
- Diagonal covariance (\( \text{cov} \) has non-negative elements, and only on the diagonal)

This geometrical property can be seen in two dimensions by plotting generated data-points:

```python
>>> mean = [0, 0]
>>> cov = [[1, 0], [0, 100]]  # diagonal covariance
```

Diagonal covariance means that points are oriented along x or y-axis:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x, y = np.random.multivariate_normal(mean, cov, 5000).T
>>> plt.plot(x, y, 'x')
>>> plt.axis('equal')
>>> plt.show()
```

Note that the covariance matrix must be positive semidefinite (a.k.a. nonnegative-definite). Otherwise, the behavior of this method is undefined and backwards compatibility is not guaranteed.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

```python
>>> mean = (1, 2)
>>> cov = [[1, 0], [0, 1]]
>>> x = np.random.multivariate_normal(mean, cov, (3, 3))
>>> x.shape
(3, 3, 2)
```

The following is probably true, given that 0.6 is roughly twice the standard deviation:

```python
>>> list((x[0,0,:] - mean) < 0.6)
[True, True]  # random
```

**random.negative_binomial** (\( n, p, \text{size}=None \))

Draw samples from a negative binomial distribution.

Samples are drawn from a negative binomial distribution with specified parameters, \( n \) successes and \( p \) probability of success where \( n > 0 \) and \( p \) is in the interval \([0, 1]\).

**Note:** New code should use the negative_binomial method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.
Parameters

n
[float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution, > 0.

p
[float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution, >= 0 and <= 1.

size
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if n and p are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(n, p).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out
[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized negative binomial distribution, where each sample is equal to N, the number of failures that occurred before a total of n successes was reached.

See also:

Generator.negative_binomial

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability mass function of the negative binomial distribution is

\[ P(N; n, p) = \frac{\Gamma(N + n)}{N! \Gamma(n)} p^n (1 - p)^N, \]

where \( n \) is the number of successes, \( p \) is the probability of success, \( N + n \) is the number of trials, and \( \Gamma \) is the gamma function. When \( n \) is an integer, \( \frac{\Gamma(N + n)}{N! \Gamma(n)} = \binom{N+n-1}{N} \), which is the more common form of this term in the pmf. The negative binomial distribution gives the probability of N failures given n successes, with a success on the last trial.

If one throws a die repeatedly until the third time a “1” appears, then the probability distribution of the number of non-“1”s that appear before the third “1” is a negative binomial distribution.

References

[1], [2]
Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

A real world example. A company drills wild-cat oil exploration wells, each with an estimated probability of success of 0.1. What is the probability of having one success for each successive well, that is what is the probability of a single success after drilling 5 wells, after 6 wells, etc.?

```python
generate = np.random.negative_binomial(1, 0.1, 100000)
for i in range(1, 11):
    probability = sum(generate < i) / 100000.
    print(i, "wells drilled, probability of one success =", probability)
```

`np.random.noncentral_chisquare(df, nonc, size=None)`

Draw samples from a noncentral chi-square distribution.

The noncentral \( \chi^2 \) distribution is a generalization of the \( \chi^2 \) distribution.

**Note:** New code should use the `noncentral_chisquare` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- `df`
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Degrees of freedom, must be > 0.
  
  Changed in version 1.10.0: Earlier NumPy versions required dfnum > 1.

- `nonc`
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Non-centrality, must be non-negative.

- `size`
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then \( m \times n \times k \) samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `df` and `nonc` are both scalars. Otherwise, `np.broadcast(df, nonc).size` samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- `out`
  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized noncentral chi-square distribution.

**See also:**

- `Generator.noncentral_chisquare`
  
  which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density function for the noncentral Chi-square distribution is

\[ P(x; df, nonc) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{-nonc/2}(nonc/2)^i \frac{1}{i!} P_{Y_{df+2}}(x), \]

where \( Y_q \) is the Chi-square with \( q \) degrees of freedom.

References

[1]

Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> values = plt.hist(np.random.noncentral_chisquare(3, 20, 100000),
...                     bins=200, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

![Histogram](image)

Draw values from a noncentral chisquare with very small noncentrality, and compare to a chisquare.

```python
>>> plt.figure()
>>> values = plt.hist(np.random.noncentral_chisquare(3, .0000001, 100000),
...                    bins=np.arange(0., 25, .1), density=True)
>>> values2 = plt.hist(np.random.chisquare(3, 100000),
...                    bins=np.arange(0., 25, .1), density=True)
>>> plt.plot(values[1][0:-1], values[0]-values2[0], 'ob')
>>> plt.show()
```

Demonstrate how large values of non-centrality lead to a more symmetric distribution.
```python
>>> plt.figure()
>>> values = plt.hist(np.random.noncentral_chisquare(3, 20, 100000),
...                   bins=200, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

```python
random.noncentral_f(dfnum, dfden, nonc, size=None)
```

Draw samples from the noncentral F distribution.

Samples are drawn from an F distribution with specified parameters, `dfnum` (degrees of freedom in numerator) and `dfden` (degrees of freedom in denominator), where both parameters > 1. `nonc` is the non-centrality parameter.

**Note:** New code should use the `noncentral_f` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the *Quick Start*.

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Parameters

dfnum
[Float or array_like of floats] Numerator degrees of freedom, must be > 0.
Changed in version 1.14.0: Earlier NumPy versions required dfnum > 1.
dfden
[Float or array_like of floats] Denominator degrees of freedom, must be > 0.
nonc
[Float or array_like of floats] Non-centrality parameter, the sum of the squares of the numerator means, must be >= 0.
size
[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if dfnum, dfden, and nonc are all scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(dfnum, dfden, nonc).size samples are drawn.

Returns
out
[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized noncentral Fisher distribution.

See also:

generator.noncentral_f
which should be used for new code.

Notes

When calculating the power of an experiment (power = probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when a specific alternative is true) the non-central F statistic becomes important. When the null hypothesis is true, the F statistic follows a central F distribution. When the null hypothesis is not true, then it follows a non-central F statistic.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

In a study, testing for a specific alternative to the null hypothesis requires use of the Noncentral F distribution. We need to calculate the area in the tail of the distribution that exceeds the value of the F distribution for the null hypothesis. We'll plot the two probability distributions for comparison.

```python
>>> dfnum = 3 # between group deg of freedom
>>> dfden = 20 # within groups degrees of freedom
>>> nonc = 3.0
>>> nc_vals = np.random.noncentral_f(dfnum, dfden, nonc, 1000000)
```
```python
>>> NF = np.histogram(nc_vals, bins=50, density=True)
>>> c_vals = np.random.f(dfnum, dfden, 1000000)
>>> F = np.histogram(c_vals, bins=50, density=True)
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> plt.plot(F[1][1:], F[0])
>>> plt.plot(NF[1][1:], NF[0])
>>> plt.show()
```

```python
random.normal(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=None)
```

Draw random samples from a normal (Gaussian) distribution.

The probability density function of the normal distribution, first derived by De Moivre and 200 years later by both Gauss and Laplace independently [2], is often called the bell curve because of its characteristic shape (see the example below).

The normal distributions occurs often in nature. For example, it describes the commonly occurring distribution of samples influenced by a large number of tiny, random disturbances, each with its own unique distribution [2].

Note: New code should use the `normal` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the `Quick Start`.

Parameters

- **loc**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Mean (“centre”) of the distribution.

- **scale**
  
  [float or array_like of floats] Standard deviation (spread or “width”) of the distribution. Must be non-negative.

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `loc` and

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scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(loc, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized normal distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.norm

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.normal

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Gaussian distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \]

where \( \mu \) is the mean and \( \sigma \) the standard deviation. The square of the standard deviation, \( \sigma^2 \), is called the variance.

The function has its peak at the mean, and its “spread” increases with the standard deviation (the function reaches 0.607 times its maximum at \( x + \sigma \) and \( x - \sigma \) [2]). This implies that normal is more likely to return samples lying close to the mean, rather than those far away.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> mu, sigma = 0, 0.1 # mean and standard deviation
>>> s = np.random.normal(mu, sigma, 1000)
```

Verify the mean and the variance:

```python
>>> abs(mu - np.mean(s))
0.0 # may vary

>>> abs(sigma - np.std(s, ddof=1))
0.1 # may vary
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:
```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 30, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(bins, 1/(sigma * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)) *
...          np.exp(- (bins - mu)**2 / (2 * sigma**2) ),
...          linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

Two-by-four array of samples from N(3, 6.25):
```
>>> np.random.normal(3, 2.5, size=(2, 4))
array([[ 4.94015013,  4.00950034, -1.81814867,  7.29718677],
       [ 0.39924804,  4.68456316,  4.99394529,  4.84057254]])
```

`numpy.random.pareto(a, size=None)`

Draw samples from a Pareto II or Lomax distribution with specified shape.

The Lomax or Pareto II distribution is a shifted Pareto distribution. The classical Pareto distribution can be obtained from the Lomax distribution by adding 1 and multiplying by the scale parameter \( m \) (see Notes). The smallest value of the Lomax distribution is zero while for the classical Pareto distribution it is \( \mu \), where the standard Pareto distribution has location \( \mu = 1 \). Lomax can also be considered as a simplified version of the Generalized Pareto distribution (available in SciPy), with the scale set to one and the location set to zero.

The Pareto distribution must be greater than zero, and is unbounded above. It is also known as the “80-20 rule”. In this distribution, 80 percent of the weights are in the lowest 20 percent of the range, while the other 20 percent fill the remaining 80 percent of the range.

Note: New code should use the `pareto` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- `a` [float or array_like of floats] Shape of the distribution. Must be positive.
size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `a` is a scalar. Otherwise, `np.array(a).size` samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Pareto distribution.

See also:

`scipy.stats.lomax`

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

`scipy.stats.genpareto`

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

`Generator.pareto`

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Pareto distribution is

\[
p(x) = \frac{am^a}{x^{a+1}}
\]

where \(a\) is the shape and \(m\) the scale.

The Pareto distribution, named after the Italian economist Vilfredo Pareto, is a power law probability distribution useful in many real world problems. Outside the field of economics it is generally referred to as the Bradford distribution. Pareto developed the distribution to describe the distribution of wealth in an economy. It has also found use in insurance, web page access statistics, oil field sizes, and many other problems, including the download frequency for projects in Sourceforge [1]. It is one of the so-called “fat-tailed” distributions.

References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a, m = 3., 2.  # shape and mode
>>> s = (np.random.pareto(a, 1000) + 1) * m
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:
```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, _ = plt.hist(s, 100, density=True)
>>> fit = a**m**a / bins**(a+1)
>>> plt.plot(bins, max(count)*fit/max(fit), linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

`random.permutation(x)`

Randomly permute a sequence, or return a permuted range.

If x is a multi-dimensional array, it is only shuffled along its first index.

**Note:** New code should use the permutation method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

**Parameters**

- x

  [int or array_like] If x is an integer, randomly permute `np.arange(x)`. If x is an array, make a copy and shuffle the elements randomly.

**Returns**

- out

  [ndarray] Permutated sequence or array range.

**See also:**

- `Generator.permutation`

  which should be used for new code.

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Examples

```python
>>> np.random.permutation(10)
array([1, 7, 4, 3, 0, 9, 2, 5, 8, 6]) # random

>>> np.random.permutation([1, 4, 9, 12, 15])
array([15, 1, 9, 4, 12]) # random

>>> arr = np.arange(9).reshape((3, 3))
>>> np.random.permutation(arr)
array([[6, 7, 8], # random
       [0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5]])
```

`random.poisson(lam=1.0, size=None)`

Draw samples from a Poisson distribution.

The Poisson distribution is the limit of the binomial distribution for large N.

**Note:** New code should use the `poisson` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- `lam`
  - [float or array_like of floats] Expected number of events occurring in a fixed-time interval, must be >= 0. A sequence must be broadcastable over the requested size.

- `size`
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `lam` is a scalar. Otherwise, `np.array(lam).size` samples are drawn.

Returns

- `out`
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Poisson distribution.

See also:

- `Generator.poisson`
  - which should be used for new code.
Notes

The Poisson distribution

\[ f(k; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!} \]

For events with an expected separation \( \lambda \) the Poisson distribution \( f(k; \lambda) \) describes the probability of \( k \) events occurring within the observed interval \( \lambda \).

Because the output is limited to the range of the C int64 type, a ValueError is raised when \( \text{lam} \) is within 10 sigma of the maximum representable value.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> s = np.random.poisson(5, 10000)
```

Display histogram of the sample:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 14, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

Draw each 100 values for \( \lambda \) 100 and 500:

```python
>>> s = np.random.poisson(lam=(100., 500.), size=(100, 2))
```
random.power(a, size=None)

Draws samples in [0, 1] from a power distribution with positive exponent a - 1.

Also known as the power function distribution.

Note: New code should use the power method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- a
  - [float or array_like of floats] Parameter of the distribution. Must be non-negative.
- size
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if a is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(a).size samples are drawn.

Returns

- out
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized power distribution.

Raises

- ValueError
  - If a < 1.

See also:

- Generator.power
  - which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density function is

\[ P(x; a) = ax^{a-1}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1, \quad a > 0. \]

The power function distribution is just the inverse of the Pareto distribution. It may also be seen as a special case of the Beta distribution.

It is used, for example, in modeling the over-reporting of insurance claims.
Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a = 5.  # shape
>>> samples = 1000
>>> s = np.random.power(a, samples)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, bins=30)
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 1, 100)
>>> y = a*x**(a-1.)
>>> normed_y = samples* np.diff(bins)[0]*y
>>> plt.plot(x, normed_y)
>>> plt.show()
```

Compare the power function distribution to the inverse of the Pareto.

```python
>>> from scipy import stats
>>> rvs = np.random.power(5, 1000000)
>>> rvsp = np.random.pareto(5, 1000000)
>>> xx = np.linspace(0, 1, 100)
>>> powpdf = stats.powerlaw.pdf(xx, 5)
```

```python
>>> plt.figure()
>>> plt.hist(rvs, bins=50, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(xx, powpdf, 'r-')
>>> plt.title('np.random.power(5)')
```
```
>>> plt.figure()
>>> plt.hist(1./(1.+rvsp), bins=50, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(xx,powpdf,'r-')
>>> plt.title('inverse of 1 + np.random.pareto(5)')
```

```
>>> plt.figure()
>>> plt.hist(1./(1.+rvsp), bins=50, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(xx,powpdf,'r-')
>>> plt.title('inverse of stats.pareto(5)')
```

**random.**rand**(d0, d1, ..., dn)**

Random values in a given shape.

**Note:** This is a convenience function for users porting code from Matlab, and wraps random_sample. That
function takes a tuple to specify the size of the output, which is consistent with other NumPy functions like `numpy.zeros` and `numpy.ones`.

Create an array of the given shape and populate it with random samples from a uniform distribution over \([0, 1)\).

Parameters

- \(d0, d1, \ldots, dn\)
  
  [int, optional] The dimensions of the returned array, must be non-negative. If no argument is given a single Python float is returned.

Returns

- \(out\)
  
  [ndarray, shape \((d0, d1, \ldots, dn)\)] Random values.

See also:

- `random`

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.rand(3,2)
array([[ 0.14022471, 0.96360618],
       [ 0.37601032, 0.25528411],
       [ 0.49313049, 0.94909878]])
```

`random.randint(low, high=None, size=None, dtype=int)`

Return random integers from \(low\) (inclusive) to \(high\) (exclusive).

Return random integers from the “discrete uniform” distribution of the specified dtype in the “half-open” interval \([low, high)\). If \(high\) is None (the default), then results are from \([0, low)\).
Note: New code should use the `integers` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- **low**
  - [int or array-like of ints] Lowest (signed) integers to be drawn from the distribution (unless `high=None`, in which case this parameter is one above the highest such integer).

- **high**
  - [int or array-like of ints, optional] If provided, one above the largest (signed) integer to be drawn from the distribution (see above for behavior if `high=None`). If array-like, must contain integer values

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. Default is `None`, in which case a single value is returned.

- **dtype**
  - [dtype, optional] Desired dtype of the result. Byteorder must be native. The default value is int.
    - New in version 1.11.0.

Returns

- **out**
  - [int or ndarray of ints] `size`-shaped array of random integers from the appropriate distribution, or a single such random int if `size` not provided.

See also:

- `random_integers`
  - similar to `randint`, only for the closed interval `[low, high]`, and 1 is the lowest value if `high` is omitted.

- `Generator.integers`
  - which should be used for new code.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.randint(2, size=10)
array([1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0])  # random
>>> np.random.randint(1, size=10)
array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0])
```

Generate a 2 x 4 array of ints between 0 and 4, inclusive:

```python
>>> np.random.randint(5, size=(2, 4))
array([[4, 0, 2, 1],
       [3, 2, 2, 0]])
```
Generate a 1 x 3 array with 3 different upper bounds

```python
>>> np.random.randint(1, [3, 5, 10])
array([2, 2, 9]) # random
```

Generate a 1 by 3 array with 3 different lower bounds

```python
>>> np.random.randint([1, 5, 7], 10)
array([9, 8, 7]) # random
```

Generate a 2 by 4 array using broadcasting with dtype of uint8

```python
>>> np.random.randint([1, 3, 5, 7], [[10], [20]], dtype=np.uint8)
array([[ 8, 6, 9, 7],
       [ 1, 16, 9, 12]], dtype=uint8)
```

`random.randn(d0, d1, ..., dn)`

Return a sample (or samples) from the “standard normal” distribution.

**Note:** This is a convenience function for users porting code from Matlab, and wraps `standard_normal`. That function takes a tuple to specify the size of the output, which is consistent with other NumPy functions like `numpy.zeros` and `numpy.ones`.

**Note:** New code should use the `standard_normal` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

If positive int_like arguments are provided, `randn` generates an array of shape `(d0, d1, ..., dn)`, filled with random floats sampled from a univariate “normal” (Gaussian) distribution of mean 0 and variance 1. A single float randomly sampled from the distribution is returned if no argument is provided.

**Parameters**

- `d0, d1, ..., dn`  
  [int, optional] The dimensions of the returned array, must be non-negative. If no argument is given a single Python float is returned.

**Returns**

- `Z`  
  [ndarray or float] A `(d0, d1, ..., dn)`-shaped array of floating-point samples from the standard normal distribution, or a single such float if no parameters were supplied.

**See also:**

- `standard_normal`  
  Similar, but takes a tuple as its argument.

- `normal`  
  Also accepts mu and sigma arguments.

- `Generator.standard_normal`  
  which should be used for new code.
Notes

For random samples from $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, use:

$$\sigma * \text{np.random.randn}(\ldots) + \mu$$

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.randn()
2.1923875335537315  # random
```

Two-by-four array of samples from $N(3, 6.25)$:

```python
>>> 3 + 2.5 * np.random.randn(2, 4)
array([[-4.49401501, 4.00950034, -1.81814867, 7.29718677],
       [ 0.39924804, 4.68456316, 4.99394529, 4.84057254]])  # random
```

`random.random(size=None)`

Return random floats in the half-open interval $[0.0, 1.0)$. Alias for `random_sample` to ease forward-porting to the new random API.

`random.random_integers(low, high=None, size=None)`

Random integers of type `np.int_` between low and high, inclusive.

Return random integers of type `np.int_` from the “discrete uniform” distribution in the closed interval $[low, high]$. If high is None (the default), then results are from $[1, low]$. The `np.int_` type translates to the C long integer type and its precision is platform dependent.

This function has been deprecated. Use randint instead.

Deprecated since version 1.11.0.

Parameters

- `low`
  - [int] Lowest (signed) integer to be drawn from the distribution (unless high=None, in which case this parameter is the highest such integer).

- `high`
  - [int, optional] If provided, the largest (signed) integer to be drawn from the distribution (see above for behavior if high=None).

- `size`
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., $(m, n, k)$, then $m * n * k$ samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

Returns

- `out`
  - [int or ndarray of ints] size-shaped array of random integers from the appropriate distribution, or a single such random int if size not provided.

See also:
**randint**

Similar to *random_integers*, only for the half-open interval \([low, high)\), and 0 is the lowest value if *high* is omitted.

**Notes**

To sample from \(N\) evenly spaced floating-point numbers between \(a\) and \(b\), use:

\[
a + (b - a) \times (\text{np.random.random_integers}(N) - 1) / (N - 1.)
\]

**Examples**

```python
>>> np.random.random_integers(5)
4 # random
>>> type(np.random.random_integers(5))
<class 'numpy.int64'>
>>> np.random.random_integers(5, size=(3,2))
array([[5, 4], # random
       [3, 3],
       [4, 5]])
```

Choose five random numbers from the set of five evenly-spaced numbers between 0 and 2.5, inclusive \(i.e.,\) from the set \(0, 5/8, 10/8, 15/8, 20/8)):

```python
>>> 2.5 * (np.random.random_integers(5, size=(5,)) - 1) / 4.
array([ 0.625,  1.25 ,  0.625,  0.625,  2.5 ]) # random
```

Roll two six sided dice 1000 times and sum the results:

```python
>>> d1 = np.random.random_integers(1, 6, 1000)
>>> d2 = np.random.random_integers(1, 6, 1000)
>>> dsums = d1 + d2
```

Display results as a histogram:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(dsums, 11, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

**random.random_sample** (*size=\(None)\)

Return random floats in the half-open interval \([0.0, 1.0)\).

Results are from the “continuous uniform” distribution over the stated interval. To sample \(\text{Unif}[a,b), b > a\) multiply the output of *random_sample* by \((b-a)\) and add \(a\):

\[
(b - a) \times \text{random_sample()} + a
\]

**Note:** New code should use the *random* method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the *Quick Start*.

**Parameters**
size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m
* n * k samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

Returns

out

[float or ndarray of floats] Array of random floats of shape size (unless size=None, in
which case a single float is returned).

See also:

Generator.random

which should be used for new code.

Examples

```python
>>> np.random.random_sample()
0.47108547995356098 # random
>>> type(np.random.random_sample())
<class 'float'>
>>> np.random.random_sample((5,))
array([ 0.30220482, 0.86820401, 0.1654503 , 0.11659149, 0.54323428]) # random
```

Three-by-two array of random numbers from [-5, 0):

```python
>>> 5 * np.random.random_sample((3, 2)) - 5
array([[-3.99149989, -0.52338984],
[-2.99091858, -0.79479508],
[-1.23204345, -1.75224494]])
```

random.ranf()

This is an alias of random_sample. See random_sample for the complete documentation.
random.rayleigh(scale=1.0, size=None)

Draw samples from a Rayleigh distribution.

The $\chi$ and Weibull distributions are generalizations of the Rayleigh.

**Note:** New code should use the `rayleigh` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

### Parameters

- **scale**
  
  [float or array_like of floats, optional] Scale, also equals the mode. Must be non-negative. Default is 1.

- **size**
  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., $(m, n, k)$, then $m \times n \times k$ samples are drawn. If `size` is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `scale` is a scalar. Otherwise, `np.array(scale).size` samples are drawn.

### Returns

- **out**
  
  [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Rayleigh distribution.

**See also:**

*Generator.rayleigh*

which should be used for new code.

**Notes**

The probability density function for the Rayleigh distribution is

\[
P(x; \text{scale}) = \frac{x}{\text{scale}^2} \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{2 \cdot \text{scale}^2}\right)
\]

The Rayleigh distribution would arise, for example, if the East and North components of the wind velocity had identical zero-mean Gaussian distributions. Then the wind speed would have a Rayleigh distribution.

**References**

[1], [2]
Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram

```python
>>> from matplotlib.pyplot import hist
>>> values = hist(np.random.rayleigh(3, 100000), bins=200, density=True)
```

Wave heights tend to follow a Rayleigh distribution. If the mean wave height is 1 meter, what fraction of waves are likely to be larger than 3 meters?

```python
>>> meanvalue = 1
>>> modevalue = np.sqrt(2 / np.pi) * meanvalue
>>> s = np.random.rayleigh(modevalue, 100000)
```

The percentage of waves larger than 3 meters is:

```python
>>> 100.*sum(s>3)/1000000.
0.08730000000000003 # random
```

`random.sample()`

This is an alias of `random.sample`. See `random.sample` for the complete documentation.

`random.seed(self, seed=None)`

Reseed a legacy MT19937 BitGenerator

Notes

This is a convenience, legacy function.

The best practice is to not reseed a BitGenerator, rather to recreate a new one. This method is here for legacy reasons. This example demonstrates best practice.

```python
>>> from numpy.random import MT19937
>>> from numpy.random import RandomState, SeedSequence
>>> rs = RandomState(MT19937(SeedSequence(123456789)))
# Later, you want to restart the stream
>>> rs = RandomState(MT19937(SeedSequence(987654321)))
```

`random.set_state(state)`

Set the internal state of the generator from a tuple.

For use if one has reason to manually (re-)set the internal state of the bit generator used by the RandomState instance. By default, RandomState uses the “Mersenne Twister”[1] pseudo-random number generating algorithm.

**Parameters**

- `state`

  [(tuple(str, ndarray of 624 uints, int, int, float), dict)]

  The `state` tuple has the following items:

  1. the string 'MT19937', specifying the Mersenne Twister algorithm.
  2. a 1-D array of 624 unsigned integers `keys`.
  3. an integer `pos`.
  4. an integer `has_gauss`.
  5. a float `cached_gaussian`. 
If state is a dictionary, it is directly set using the BitGenerators state property.

Returns

out

[None] Returns ‘None’ on success.

See also:

get_state

Notes

set_state and get_state are not needed to work with any of the random distributions in NumPy. If the internal state is manually altered, the user should know exactly what he/she is doing.

For backwards compatibility, the form (str, array of 624 uints, int) is also accepted although it is missing some information about the cached Gaussian value: state = ('MT19937', keys, pos).

References

[1] random.shuffle(x)

Modify a sequence in-place by shuffling its contents.

This function only shuffles the array along the first axis of a multi-dimensional array. The order of sub-arrays is changed but their contents remains the same.

Parameters

x

[ndarray or MutableSequence] The array, list or mutable sequence to be shuffled.

Returns

None

See also:

Generator.shuffle

which should be used for new code.
Examples

```python
>>> arr = np.arange(10)
>>> np.random.shuffle(arr)
>>> arr
[1 7 5 2 9 4 3 6 0 8] # random
```

Multi-dimensional arrays are only shuffled along the first axis:

```python
>>> arr = np.arange(9).reshape((3, 3))
>>> np.random.shuffle(arr)
>>> arr
array([[3, 4, 5], # random
       [6, 7, 8],
       [0, 1, 2]])
```

`random.standard_cauchy(size=None)`

Draw samples from a standard Cauchy distribution with mode = 0.

Also known as the Lorentz distribution.

**Note:** New code should use the `standard_cauchy` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the *Quick Start*.

**Parameters**

- `size`  
  [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., `(m, n, k)`, then `m * n * k` samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

**Returns**

- `samples`  
  [ndarray or scalar] The drawn samples.

**See also:**

- `Generator.standard_cauchy`  
  which should be used for new code.

**Notes**

The probability density function for the full Cauchy distribution is

\[ P(x; x_0, \gamma) = \frac{1}{\pi \gamma \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{x - x_0}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right] } \]

and the Standard Cauchy distribution just sets \( x_0 = 0 \) and \( \gamma = 1 \)

The Cauchy distribution arises in the solution to the driven harmonic oscillator problem, and also describes spectral line broadening. It also describes the distribution of values at which a line tilted at a random angle will cut the x-axis.
When studying hypothesis tests that assume normality, seeing how the tests perform on data from a Cauchy distribution is a good indicator of their sensitivity to a heavy-tailed distribution, since the Cauchy looks very much like a Gaussian distribution, but with heavier tails.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples and plot the distribution:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> s = np.random.standard_cauchy(1000000)
>>> s = s[(s>-25) & (s<25)]  # truncate distribution so it plots well
>>> plt.hist(s, bins=100)
>>> plt.show()
```

```
random.standard_exponential(size=None)

Draw samples from the standard exponential distribution.

standard_exponential is identical to the exponential distribution with a scale parameter of 1.

Note: New code should use the standard_exponential method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters:

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.
```
Returns

out

[float or ndarray] Drawn samples.

See also:

Generator.standard_exponential

which should be used for new code.

Examples

Output a 3x8000 array:

```python
>>> n = np.random.standard_exponential((3, 8000))
```

random.standard_gamma (shape, size=None)

Draw samples from a standard Gamma distribution.

Samples are drawn from a Gamma distribution with specified parameters, shape (sometimes designated “k”) and scale=1.

Note: New code should use the standard_gamma method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

shape

[float or array_like of floats] Parameter, must be non-negative.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if shape is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(shape).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized standard gamma distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.gamma

probability density function, distribution or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.standard_gamma

which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density for the Gamma distribution is

\[ p(x) = x^{k-1} \frac{e^{-x/\theta}}{\theta^k \Gamma(k)}, \]

where \( k \) is the shape and \( \theta \) the scale, and \( \Gamma \) is the Gamma function.

The Gamma distribution is often used to model the times to failure of electronic components, and arises naturally in processes for which the waiting times between Poisson distributed events are relevant.

References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> shape, scale = 2., 1. # mean and width
>>> s = np.random.standard_gamma(shape, 1000000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> import scipy.special as sps
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 50, density=True)
>>> y = bins**(shape-1) * ((np.exp(-bins/scale))/
... (sps.gamma(shape) * scale**shape))
>>> plt.plot(bins, y, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

random.standard_normal (size=None)

Draw samples from a standard Normal distribution (mean=0, stdev=1).
Note: New code should use the \texttt{standard_normal} method of a \texttt{default_rng()} instance instead; please see the \texttt{Quick Start}.

Parameters

\texttt{size}

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

Returns

\texttt{out}

[float or ndarray] A floating-point array of shape \texttt{size} of drawn samples, or a single sample if \texttt{size} was not specified.

See also:

\texttt{normal}

Equivalent function with additional \texttt{loc} and \texttt{scale} arguments for setting the mean and standard deviation.

\texttt{Generator.standard_normal}

which should be used for new code.

Notes

For random samples from \(N(\mu, \sigma^2)\), use one of:

\begin{verbatim}
mu + sigma * np.random.standard_normal(size=...)
np.random.normal(mu, sigma, size=...)
\end{verbatim}

Examples

\begin{verbatim}
>>> np.random.standard_normal()
2.1923875335537315 #random

>>> s = np.random.standard_normal(8000)
>>> s
array([ 0.6888893 , 0.78096262, -0.89086505, ..., 0.49876311, # random
        -0.38672696, -0.4685006 ])

>>> s.shape
(8000,)

>>> s = np.random.standard_normal(size=(3, 4))

>>> s.shape
(3, 4, 2)
\end{verbatim}

Two-by-four array of samples from \(N(3, 6.25)\):
random.standard_t (df, size=None)

Draw samples from a standard Student’s t distribution with df degrees of freedom.

A special case of the hyperbolic distribution. As df gets large, the result resembles that of the standard normal distribution (standard_normal).

Note: New code should use the standard_t method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the Quick Start.

Parameters

- df
  - [float or array_like of floats] Degrees of freedom, must be > 0.
- size
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if df is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(df).size samples are drawn.

Returns

- out
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized standard Student’s t distribution.

See also:

Generator.standard_t

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density function for the t distribution is

\[ P(x, df) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{df+1}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{\pi df}\Gamma\left(\frac{df}{2}\right)} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{df}\right)^{-(df+1)/2} \]

The t test is based on an assumption that the data come from a Normal distribution. The t test provides a way to test whether the sample mean (that is the mean calculated from the data) is a good estimate of the true mean.

The derivation of the t-distribution was first published in 1908 by William Gosset while working for the Guinness Brewery in Dublin. Due to proprietary issues, he had to publish under a pseudonym, and so he used the name Student.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

From Dalgaard page 83 [1], suppose the daily energy intake for 11 women in kilojoules (kJ) is:

```python
>>> intake = np.array([5260, 5470, 5640, 6180, 6390, 6515, 6805, 7515, 7515, 8230, 8770])
```

Does their energy intake deviate systematically from the recommended value of 7725 kJ? Our null hypothesis will be the absence of deviation, and the alternate hypothesis will be the presence of an effect that could be either positive or negative, hence making our test 2-tailed.

Because we are estimating the mean and we have N=11 values in our sample, we have N-1=10 degrees of freedom. We set our significance level to 95% and compute the t statistic using the empirical mean and empirical standard deviation of our intake. We use a ddof of 1 to base the computation of our empirical standard deviation on an unbiased estimate of the variance (note: the final estimate is not unbiased due to the concave nature of the square root).

```python
>>> np.mean(intake)
6753.636363636364
>>> intake.std(ddof=1)
1142.1232221373727
>>> t = (np.mean(intake) - 7725) / (intake.std(ddof=1) / np.sqrt(len(intake)))
>>> t
-2.8207540608310198
```

We draw 1000000 samples from Student’s t distribution with the adequate degrees of freedom.

```python
>>> np.random.standard_t(10, size=1000000)
```

Does our t statistic land in one of the two critical regions found at both tails of the distribution?

```python
>>> np.sum(np.abs(t) < np.abs(s)) / float(len(s))
0.018318 #random < 0.05, statistic is in critical region
```

The probability value for this 2-tailed test is about 1.83%, which is lower than the 5% pre-determined significance threshold.

Therefore, the probability of observing values as extreme as our intake conditionally on the null hypothesis being true is too low, and we reject the null hypothesis of no deviation.

**random.triangular** *(left, mode, right, size=None)*

Draw samples from the triangular distribution over the interval *[left, right]*.

The triangular distribution is a continuous probability distribution with lower limit left, peak at mode, and upper limit right. Unlike the other distributions, these parameters directly define the shape of the pdf.

**Note:** New code should use the triangular method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the *Quick Start*.  

Parameters
left
[ float or array_like of floats] Lower limit.

mode
[ float or array_like of floats] The value where the peak of the distribution occurs. The value
must fulfill the condition left <= mode <= right.

right
[ float or array_like of floats] Upper limit, must be larger than left.

size
[ int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m *
 n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if left, mode, and
 right are all scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(left, mode, right).size
 samples are drawn.

Returns

out
[ ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized triangular distribution.

See also:

Generator.triangular
which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density function for the triangular distribution is

\[
P(x; l, m, r) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{2(x-l)}{(r-l)(m-l)} & \text{for } l \leq x \leq m, \\
\frac{2(r-x)}{(r-l)(r-m)} & \text{for } m \leq x \leq r, \\
0 & \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases}
\]

The triangular distribution is often used in ill-defined problems where the underlying distribution is not known, but some knowledge of the limits and mode exists. Often it is used in simulations.

References

[1]

Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> h = plt.hist(np.random.triangular(-3, 0, 8, 100000), bins=200,
...               density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

`random.uniform(low=0.0, high=1.0, size=None)`

Draw samples from a uniform distribution.

Samples are uniformly distributed over the half-open interval [low, high) (includes low, but excludes high). In other words, any value within the given interval is equally likely to be drawn by `uniform`.

Note: New code should use the `uniform` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the Quick Start.
Parameters

low

[float or array_like of floats, optional] Lower boundary of the output interval. All values generated will be greater than or equal to low. The default value is 0.

high

[float or array_like of floats] Upper boundary of the output interval. All values generated will be less than or equal to high. The default value is 1.0.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if low and high are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(low, high).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized uniform distribution.

See also:

randint

Discrete uniform distribution, yielding integers.

random_integers

Discrete uniform distribution over the closed interval [low, high].

random_sample

Floats uniformly distributed over [0, 1).

random

Alias for random_sample.

rand

Convenience function that accepts dimensions as input, e.g., rand(2, 2) would generate a 2-by-2 array of floats, uniformly distributed over [0, 1).

Generator.uniform

which should be used for new code.
Notes

The probability density function of the uniform distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \]

anywhere within the interval \([a, b)\), and zero elsewhere.

When \(\text{high} == \text{low}\), values of \(\text{low}\) will be returned. If \(\text{high} < \text{low}\), the results are officially undefined and may eventually raise an error, i.e. do not rely on this function to behave when passed arguments satisfying that inequality condition. The \(\text{high}\) limit may be included in the returned array of floats due to floating-point rounding in the equation \(\text{low} + (\text{high}-\text{low}) \times \text{random_sample()}\). For example:

```python
>>> x = np.float32(5*0.99999999)
>>> x
5.0
```

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> s = np.random.uniform(-1,0,1000)
```

All values are within the given interval:

```python
>>> np.all(s >= -1)
True
>>> np.all(s < 0)
True
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 15, density=True)
>>> plt.plot(bins, np.ones_like(bins), linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

random.vonmises \((\mu, \kappa, \text{size}=\text{None})\)

Draw samples from a von Mises distribution.

Samples are drawn from a von Mises distribution with specified mode (\(\mu\)) and dispersion (\(\kappa\)), on the interval \([-\pi, \pi]\).

The von Mises distribution (also known as the circular normal distribution) is a continuous probability distribution on the unit circle. It may be thought of as the circular analogue of the normal distribution.

**Note:** New code should use the vonmises method of a default_rng() instance instead; please see the **Quick Start**.

**Parameters**

\(\mu\)

[Float or array_like of floats] Mode (“center”) of the distribution.
**kappa**

[float or array_like of floats] Dispersion of the distribution, has to be >=0.

**size**

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if mu and kappa are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(mu, kappa).size samples are drawn.

**Returns**

**out**

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized von Mises distribution.

**See also:**

*scipy.stats.vonmises*

probability density function, distribution, or cumulative density function, etc.

*Generator.vonmises*

which should be used for new code.

**Notes**

The probability density for the von Mises distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{e^{\kappa \cos(x-\mu)}}{2\pi I_0(\kappa)}, \]

where \( \mu \) is the mode and \( \kappa \) the dispersion, and \( I_0(\kappa) \) is the modified Bessel function of order 0.

The von Mises is named for Richard Edler von Mises, who was born in Austria-Hungary, in what is now the Ukraine. He fled to the United States in 1939 and became a professor at Harvard. He worked in probability theory, aerodynamics, fluid mechanics, and philosophy of science.
References

[1], [2]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> mu, kappa = 0.0, 4.0  # mean and dispersion
>>> s = np.random.vonmises(mu, kappa, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from scipy.special import i0
>>> plt.hist(s, 50, density=True)
>>> x = np.linspace(-np.pi, np.pi, num=51)
>>> y = np.exp(kappa*np.cos(x-mu))/(2*np.pi*i0(kappa))
>>> plt.plot(x, y, linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

```text
random.wald(mean, scale, size=None)
```

Draw samples from a Wald, or inverse Gaussian, distribution.

As the scale approaches infinity, the distribution becomes more like a Gaussian. Some references claim that the Wald is an inverse Gaussian with mean equal to 1, but this is by no means universal.

The inverse Gaussian distribution was first studied in relationship to Brownian motion. In 1956 M.C.K. Tweedie used the name inverse Gaussian because there is an inverse relationship between the time to cover a unit distance and distance covered in unit time.

Note: New code should use the `wald` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the *Quick Start*.  

---

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Parameters

mean

[float or array_like of floats] Distribution mean, must be > 0.

scale

[float or array_like of floats] Scale parameter, must be > 0.

size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if mean and scale are both scalars. Otherwise, np.broadcast(mean, scale).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Wald distribution.

See also:

Generator.wald

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density function for the Wald distribution is

\[ P(x; \text{mean}, \text{scale}) = \sqrt{\frac{\text{scale}}{2\pi x^3}} e^{-\frac{\text{scale}(x-\text{mean})^2}{2\text{mean}^2x}} \]

As noted above the inverse Gaussian distribution first arise from attempts to model Brownian motion. It is also a competitor to the Weibull for use in reliability modeling and modeling stock returns and interest rate processes.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw values from the distribution and plot the histogram:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> h = plt.hist(np.random.wald(3, 2, 100000), bins=200, density=True)
>>> plt.show()
```

random.weibull(a, size=None)

Draw samples from a Weibull distribution.

Draw samples from a 1-parameter Weibull distribution with the given shape parameter \( a \).

\[ X = (-\ln(U))^{1/a} \]
Here, U is drawn from the uniform distribution over (0,1).

The more common 2-parameter Weibull, including a scale parameter \( \lambda \) is just \( X = \lambda (-\ln(U))^{1/a} \).

**Note:** New code should use the `weibull` method of a `default_rng()` instance instead; please see the *Quick Start*.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [float or array_like of floats] Shape parameter of the distribution. Must be nonnegative.

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. If size is `None` (default), a single value is returned if `a` is a scalar. Otherwise, `np.array(a).size` samples are drawn.

**Returns**

- **out**
  - [ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Weibull distribution.

**See also:**

- `scipy.stats.weibull_max`
- `scipy.stats.weibull_min`
- `scipy.stats.genextreme`
- `gumbel`
- `Generator.weibull`

which should be used for new code.
Notes

The Weibull (or Type III asymptotic extreme value distribution for smallest values, SEV Type III, or Rosin-Rammler distribution) is one of a class of Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distributions used in modeling extreme value problems. This class includes the Gumbel and Frechet distributions.

The probability density for the Weibull distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{a}{\lambda} \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{a-1} e^{-\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^a}, \]

where \( a \) is the shape and \( \lambda \) the scale.

The function has its peak (the mode) at \( \lambda \left(\frac{a-1}{a}\right)^{1/a} \).

When \( a = 1 \), the Weibull distribution reduces to the exponential distribution.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a = 5. # shape
>>> s = np.random.weibull(a, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = np.arange(1, 100.) / 50.
>>> def weib(x, n, a):
...     return (a / n) * (x / n)**(a - 1) * np.exp{-(x / n)**a}

>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(np.random.weibull(5., 1000))
>>> x = np.arange(1,100.)/50.
>>> scale = count.max() / weib(x, 1., 5.).max()
>>> plt.plot(x, weib(x, 1., 5.)*scale)
>>> plt.show()
```

random.\texttt{zipf}(a, size=None)

Draw samples from a Zipf distribution.

Samples are drawn from a Zipf distribution with specified parameter \( a > 1 \).

The Zipf distribution (also known as the zeta distribution) is a continuous probability distribution that satisfies Zipf’s law: the frequency of an item is inversely proportional to its rank in a frequency table.

Note: New code should use the \texttt{zipf} method of a \texttt{default_rng()} instance instead; please see the \texttt{Quick Start}.

Parameters

\( a \)

[\text{float or array_like of floats}] Distribution parameter. Must be greater than 1.
size

[int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., (m, n, k), then m * n * k samples are drawn. If size is None (default), a single value is returned if a is a scalar. Otherwise, np.array(a).size samples are drawn.

Returns

out

[ndarray or scalar] Drawn samples from the parameterized Zipf distribution.

See also:

scipy.stats.zipf

probability density function, distribution, or cumulative density function, etc.

Generator.zipf

which should be used for new code.

Notes

The probability density for the Zipf distribution is

\[ p(x) = \frac{x^{-a}}{\zeta(a)}, \]

where \( \zeta \) is the Riemann Zeta function.

It is named for the American linguist George Kingsley Zipf, who noted that the frequency of any word in a sample of a language is inversely proportional to its rank in the frequency table.
References

[1]

Examples

Draw samples from the distribution:

```python
>>> a = 2. # parameter
>>> s = np.random.zipf(a, 1000)
```

Display the histogram of the samples, along with the probability density function:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from scipy import special

Truncate s values at 50 so plot is interesting:

```python
>>> count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s[s<50], 50, density=True)
>>> x = np.arange(1., 50.)
>>> y = x**(-a) / special.zetac(a)
>>> plt.plot(x, y/max(y), linewidth=2, color='r')
>>> plt.show()
```

Bit Generators

The random values produced by `Generator` originate in a BitGenerator. The BitGenerators do not directly provide random numbers and only contains methods used for seeding, getting or setting the state, jumping or advancing the state, and for accessing low-level wrappers for consumption by code that can efficiently access the functions provided, e.g., `numba`. 
Supported BitGenerators

The included BitGenerators are:

- **PCG-64** - The default. A fast generator that can be advanced by an arbitrary amount. See the documentation for `advance`. PCG-64 has a period of $2^{128}$. See the [PCG author's page](https://github.com/scikit-learn/scikit-learn) for more details about this class of PRNG.

- **PCG-64 DXSM** - An upgraded version of PCG-64 with better statistical properties in parallel contexts. See [Upgrading PCG64 with PCG64DXSM](https://github.com/scikit-learn/scikit-learn) for more information on these improvements.

- **MT19937** - The standard Python BitGenerator. Adds a `MT19937.jumped` function that returns a new generator with state as-if $2^{128}$ draws have been made.

- **Philox** - A counter-based generator capable of being advanced an arbitrary number of steps or generating independent streams. See the [Random123](https://github.com/scikit-learn/scikit-learn) page for more details about this class of bit generators.

- **SFC64** - A fast generator based on random invertible mappings. Usually the fastest generator of the four. See the [SFC author's page](https://github.com/scikit-learn/scikit-learn) for (a little) more detail.

```python
class numpy.random.BitGenerator([seed])

Base Class for generic BitGenerators, which provide a stream of random bits based on different algorithms.
```

**Parameters**

- **seed**

  [[None, int, array_like[ints], SeedSequence], optional] A seed to initialize the `BitGenerator`. If None, then fresh, unpredictable entropy will be pulled from the OS. If an int or array_like[ints] is passed, then it will be passed to ~'numpy.random.SeedSequence' to derive the initial `BitGenerator` state. One may also pass in a `SeedSequence` instance.

**See also:**

- **SeedSequence**

**Attributes**

- **lock**

  [threading.Lock] Lock instance that is shared so that the same BitGenerator can be used in multiple Generators without corrupting the state. Code that generates values from a bit generator should hold the bit generator's lock.
Methods

```
random_raw(self[, size])
```

Return randoms as generated by the underlying BitGenerator

Parameters

- **size**
  - [int or tuple of ints, optional] Output shape. If the given shape is, e.g., \((m, n, k)\), then \(m \times n \times k\) samples are drawn. Default is None, in which case a single value is returned.

- **output**
  - [bool, optional] Output values. Used for performance testing since the generated values are not returned.

Returns

- **out**
  - [uint or ndarray] Drawn samples.

Notes

This method directly exposes the the raw underlying pseudo-random number generator. All values are returned as unsigned 64-bit values irrespective of the number of bits produced by the PRNG.

See the class docstring for the number of bits returned.

**Mersenne Twister (MT19937)**

```
class numpy.random.MT19937 (seed=None)
```

Container for the Mersenne Twister pseudo-random number generator.

Parameters

- **seed**
  - [[None, int, array_like[ints], SeedSequence], optional] A seed to initialize the `BitGenerator`. If None, then fresh, unpredictable entropy will be pulled from the OS. If an int or array_like[ints] is passed, then it will be passed to `SeedSequence` to derive the initial `BitGenerator` state. One may also pass in a `SeedSequence` instance.
Notes

MT19937 provides a capsule containing function pointers that produce doubles, and unsigned 32 and 64-bit integers [1]. These are not directly consumable in Python and must be consumed by a Generator or similar object that supports low-level access.

The Python stdlib module “random” also contains a Mersenne Twister pseudo-random number generator.

State and Seeding

The MT19937 state vector consists of a 624-element array of 32-bit unsigned integers plus a single integer value between 0 and 624 that indexes the current position within the main array.

The input seed is processed by SeedSequence to fill the whole state. The first element is reset such that only its most significant bit is set.

Parallel Features

The preferred way to use a BitGenerator in parallel applications is to use the SeedSequence.spawn method to obtain entropy values, and to use these to generate new BitGenerators:

```
>>> from numpy.random import Generator, MT19937, SeedSequence
>>> sg = SeedSequence(1234)
>>> rg = [Generator(MT19937(s)) for s in sg.spawn(10)]
```

Another method is to use MT19937.jumped which advances the state as-if $2^{128}$ random numbers have been generated ([1], [2]). This allows the original sequence to be split so that distinct segments can be used in each worker process. All generators should be chained to ensure that the segments come from the same sequence.

```
>>> from numpy.random import Generator, MT19937, SeedSequence
>>> sg = SeedSequence(1234)
>>> bit_generator = MT19937(sg)
>>> rg = []
>>> for _ in range(10):
...     rg.append(Generator(bit_generator))
...     # Chain the BitGenerators
...     bit_generator = bit_generator.jumped()
```

Compatibility Guarantee

MT19937 makes a guarantee that a fixed seed and will always produce the same random integer stream.

References

[1], [2]

Attributes

lock: threading.Lock

Lock instance that is shared so that the same bit git generator can be used in multiple Generators without corrupting the state. Code that generates values from a bit generator should hold the bit generator’s lock.
State

```
state
```

Get or set the PRNG state

**attribute**

```
random.MT19937.state
```

Get or set the PRNG state

Returns

```
state
```

[dict] Dictionary containing the information required to describe the state of the PRNG

Parallel generation

```
jumped([jumps])
```

Returns a new bit generator with the state jumped

**method**

```
random.MT19937.jumped(jumps=1)
```

Returns a new bit generator with the state jumped

The state of the returned big generator is jumped as-if $2^{128 \times \text{jumps}}$ random numbers have been generated.

**Parameters**

```
jumps
```

[integer, positive] Number of times to jump the state of the bit generator returned

**Returns**

```
bit_generator
```

[MT19937] New instance of generator jumped iter times

**Notes**

The jump step is computed using a modified version of Matsumoto's implementation of Horner's method. The step polynomial is precomputed to perform $2^{\times128}$ steps. The jumped state has been verified to match the state produced using Matsumoto's original code.
References

[1], [2]

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attribute

random.MT19937.cffi

CFFI interface

Returns

interface

[namedtuple] Named tuple containing CFFI wrapper
- state_address - Memory address of the state struct
- state - pointer to the state struct
- next_uint64 - function pointer to produce 64 bit integers
- next_uint32 - function pointer to produce 32 bit integers
- next_double - function pointer to produce doubles
- bitgen - pointer to the bit generator struct

attribute

random.MT19937.ctypes

cypes interface

Returns

interface

[namedtuple] Named tuple containing ctypes wrapper
- state_address - Memory address of the state struct
- state - pointer to the state struct
- next_uint64 - function pointer to produce 64 bit integers
- next_uint32 - function pointer to produce 32 bit integers
- next_double - function pointer to produce doubles
- bitgen - pointer to the bit generator struct
Permutated Congruential Generator (64-bit, PCG64)

```python
class numpy.random.PCG64 (seed=None)

BitGenerator for the PCG-64 pseudo-random number generator.
```

**Parameters**

- `seed` ([None, int, array_like[ints], SeedSequence], optional) A seed to initialize the BitGenerator. If None, then fresh, unpredictable entropy will be pulled from the OS. If an `int` or `array_like[ints]` is passed, then it will be passed to `SeedSequence` to derive the initial BitGenerator state. One may also pass in a SeedSequence instance.

**Notes**

PCG-64 is a 128-bit implementation of O'Neill’s permutation congruential generator ([1], [2]). PCG-64 has a period of $2^{128}$ and supports advancing an arbitrary number of steps as well as $2^{127}$ streams. The specific member of the PCG family that we use is PCG XSL RR 128/64 as described in the paper ([2]).

PCG64 provides a capsule containing function pointers that produce doubles, and unsigned 32 and 64-bit integers. These are not directly consumable in Python and must be consumed by a Generator or similar object that supports low-level access.

Supports the method `advance` to advance the RNG an arbitrary number of steps. The state of the PCG-64 RNG is represented by 2 128-bit unsigned integers.

**State and Seeding**

The PCG64 state vector consists of 2 unsigned 128-bit values, which are represented externally as Python ints. One is the state of the PRNG, which is advanced by a linear congruential generator (LCG). The second is a fixed odd increment used in the LCG.

The input seed is processed by `SeedSequence` to generate both values. The increment is not independently settable.

**Parallel Features**

The preferred way to use a BitGenerator in parallel applications is to use the `SeedSequence.spawn` method to obtain entropy values, and to use these to generate new BitGenerators:

```python
>>> from numpy.random import Generator, PCG64, SeedSequence
>>> sg = SeedSequence(1234)
>>> rg = [Generator(PCG64(s)) for s in sg.spawn(10)]
```

**Compatibility Guarantee**

PCG64 makes a guarantee that a fixed seed and will always produce the same random integer stream.
References

[1], [2]

State

`state` Get or set the PRNG state

attribute

`random.PCG64.state` Get or set the PRNG state

Returns

`state` [dict] Dictionary containing the information required to describe the state of the PRNG

Parallel generation

`advance(delta)` Advance the underlying RNG as-if delta draws have occurred.

`jumped([jumps])` Returns a new bit generator with the state jumped.

method

`random.PCG64.advance(delta)` Advance the underlying RNG as-if delta draws have occurred.

Parameters

`delta` [integer, positive] Number of draws to advance the RNG. Must be less than the size state variable in the underlying RNG.

Returns

`self` [PCG64] RNG advanced delta steps
Notes

Advancing a RNG updates the underlying RNG state as-if a given number of calls to the underlying RNG have been made. In general there is not a one-to-one relationship between the number output random values from a particular distribution and the number of draws from the core RNG. This occurs for two reasons:

- The random values are simulated using a rejection-based method and so, on average, more than one value from the underlying RNG is required to generate an single draw.
- The number of bits required to generate a simulated value differs from the number of bits generated by the underlying RNG. For example, two 16-bit integer values can be simulated from a single draw of a 32-bit RNG.

Advancing the RNG state resets any pre-computed random numbers. This is required to ensure exact reproducibility.

method

```
random.PCG64.jumped(jumps=1)
```

Returns a new bit generator with the state jumped.

Jumps the state as-if jumps * 210306068529402873165736369884012333109 random numbers have been generated.

Parameters

- `jumps`
  [integer, positive] Number of times to jump the state of the bit generator returned

Returns

- `bit_generator`
  [PCG64] New instance of generator jumped iter times

Notes

The step size is phi-1 when multiplied by 2**128 where phi is the golden ratio.

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attribute

```
random.PCG64.cffi
```

CFFI interface

Returns

- `interface`
  [namedtuple] Named tuple containing CFFI wrapper
  - `state_address` - Memory address of the state struct
• state - pointer to the state struct
• next_uint64 - function pointer to produce 64 bit integers
• next_uint32 - function pointer to produce 32 bit integers
• next_double - function pointer to produce doubles
• bitgen - pointer to the bit generator struct

attribute
random.PCG64.ctypes
   ctypes interface
   Returns
   interface
      [namedtuple] Named tuple containing ctypes wrapper
      • state_address - Memory address of the state struct
      • state - pointer to the state struct
      • next_uint64 - function pointer to produce 64 bit integers
      • next_uint32 - function pointer to produce 32 bit integers
      • next_double - function pointer to produce doubles
      • bitgen - pointer to the bit generator struct

Permutated Congruential Generator (64-bit, PCG64 DXSM)

class numpy.random.PCG64DXSM(seed=None)
   BitGenerator for the PCG-64 DXSM pseudo-random number generator.

   Parameters

   seed
      [(None, int, array_like[ints], SeedSequence], optional] A seed to initialize the BitGenerator. If None, then fresh, unpredictable entropy will be pulled from the OS. If an int or array_like[ints] is passed, then it will be passed to SeedSequence to derive the initial BitGenerator state. One may also pass in a SeedSequence instance.

   Notes

PCG-64 DXSM is a 128-bit implementation of O'Neill's permutation congruential generator ([1], [2]). PCG-64 DXSM has a period of $2^{128}$ and supports advancing an arbitrary number of steps as well as $2^{127}$ streams. The specific member of the PCG family that we use is PCG CM DXSM 128/64. It differs from PCG64 in that it uses the stronger DXSM output function, a 64-bit “cheap multiplier” in the LCG, and outputs from the state before advancing it rather than advance-then-output.

PCG64DXSM provides a capsule containing function pointers that produce doubles, and unsigned 32 and 64-bit integers. These are not directly consumable in Python and must be consumed by a Generator or similar object that supports low-level access.

Supports the method advance to advance the RNG an arbitrary number of steps. The state of the PCG-64 DXSM RNG is represented by 2 128-bit unsigned integers.
State and Seeding

The PCG64DXSM state vector consists of 2 unsigned 128-bit values, which are represented externally as Python ints. One is the state of the PRNG, which is advanced by a linear congruential generator (LCG). The second is a fixed odd increment used in the LCG.

The input seed is processed by `SeedSequence` to generate both values. The increment is not independently settable.

Parallel Features

The preferred way to use a BitGenerator in parallel applications is to use the `SeedSequence.spawn` method to obtain entropy values, and to use these to generate new BitGenerators:

```python
>>> from numpy.random import Generator, PCG64DXSM, SeedSequence
>>> sg = SeedSequence(1234)
>>> rg = [Generator(PCG64DXSM(s)) for s in sg.spawn(10)]
```

Compatibility Guarantee

PCG64DXSM makes a guarantee that a fixed seed and will always produce the same random integer stream.

References

[1], [2]

State

```
state
```

Get or set the PRNG state

Returns

 state

 [dict] Dictionary containing the information required to describe the state of the PRNG

Parallel generation

```
advance(delta)
```

Advance the underlying RNG as-if delta draws have occurred.

```
jumped([jumps])
```

Returns a new bit generator with the state jumped.

method

```
random.PCG64DXSM.advance(delta)
```

Advance the underlying RNG as-if delta draws have occurred.

Parameters
delta

[integer, positive] Number of draws to advance the RNG. Must be less than the size state variable in the underlying RNG.

Returns

self

[PCG64] RNG advanced delta steps

Notes

Advancing a RNG updates the underlying RNG state as-if a given number of calls to the underlying RNG have been made. In general there is not a one-to-one relationship between the number output random values from a particular distribution and the number of draws from the core RNG. This occurs for two reasons:

- The random values are simulated using a rejection-based method and so, on average, more than one value from the underlying RNG is required to generate a single draw.
- The number of bits required to generate a simulated value differs from the number of bits generated by the underlying RNG. For example, two 16-bit integer values can be simulated from a single draw of a 32-bit RNG.

Advancing the RNG state resets any precomputed random numbers. This is required to ensure exact reproducibility.

method

random.PCG64DXSM.jumped(jumps=1)

Returns a new bit generator with the state jumped.

Jumps the state as-if jumps * 210306068529402873165736369884012333109 random numbers have been generated.

Parameters

jumps

[integer, positive] Number of times to jump the state of the bit generator returned

Returns

bit_generator

[PCG64DXSM] New instance of generator jumped iter times

Notes

The step size is phi-1 when multiplied by 2**128 where phi is the golden ratio.
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attribute

random.PCG64DXSM.cffi

    CFFI interface

    Returns

    interface

        [namedtuple] Named tuple containing CFFI wrapper

        • state_address - Memory address of the state struct
        • state - pointer to the state struct
        • next_uint64 - function pointer to produce 64 bit integers
        • next_uint32 - function pointer to produce 32 bit integers
        • next_double - function pointer to produce doubles
        • bitgen - pointer to the bit generator struct

attribute

random.PCG64DXSM.ctypes

    ctypes interface

    Returns

    interface

        [namedtuple] Named tuple containing ctypes wrapper

        • state_address - Memory address of the state struct
        • state - pointer to the state struct
        • next_uint64 - function pointer to produce 64 bit integers
        • next_uint32 - function pointer to produce 32 bit integers
        • next_double - function pointer to produce doubles
        • bitgen - pointer to the bit generator struct
Philox Counter-based RNG

class numpy.random.Philox(seed=None, counter=None, key=None)

Container for the Philox (4x64) pseudo-random number generator.

Parameters

seed

[[None, int, array_like[ints], SeedSequence], optional] A seed to initialize the
BitGenerator. If None, then fresh, unpredictable entropy will be pulled from the OS. If
an int or array_like[ints] is passed, then it will be passed to SeedSequence to
derive the initial BitGenerator state. One may also pass in a SeedSequence instance.

counter

[[None, int, array_like], optional] Counter to use in the Philox state. Can be either a Python
int (long in 2.x) in [0, 2**256) or a 4-element uint64 array. If not provided, the RNG is
initialized at 0.

key

[[None, int, array_like], optional] Key to use in the Philox state. Unlike seed, the value in
key is directly set. Can be either a Python int in [0, 2**128) or a 2-element uint64 array. key
and seed cannot both be used.

Notes
Philox is a 64-bit PRNG that uses a counter-based design based on weaker (and faster) versions of cryptographic
functions [1]. Instances using different values of the key produce independent sequences. Philox has a period of
2^{256} – 1 and supports arbitrary advancing and jumping the sequence in increments of 2^{128}. These features allow
multiple non-overlapping sequences to be generated.

Philox provides a capsule containing function pointers that produce doubles, and unsigned 32 and 64-bit integers. These are not directly consumable in Python and must be consumed by a Generator or similar object that
supports low-level access.

State and Seeding
The Philox state vector consists of a 256-bit value encoded as a 4-element uint64 array and a 128-bit value
encoded as a 2-element uint64 array. The former is a counter which is incremented by 1 for every 4 64-bit ran-
doms produced. The second is a key which determines the sequence produced. Using different keys produces
independent sequences.

The input seed is processed by SeedSequence to generate the key. The counter is set to 0.

Alternately, one can omit the seed parameter and set the key and counter directly.

Parallel Features
The preferred way to use a BitGenerator in parallel applications is to use the SeedSequence.spawn method
to obtain entropy values, and to use these to generate new BitGenerators:

```python
>>> from numpy.random import Generator, Philox, SeedSequence
>>> sg = SeedSequence(1234)
>>> rg = [Generator(Philox(s)) for s in sg.spawn(10)]
```

Philox can be used in parallel applications by calling the jumped method to advances the state as-if 2^{128} random
numbers have been generated. Alternatively, advance can be used to advance the counter for any positive step
in \([0, 2^{256})\). When using `jumped`, all generators should be chained to ensure that the segments come from the same sequence.

```python
>>> from numpy.random import Generator, Philox
>>> bit_generator = Philox(1234)
>>> rg = []
>>> for _ in range(10):
...    rg.append(Generator(bit_generator))
...    bit_generator = bit_generator.jumped()
```

Alternatively, Philox can be used in parallel applications by using a sequence of distinct keys where each instance uses different key.

```python
>>> key = 2**96 + 2**33 + 2**17 + 2**9
>>> rg = [Generator(Philox(key=key+i)) for i in range(10)]
```

Compatibility Guarantee

Philox makes a guarantee that a fixed seed will always produce the same random integer stream.

References

[1]

Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.random import Generator, Philox
>>> rg = Generator(Philox(1234))
>>> rg.standard_normal()
0.123  # random
```

Attributes

- `lock`: `threading.Lock`
  
  Lock instance that is shared so that the same bit generator can be used in multiple Generators without corrupting the state. Code that generates values from a bit generator should hold the bit generator’s lock.

State

- `state`: Get or set the PRNG state

attribute

- `random.Philox.state` Get or set the PRNG state

Returns

- `state` [dict] Dictionary containing the information required to describe the state of the PRNG
Parallel generation

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<td>Advance the underlying RNG as-if delta draws have occurred.</td>
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<td>Returns a new bit generator with the state jumped.</td>
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method

```python
random.Philox.advance(delta)
```

Advance the underlying RNG as-if delta draws have occurred.

Parameters

- `delta`
  - [integer, positive] Number of draws to advance the RNG. Must be less than the size state variable in the underlying RNG.

Returns

- `self`
  - [Philox] RNG advanced delta steps

Notes

Advancing a RNG updates the underlying RNG state as-if a given number of calls to the underlying RNG have been made. In general there is not a one-to-one relationship between the number output random values from a particular distribution and the number of draws from the core RNG. This occurs for two reasons:

- The random values are simulated using a rejection-based method and so, on average, more than one value from the underlying RNG is required to generate an single draw.
- The number of bits required to generate a simulated value differs from the number of bits generated by the underlying RNG. For example, two 16-bit integer values can be simulated from a single draw of a 32-bit RNG.

Advancing the RNG state resets any pre-computed random numbers. This is required to ensure exact reproducibility.

method

```python
random.Philox.jumped(jumps=1)
```

Returns a new bit generator with the state jumped

The state of the returned big generator is jumped as-if \(2^{*(128 * \text{jumps})}\) random numbers have been generated.

Parameters

- `jumps`
  - [integer, positive] Number of times to jump the state of the bit generator returned

Returns

- `bit_generator`
  - [Philox] New instance of generator jumped iter times
Extending

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>cffi</th>
<th>CFFI interface</th>
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<tr>
<td>ctypes</td>
<td>ctypes interface</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

attribute

random.Philox.cffi

Returns

interface

[namedtuple] Named tuple containing CFFI wrapper

- state_address - Memory address of the state struct
- state - pointer to the state struct
- next_uint64 - function pointer to produce 64 bit integers
- next_uint32 - function pointer to produce 32 bit integers
- next_double - function pointer to produce doubles
- bitgen - pointer to the bit generator struct

attribute

random.Philox.ctypes

Returns

interface

[namedtuple] Named tuple containing ctypes wrapper

- state_address - Memory address of the state struct
- state - pointer to the state struct
- next_uint64 - function pointer to produce 64 bit integers
- next_uint32 - function pointer to produce 32 bit integers
- next_double - function pointer to produce doubles
- bitgen - pointer to the bit generator struct
SFC64 Small Fast Chaotic PRNG

```python
class numpy.random.SFC64(seed=None)
    BitGenerator for Chris Doty-Humphrey's Small Fast Chaotic PRNG.

Parameters

    seed
        [{None, int, array_like[ints], SeedSequence}, optional] A seed to initialize the
        BitGenerator. If None, then fresh, unpredictable entropy will be pulled from the OS. If
        an int or array_like[ints] is passed, then it will be passed to SeedSequence to
        derive the initial BitGenerator state. One may also pass in a SeedSequence instance.
```

Notes

SFC64 is a 256-bit implementation of Chris Doty-Humphrey’s Small Fast Chaotic PRNG ([1]). SFC64 has a few
different cycles that one might be on, depending on the seed; the expected period will be about \(2^{250}\) ([2]). SFC64
incorporates a 64-bit counter which means that the absolute minimum cycle length is \(2^{64}\) and that distinct seeds
will not run into each other for at least \(2^{64}\) iterations.

SFC64 provides a capsule containing function pointers that produce doubles, and unsigned 32 and 64- bit integers.
These are not directly consumable in Python and must be consumed by a Generator or similar object that
supports low-level access.

State and Seeding

The SFC64 state vector consists of 4 unsigned 64-bit values. The last is a 64-bit counter that increments by 1 each
iteration.

The input seed is processed by SeedSequence to generate the first 3 values, then the SFC64 algorithm is iterated
a small number of times to mix.

Compatibility Guarantee

SFC64 makes a guarantee that a fixed seed will always produce the same random integer stream.

References

[1], [2]

State

```python
state
    Get or set the PRNG state
```

Attribute

```python
random.SFC64.state
    Get or set the PRNG state
```

Returns

```python
state
    [dict] Dictionary containing the information required to describe the state of the PRNG
```
Extending

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</table>

attribute

**random.SFC64.cffi**

CFFI interface

**Returns**

interface

[namedtuple] Named tuple containing CFFI wrapper

- state_address - Memory address of the state struct
- state - pointer to the state struct
- next_uint64 - function pointer to produce 64 bit integers
- next_uint32 - function pointer to produce 32 bit integers
- next_double - function pointer to produce doubles
- bitgen - pointer to the bit generator struct

attribute

**random.SFC64.ctypes**

ctypes interface

**Returns**

interface

[namedtuple] Named tuple containing ctypes wrapper

- state_address - Memory address of the state struct
- state - pointer to the state struct
- next_uint64 - function pointer to produce 64 bit integers
- next_uint32 - function pointer to produce 32 bit integers
- next_double - function pointer to produce doubles
- bitgen - pointer to the bit generator struct
Seeding and Entropy

A BitGenerator provides a stream of random values. In order to generate reproducible streams, BitGenerators support setting their initial state via a seed. All of the provided BitGenerators will take an arbitrary-sized non-negative integer, or a list of such integers, as a seed. BitGenerators need to take those inputs and process them into a high-quality internal state for the BitGenerator. All of the BitGenerators in numpy delegate that task to SeedSequence, which uses hashing techniques to ensure that even low-quality seeds generate high-quality initial states.

```python
from numpy.random import PCG64
bg = PCG64(12345678903141592653589793)
```

SeedSequence is designed to be convenient for implementing best practices. We recommend that a stochastic program defaults to using entropy from the OS so that each run is different. The program should print out or log that entropy. In order to reproduce a past value, the program should allow the user to provide that value through some mechanism, a command-line argument is common, so that the user can then re-enter that entropy to reproduce the result. SeedSequence can take care of everything except for communicating with the user, which is up to you.

```python
from numpy.random import PCG64, SeedSequence

# Get the user's seed somehow, maybe through `argparse`.
# If the user did not provide a seed, it should return `None`.
seed = get_user_seed()
ss = SeedSequence(seed)
print('seed = {}'.format(ss.entropy))
bg = PCG64(ss)
```

We default to using a 128-bit integer using entropy gathered from the OS. This is a good amount of entropy to initialize all of the generators that we have in numpy. We do not recommend using small seeds below 32 bits for general use. Using just a small set of seeds to instantiate larger state spaces means that there are some initial states that are impossible to reach. This creates some biases if everyone uses such values.

There will not be anything wrong with the results, per se; even a seed of 0 is perfectly fine thanks to the processing that SeedSequence does. If you just need some fixed value for unit tests or debugging, feel free to use whatever seed you like. But if you want to make inferences from the results or publish them, drawing from a larger set of seeds is good practice.

If you need to generate a good seed “offline”, then SeedSequence().entropy or using secrets.randbits(128) from the standard library are both convenient ways.

If you need to run several stochastic simulations in parallel, best practice is to construct a random generator instance for each simulation. To make sure that the random streams have distinct initial states, you can use the spawn method of SeedSequence. For instance, here we construct a list of 12 instances:

```python
from numpy.random import PCG64, SeedSequence

# High quality initial entropy
entropy = 0x87351080e25cb0fad77a44a3be03b491
base_seq = SeedSequence(entropy)
child_seqs = base_seq.spawn(12)  # a list of 12 SeedSequences
generators = [PCG64(seq) for seq in child_seqs]
```

An alternative way is to use the fact that a SeedSequence can be initialized by a tuple of elements. Here we use a base entropy value and an integer worker_id

```python
from numpy.random import PCG64, SeedSequence

# High quality initial entropy
entropy = 0x87351080e25cb0fad77a44a3be03b491
base_seq = SeedSequence(entropy)
child_seqs = base_seq.spawn(12)  # a list of 12 SeedSequences
generators = [PCG64(seq) for seq in child_seqs]
```

(continues on next page)
# High quality initial entropy

```python
entropy = 0x87351080e25cb0fad77a44a3be03b491
sequences = [SeedSequence((entropy, worker_id)) for worker_id in range(12)]
generators = [PCG64(seq) for seq in sequences]
```

Note that the sequences produced by the latter method will be distinct from those constructed via `spawn`.

```python
SeedSequence((entropy, spawn_key, pool_size))  # SeedSequence mixes sources of entropy in a reproducible way to set the initial state for independent and very probably non-overlapping BitGenerators.
```

class numpy.random.SeedSequence (entropy=None, *, spawn_key=(), pool_size=4)

SeedSequence mixes sources of entropy in a reproducible way to set the initial state for independent and very probably non-overlapping BitGenerators.

Once the SeedSequence is instantiated, you can call the `generate_state` method to get an appropriately sized seed. Calling `spawn(n)` will create `n` SeedSequences that can be used to seed independent BitGenerators, i.e. for different threads.

**Parameters**

- **entropy**
  - `[[None, int, sequence[int]], optional]` The entropy for creating a SeedSequence.

- **spawn_key**
  - `[[(), sequence[int]], optional]` A third source of entropy, used internally when calling `SeedSequence.spawn`

- **pool_size**
  - `[[int], optional]` Size of the pooled entropy to store. Default is 4 to give a 128-bit entropy pool. 8 (for 256 bits) is another reasonable choice if working with larger PRNGs, but there is very little to be gained by selecting another value.

- **n_children_spawned**
  - `[[int], optional]` The number of children already spawned. Only pass this if reconstructing a SeedSequence from a serialized form.

**Notes**

Best practice for achieving reproducible bit streams is to use the default `None` for the initial entropy, and then use `SeedSequence.entropy` to log/pickle the entropy for reproducibility:

```python
>>> sq1 = np.random.SeedSequence()
>>> sq1.entropy
243799254704924441050048792905230269161  # random
>>> sq2 = np.random.SeedSequence(sq1.entropy)
>>> np.all(sq1.generate_state(10) == sq2.generate_state(10))
True
```

**Attributes**

- **entropy**
Methods

**generate_state**(*n_words*, *dtype*)

Return the requested number of words for PRNG seeding.

**spawn**(*n_children*)

Spawn a number of child *SeedSequence*s by extending the *spawn_key*.

```python
method

random.SeedSequence.generate_state(*n_words*, *dtype*=np.uint32)

Return the requested number of words for PRNG seeding.

A BitGenerator should call this method in its constructor with an appropriate *n_words* parameter to properly seed itself.

**Parameters**

- **n_words**
  - [int]

- **dtype**
  - [np.uint32 or np.uint64, optional] The size of each word. This should only be either *uint32* or *uint64*. Strings ('uint32', 'uint64') are fine. Note that requesting *uint64* will draw twice as many bits as *uint32* for the same *n_words*. This is a convenience for BitGenerator's that express their states as 'uint64' arrays.

**Returns**

- **state**
  - [uint32 or uint64 array, shape=(n_words,)]

```python
method

random.SeedSequence.spawn(*n_children*)

Spawn a number of child *SeedSequence*s by extending the *spawn_key*.

**Parameters**

- **n_children**
  - [int]

**Returns**

- **seqs**
Upgrading **PCG64** with **PCG64DXSM**

Uses of the **PCG64** BitGenerator in a massively-parallel context have been shown to have statistical weaknesses that were not apparent at the first release in numpy 1.17. Most users will never observe this weakness and are safe to continue to use **PCG64**. We have introduced a new **PCG64DXSM** BitGenerator that will eventually become the new default BitGenerator implementation used by **default_rng** in future releases. **PCG64DXSM** solves the statistical weakness while preserving the performance and the features of **PCG64**.

**Does this affect me?**

If you

1. only use a single **Generator** instance,
2. only use **RandomState** or the functions in **numpy.random**,
3. only use the **PCG64.jumped** method to generate parallel streams,
4. explicitly use a **BitGenerator** other than **PCG64**,

then this weakness does not affect you at all. Carry on.

If you use moderate numbers of parallel streams created with **default_rng** or **SeedSequence.spawn**, in the 1000s, then the chance of observing this weakness is negligibly small. You can continue to use **PCG64** comfortably.

If you use very large numbers of parallel streams, in the millions, and draw large amounts of numbers from each, then the chance of observing this weakness can become non-negligible, if still small. An example of such a use case would be a very large distributed reinforcement learning problem with millions of long Monte Carlo playouts each generating billions of random number draws. Such use cases should consider using **PCG64DXSM** explicitly or another modern **BitGenerator** like **SFC64** or **Philox**, but it is unlikely that any old results you may have calculated are invalid. In any case, the weakness is a kind of **Birthday Paradox** collision. That is, a single pair of parallel streams out of the millions, considered together, might fail a stringent set of statistical tests of randomness. The remaining millions of streams would all be perfectly fine, and the effect of the bad pair in the whole calculation is very likely to be swamped by the remaining streams in most applications.

**Technical Details**

Like many PRNG algorithms, **PCG64** is constructed from a transition function, which advances a 128-bit state, and an output function, that mixes the 128-bit state into a 64-bit integer to be output. One of the guiding design principles of the PCG family of PRNGs is to balance the computational cost (and pseudorandomness strength) between the transition function and the output function. The transition function is a 128-bit linear congruential generator (LCG), which consists of multiplying the 128-bit state with a fixed multiplication constant and then adding a user-chosen increment, in 128-bit modular arithmetic. LCGs are well-analyzed PRNGs with known weaknesses, though 128-bit LCGs are large enough to pass stringent statistical tests on their own, with only the trivial output function. The output function of **PCG64** is intended to patch up some of those known weaknesses by doing “just enough” scrambling of the bits to assist in the statistical properties without adding too much computational cost.

One of these known weaknesses is that advancing the state of the LCG by steps numbering a power of two (**bg. advance(2**N**)**) will leave the lower **N** bits identical to the state that was just left. For a single stream drawn from sequentially, this is of little consequence. The remaining 128 − **N** bits provide plenty of pseudorandomness that will be mixed in for any practical **N** that can be observed in a single stream, which is why one does not need to worry about this if you only use a single stream in your application. Similarly, the **PCG64.jumped** method uses a carefully chosen number of steps to avoid creating these collisions. However, once you start creating “randomly-initialized” parallel streams, either using OS entropy by calling **default_rng** repeatedly or using **SeedSequence.spawn**, then we need to consider how many lower bits need to “collide” in order to create a bad pair of streams, and then evaluate the probability of creating such a collision. Empirically, it has been determined that if one shares the lower 58 bits of state and shares an
increment, then the pair of streams, when interleaved, will fail PractRand in a reasonable amount of time, after drawing a few gigabytes of data. Following the standard Birthday Paradox calculations for a collision of 58 bits, we can see that we can create $2^{29}$, or about half a billion, streams which is when the probability of such a collision becomes high. Half a billion streams is quite high, and the amount of data each stream needs to draw before the statistical correlations become apparent to even the strict PractRand tests is in the gigabytes. But this is on the horizon for very large applications like distributed reinforcement learning. There are reasons to expect that even in these applications a collision probably will not have a practical effect in the total result, since the statistical problem is constrained to just the colliding pair.

Now, let us consider the case when the increment is not constrained to be the same. Our implementation of PCG64 seeds both the state and the increment; that is, two calls to default_rng (almost certainly) have different states and increments. Upon our first release, we believed that having the seeded increment would provide a certain amount of extra protection, that one would have to be “close” in both the state space and increment space in order to observe correlations (PractRand failures) in a pair of streams. If that were true, then the “bottleneck” for collisions would be the 128-bit entropy pool size inside of SeedSequence (and 128-bit collisions are in the “preposterously unlikely” category).

Unfortunately, this is not true.

One of the known properties of an LCG is that different increments create distinct streams, but with a known relationship. Each LCG has an orbit that traverses all $2^{128}$ different 128-bit states. Two LCGs with different increments are related in that one can “rotate” the orbit of the first LCG (advance it by a number of steps that we can compute from the two increments) such that then both LCGs will always then have the same state, up to an additive constant and maybe an inversion of the bits. If you then iterate both streams in lockstep, then the states will always remain related by that same additive constant (and the inversion, if present). Recall that PCG64 is constructed from both a transition function (the LCG) and an output function. It was expected that the scrambling effect of the output function would have been strong enough to make the distinct streams practically independent (i.e. “passing the PractRand tests”) unless the two increments were pathologically related to each other (e.g. 1 and 3). The output function XSL-RR of the then-standard PCG algorithm that we implemented in PCG64 turns out to be too weak to cover up for the 58-bit collision of the underlying LCG that we described above. For any given pair of increments, the size of the “colliding” space of states is the same, so for this weakness, the extra distinctness provided by the increments does not translate into extra protection from statistical correlations that PractRand can detect.

Fortunately, strengthening the output function is able to correct this weakness and does turn the extra distinctness provided by differing increments into additional protection from these low-bit collisions. To the PCG author’s credit, she had developed a stronger output function in response to related discussions during the long birth of the new BitGenerator system. We NumPy developers chose to be “conservative” and use the XSL-RR variant that had undergone a longer period of testing at that time. The DXSM output function adopts a “xorshift-multiply” construction used in strong integer hashes that has much better avalanche properties than the XSL-RR output function. While there are “pathological” pairs of increments that induce “bad” additive constants that relate the two streams, the vast majority of pairs induce “good” additive constants that make the merely-distinct streams of LCG states into practically-independent output streams. Indeed, now the claim we once made about PCG64 is actually true of PCG64DXSM: collisions are possible, but both streams have to simultaneously be both “close” in the 128 bit state space and “close” in the 127-bit increment space, so that would be less likely than the negligible chance of colliding in the 128-bit internal SeedSequence pool. The DXSM output function is more computationally intensive than XSL-RR, but some optimizations in the LCG more than make up for the performance hit on most machines, so PCG64DXSM is a good, safe upgrade. There are, of course, an infinite number of stronger output functions that one could consider, but most will have a greater computational cost, and the DXSM output function has now received many CPU cycles of testing via PractRand at this time.
4.23.4 Features

Parallel Random Number Generation

There are three strategies implemented that can be used to produce repeatable pseudo-random numbers across multiple processes (local or distributed).

**SeedSequence spawning**

*SeedSequence* implements an algorithm to process a user-provided seed, typically as an integer of some size, and to convert it into an initial state for a *BitGenerator*. It uses hashing techniques to ensure that low-quality seeds are turned into high quality initial states (at least, with very high probability).

For example, *MT19937* has a state consisting of 624 *uint32* integers. A naive way to take a 32-bit integer seed would be to just set the last element of the state to the 32-bit seed and leave the rest 0s. This is a valid state for *MT19937*, but not a good one. The Mersenne Twister algorithm suffers if there are too many 0s. Similarly, two adjacent 32-bit integer seeds (i.e. 12345 and 12346) would produce very similar streams.

*SeedSequence* avoids these problems by using successions of integer hashes with good avalanche properties to ensure that flipping any bit in the input has about a 50% chance of flipping any bit in the output. Two input seeds that are very close to each other will produce initial states that are very far from each other (with very high probability). It is also constructed in such a way that you can provide arbitrary-sized integers or lists of integers. *SeedSequence* will take all of the bits that you provide and mix them together to produce however many bits the consuming *BitGenerator* needs to initialize itself.

These properties together mean that we can safely mix together the usual user-provided seed with simple incrementing counters to get *BitGenerator* states that are (to very high probability) independent of each other. We can wrap this together into an API that is easy to use and difficult to misuse.

```python
from numpy.random import SeedSequence, default_rng

ss = SeedSequence(12345)

# Spawn off 10 child SeedSequences to pass to child processes.
child_seeds = ss.spawn(10)
streams = [default_rng(s) for s in child_seeds]
```

Child *SeedSequence* objects can also spawn to make grandchildren, and so on. Each *SeedSequence* has its position in the tree of spawned *SeedSequence* objects mixed in with the user-provided seed to generate independent (with very high probability) streams.

```python
grandchildren = child_seeds[0].spawn(4)
grand_streams = [default_rng(s) for s in grandchildren]
```

This feature lets you make local decisions about when and how to split up streams without coordination between processes. You do not have to preallocate space to avoid overlapping or request streams from a common global service. This general “tree-hashing” scheme is not unique to numpy but not yet widespread. Python has increasingly-flexible mechanisms for parallelization available, and this scheme fits in very well with that kind of use.

Using this scheme, an upper bound on the probability of a collision can be estimated if one knows the number of streams that you derive. *SeedSequence* hashes its inputs, both the seed and the spawn-tree-path, down to a 128-bit pool by default. The probability that there is a collision in that pool, pessimistically-estimated $^1$, will be about $n^2 \cdot 2^{-128}$ where $n$ is the number of streams spawned. If a program uses an aggressive million streams, about $2^{20}$, then the probability that at least one pair of them are identical is about $2^{-88}$, which is in solidly-ignorable territory $^2$.

---

$^1$ The algorithm is carefully designed to eliminate a number of possible ways to collide. For example, if one only does one level of spawning, it is guaranteed that all states will be unique. But it's easier to estimate the naive upper bound on a napkin and take comfort knowing that the probability is actually lower.

$^2$ In this calculation, we can mostly ignore the amount of numbers drawn from each stream. See Upgrading PCG64 with PCG64DXSM for the
Independent Streams

Philox is a counter-based RNG based which generates values by encrypting an incrementing counter using weak cryptographic primitives. The seed determines the key that is used for the encryption. Unique keys create unique, independent streams. Philox lets you bypass the seeding algorithm to directly set the 128-bit key. Similar, but different, keys will still create independent streams.

```python
import secrets
from numpy.random import Philox

# 128-bit number as a seed
root_seed = secrets.getrandbits(128)
streems = [Philox(key=root_seed + stream_id) for stream_id in range(10)]
```

This scheme does require that you avoid reusing stream IDs. This may require coordination between the parallel processes.

Jumping the BitGenerator state

jumped advances the state of the BitGenerator as-if a large number of random numbers have been drawn, and returns a new instance with this state. The specific number of draws varies by BitGenerator, and ranges from $2^{64}$ to $2^{128}$. Additionally, the as-if draws also depend on the size of the default random number produced by the specific BitGenerator. The BitGenerators that support jumped, along with the period of the BitGenerator, the size of the jump and the bits in the default unsigned random are listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BitGenerator</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Jump Size</th>
<th>Bits per Draw</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MT19937</td>
<td>$2^{19937} - 1$</td>
<td>$2^{128}$</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCG64</td>
<td>$2^{128}$</td>
<td>$2^{127}$</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCG64DXSM</td>
<td>$2^{128}$</td>
<td>$2^{127}$</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philox</td>
<td>$2^{256}$</td>
<td>$2^{128}$</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

jumped can be used to produce long blocks which should be long enough to not overlap.

```python
import secrets
from numpy.random import PCG64

seed = secrets.getrandbits(128)
blocked_rng = []
rng = PCG64(seed)
for i in range(10):
    blocked_rng.append(rng.jumped(i))
```

When using jumped, one does have to take care not to jump to a stream that was already used. In the above example, one could not later use `blocked_rng[0].jumped()` as it would overlap with `blocked_rng[1]`. Like with the independent streams, if the main process here wants to split off 10 more streams by jumping, then it needs to start with `range(10, 20)`, otherwise it would recreate the same streams. On the other hand, if you carefully construct the streams, then you are guaranteed to have streams that do not overlap.

3 The jump size is $(\phi - 1) \cdot 2^{128}$ where $\phi$ is the golden ratio. As the jumps wrap around the period, the actual distances between neighboring streams will slowly grow smaller than the jump size, but using the golden ratio this way is a classic method of constructing a low-discrepancy sequence that spreads out the states around the period optimally. You will not be able to jump enough to make those distances small enough to overlap in your lifetime.
Multithreaded Generation

The four core distributions (`random`, `standard_normal`, `standard_exponential`, and `standard_gamma`) all allow existing arrays to be filled using the `out` keyword argument. Existing arrays need to be contiguous and well-behaved (writable and aligned). Under normal circumstances, arrays created using the common constructors such as `numpy.empty` will satisfy these requirements.

This example makes use of Python 3 `concurrent.futures` to fill an array using multiple threads. Threads are long-lived so that repeated calls do not require any additional overheads from thread creation.

The random numbers generated are reproducible in the sense that the same seed will produce the same outputs, given that the number of threads does not change.

```python
from numpy.random import default_rng, SeedSequence
import multiprocessing
import concurrent.futures
import numpy as np

class MultithreadedRNG:
    def __init__(self, n, seed=None, threads=None):
        if threads is None:
            threads = multiprocessing.cpu_count()
        self.threads = threads

        seq = SeedSequence(seed)
        self._random_generators = [default_rng(s)
                                    for s in seq.spawn(threads)]

        self.n = n
        self.executor = concurrent.futures.ThreadPoolExecutor(threads)
        self.values = np.empty(n)
        self.step = np.ceil(n / threads).astype(np.int_)

    def fill(self):
        def _fill(random_state, out, first, last):
            random_state.standard_normal(out=out[first:last])

        futures = {}
        for i in range(self.threads):
            args = (_fill,
                     self._random_generators[i],
                     self.values,
                     i * self.step,
                     (i + 1) * self.step)
            futures[self.executor.submit(*args)] = i

        concurrent.futures.wait(futures)

    def __del__(self):
        self.executor.shutdown(False)
```

The multithreaded random number generator can be used to fill an array. The `values` attribute shows the zero-value before the fill and the random value after.

```
In [2]: mrng = MultithreadedRNG(10000000, seed=12345)
...: print(mrng.values[-1])
Out[2]: 0.0
In [3]: mrng.fill()
```

(continues on next page)
The time required to produce using multiple threads can be compared to the time required to generate using a single thread.

```
In [4]: print(mrng.threads)
   ...
   In [4]: %timeit mrng.fill()
Out[4]: 4
   ...
   32.8 ms ± 2.71 ms per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 10 loops each)
```

The single threaded call directly uses the BitGenerator.

```
In [5]: values = np.empty(10000000)
   ...
   In [5]: %timeit rg.standard_normal(out=values)
Out[5]: 99.6 ms ± 222 µs per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 10 loops each)
```

The gains are substantial and the scaling is reasonable even for arrays that are only moderately large. The gains are even larger when compared to a call that does not use an existing array due to array creation overhead.

```
In [6]: rg = default_rng()
   ...
   In [6]: %timeit rg.standard_normal(10000000)
Out[6]: 125 ms ± 309 µs per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 10 loops each)
```

Note that if `threads` is not set by the user, it will be determined by `multiprocessing.cpu_count()`.

```
In [7]: # simulate the behavior for `threads=None`, if the machine had only one thread
   ...
   In [7]: mrng = MultithreadedRNG(10000000, seed=12345, threads=1)
   ...
   In [7]: print(mrng.values[-1])
Out[7]: 1.1800150052158556
```

**What’s New or Different**

**Warning:** The Box-Muller method used to produce NumPy’s normals is no longer available in `Generator`. It is not possible to reproduce the exact random values using `Generator` for the normal distribution or any other distribution that relies on the normal such as the `Generator.gamma` or `Generator.standard_t`. If you require bitwise backward compatible streams, use `RandomState`, i.e., `RandomState.gamma` or `RandomState.standard_t`. 

Quick comparison of legacy `mtrand` to the new `Generator`
### Random Sampling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Older Equivalent</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RandomState</td>
<td>Generator</td>
<td>Requires a stream source, called a <code>BitGenerator</code>. A number of these are provided. <code>RandomState</code> uses the Mersenne Twister MT19937 by default, but can also be instantiated with any <code>BitGenerator</code>. Access the values in a <code>BitGenerator</code>, convert them to float64 in the interval $[0.0, 1.0)$. In addition to the size keyword, now supports <code>dtype='d'</code> or <code>dtype='f'</code>, and an out keyword to fill a user-supplied array. Many other distributions are also supported.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And in more detail:

- Simulate from the complex normal distribution (`complex_normal`)
- The normal, exponential and gamma generators use 256-step Ziggurat methods which are 2-10 times faster than NumPy’s default implementation in `standard_normal`, `standard_exponential` or `standard_gamma`.

```python
In [1]: from numpy.random import Generator, PCG64
In [2]: import numpy.random
In [3]: rng = Generator(PCG64())
In [4]: %timeit -n 1 rng.standard_normal(100000)
   ...: %timeit -n 1 numpy.random.standard_normal(100000)
   ...:
    1.11 ms ± 30.5 us per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 1 loop each)
    2.27 ms ± 27.8 us per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 1 loop each)
```

```python
In [5]: %timeit -n 1 rng.standard_exponential(100000)
   ...: %timeit -n 1 numpy.random.standard_exponential(100000)
   ...:
     651 us ± 62.1 us per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 1 loop each)
     1.66 ms ± 6.18 us per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 1 loop each)
```

```python
In [6]: %timeit -n 1 rng.standard_gamma(3.0, 100000)
   ...: %timeit -n 1 numpy.random.standard_gamma(3.0, 100000)
   ...:
     2.17 ms ± 12.6 us per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 1 loop each)
     4.58 ms ± 88.6 us per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 1 loop each)
```

- `integers` is now the canonical way to generate integer random numbers from a discrete uniform distribution. The `rand` and `randn` methods are only available through the legacy `RandomState`. This replaces both `randint` and the deprecated `random_integers`.
- The Box-Muller method used to produce NumPy’s normals is no longer available.
- All bit generators can produce doubles, uint64s and uint32s via CTypes (`ctypes`) and CFFI (`cffi`). This allows these bit generators to be used in numba.
- The bit generators can be used in downstream projects via Cython.
- Optional `dtype` argument that accepts `np.float32` or `np.float64` to produce either single or double precision uniform random variables for select distributions.
Uniforms (`random` and `integers`)
- Normals (`standard_normal`)
- Standard Gammas (`standard_gamma`)
- Standard Exponentials (`standard_exponential`)

```python
In [7]: rng = Generator(PCG64(0))
In [8]: rng.random(3, dtype='d')
Out[8]: array([0.63696169, 0.26978671, 0.04097352])
In [9]: rng.random(3, dtype='f')
Out[9]: array([0.07524014, 0.01652753, 0.17526722], dtype=float32)
```

- Optional `out` argument that allows existing arrays to be filled for select distributions
  - Uniforms (`random`)
  - Normals (`standard_normal`)
  - Standard Gammas (`standard_gamma`)
  - Standard Exponentials (`standard_exponential`)

This allows multithreading to fill large arrays in chunks using suitable BitGenerators in parallel.

```python
In [10]: existing = np.zeros(4)
In [11]: rng.random(out=existing[:2])
Out[11]: array([0.91275558, 0.60663578])
In [12]: print(existing)
   [0.91275558 0.60663578 0.  0.]
```

- Optional `axis` argument for methods like `choice`, `permutation` and `shuffle` that controls which axis an operation is performed over for multi-dimensional arrays.

```python
In [13]: rng = Generator(PCG64(123456789))
In [14]: a = np.arange(12).reshape((3, 4))
In [15]: a
Out[15]:
   array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3],
          [ 4, 5, 6, 7],
          [ 8, 9, 10, 11]])
In [16]: rng.choice(a, axis=1, size=5)
Out[16]:
   array([[ 3, 0, 2, 3, 1],
          [ 7, 4, 6, 7, 5],
          [11, 8, 10, 11, 9]])
In [17]: rng.shuffle(a, axis=1)     # Shuffle in-place
In [18]: a
Out[18]:
   array([[ 3, 1, 2, 0],
          [ 4, 1, 2, 0],
          [ 3, 1, 2, 0]],
          dtype=int32)
```

(continues on next page)
Performance

Recommendation

The recommended generator for general use is PCG64 or its upgraded variant PCG64DXSM for heavily-parallel use cases. They are statistically high quality, full-featured, and fast on most platforms, but somewhat slow when compiled for 32-bit processes. See Upgrading PCG64 with PCG64DXSM for details on when heavy parallelism would indicate using PCG64DXSM.

Philox is fairly slow, but its statistical properties have very high quality, and it is easy to get assuredly-independent stream by using unique keys. If that is the style you wish to use for parallel streams, or you are porting from another system that uses that style, then Philox is your choice.

SFC64 is statistically high quality and very fast. However, it lacks jumpability. If you are not using that capability and want lots of speed, even on 32-bit processes, this is your choice.

MT19937 fails some statistical tests and is not especially fast compared to modern PRNGs. For these reasons, we mostly do not recommend using it on its own, only through the legacy RandomState for reproducing old results. That said, it has a very long history as a default in many systems.

Timings

The timings below are the time in ns to produce 1 random value from a specific distribution. The original MT19937 generator is much slower since it requires 2 32-bit values to equal the output of the faster generators.

Integer performance has a similar ordering.

The pattern is similar for other, more complex generators. The normal performance of the legacy RandomState generator is much lower than the other since it uses the Box-Muller transform rather than the Ziggurat method. The performance gap for Exponentials is also large due to the cost of computing the log function to invert the CDF. The column labeled MT19973 uses the same 32-bit generator as RandomState but produces random variates using Generator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MT19937</th>
<th>PCG64</th>
<th>PCG64DXSM</th>
<th>Philox</th>
<th>SFC64</th>
<th>RandomState</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32-bit Unsigned Ints</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64-bit Unsigned Ints</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniforms</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normals</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponentials</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>63.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gammas</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>77.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binomials</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laplaces</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>72.3</td>
<td>76.1</td>
<td>73.0</td>
<td>72.3</td>
<td>82.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poissons</td>
<td>111.7</td>
<td>103.4</td>
<td>100.5</td>
<td>109.4</td>
<td>90.7</td>
<td>115.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next table presents the performance in percentage relative to values generated by the legacy generator, RandomState(MT19937()). The overall performance was computed using a geometric mean.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MT19937</th>
<th>PCG64</th>
<th>PCG64DXSM</th>
<th>Philox</th>
<th>SFC64</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32-bit Unsigned Ints</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64-bit Unsigned Ints</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniforms</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normals</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>526</td>
<td>541</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponentials</td>
<td>701</td>
<td>1071</td>
<td>1101</td>
<td>784</td>
<td>1179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gammas</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binomials</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laplaces</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poissons</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All timings were taken using Linux on an AMD Ryzen 9 3900X processor.

Performance on different Operating Systems

Performance differs across platforms due to compiler and hardware availability (e.g., register width) differences. The default bit generator has been chosen to perform well on 64-bit platforms. Performance on 32-bit operating systems is very different.

The values reported are normalized relative to the speed of MT19937 in each table. A value of 100 indicates that the performance matches the MT19937. Higher values indicate improved performance. These values cannot be compared across tables.

64-bit Linux

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MT19937</th>
<th>PCG64</th>
<th>PCG64DXSM</th>
<th>Philox</th>
<th>SFC64</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32-bit Unsigned Ints</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64-bit Unsigned Ints</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniforms</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normals</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponentials</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

64-bit Windows

The relative performance on 64-bit Linux and 64-bit Windows is broadly similar with the notable exception of the Philox generator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MT19937</th>
<th>PCG64</th>
<th>PCG64DXSM</th>
<th>Philox</th>
<th>SFC64</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32-bit Unsigned Ints</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64-bit Unsigned Ints</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniforms</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normals</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponentials</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
32-bit Windows

The performance of 64-bit generators on 32-bit Windows is much lower than on 64-bit operating systems due to register width. MT19937, the generator that has been in NumPy since 2005, operates on 32-bit integers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution</th>
<th>MT19937</th>
<th>PCG64</th>
<th>PCG64DXSM</th>
<th>Philox</th>
<th>SFC64</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32-bit Unsigned Ints</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64-bit Unsigned Ints</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniforms</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normals</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponentials</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Linux timings used Ubuntu 20.04 and GCC 9.3.0. Windows timings were made on Windows 10 using Microsoft C/C++ Optimizing Compiler Version 19 (Visual Studio 2019). All timings were produced on an AMD Ryzen 9 3900X processor.

C API for random

New in version 1.19.0.

Access to various distributions below is available via Cython or C-wrapper libraries like CFFI. All the functions accept a `bitgen_t` as their first argument. To access these from Cython or C, you must link with the `npyrandom` library which is part of the NumPy distribution, located in `numpy/random/lib`.

The `bitgen_t` holds the current state of the BitGenerator and pointers to functions that return standard C types while advancing the state.

```c
struct bitgen:
    void *state
    npy_uint64 (*next_uint64)(void *st) nogil
    uint32_t (*next_uint32)(void *st) nogil
    double (*next_double)(void *st) nogil
    npy_uint64 (*next_raw)(void *st) nogil

typedef bitgen bitgen_t
```

See `Extending` for examples of using these functions.

The functions are named with the following conventions:

- “standard” refers to the reference values for any parameters. For instance “standard_uniform” means a uniform distribution on the interval 0.0 to 1.0
- “fill” functions will fill the provided `out` with `cnt` values.
- The functions without “standard” in their name require additional parameters to describe the distributions.
- Functions with `inv` in their name are based on the slower inverse method instead of a ziggurat lookup algorithm, which is significantly faster. The non-ziggurat variants are used in corner cases and for legacy compatibility.

```c
double random_standard_uniform(bitgen_t *bitgen_state)
```
void random_standard_uniform_fill (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_intp cnt, double *out)

double random_standard_exponential (bitgen_t *bitgen_state)

void random_standard_exponential_fill (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_intp cnt, double *out)

void random_standard_exponential_inv_fill (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_intp cnt, double *out)

double random_standard_normal (bitgen_t *bitgen_state)

void random_standard_normal_fill (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_intp count, double *out)

void random_standard_normal_fill_f (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_intp count, float *out)

double random_standard_gamma (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double shape)

float random_standard_uniform_f (bitgen_t *bitgen_state)

void random_standard_uniform_fill_f (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_intp cnt, float *out)

float random_standard_exponential_f (bitgen_t *bitgen_state)

void random_standard_exponential_fill_f (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_intp cnt, float *out)

void random_standard_exponential_inv_fill_f (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_intp cnt, float *out)

float random_standard_normal_f (bitgen_t *bitgen_state)

float random_standard_gamma_f (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, float shape)

double random_normal (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double loc, double scale)

double random_gamma (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double shape, double scale)

float random_gamma_f (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, float shape, float scale)

double random_exponential (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double scale)

double random_uniform (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double lower, double range)

double random_beta (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double a, double b)
double `random_chisquare` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double df)

double `random_f` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double dfnum, double dfden)

double `random_standard_cauchy` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state)

double `random_pareto` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double a)

double `random_weibull` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double a)

double `random_power` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double a)

double `random_laplace` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double loc, double scale)

double `random_gumbel` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double loc, double scale)

double `random_logistic` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double loc, double scale)

double `random_lognormal` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double mean, double sigma)

double `random_rayleigh` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double mode)

double `random_standard_t` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double df)

double `random_noncentral_chisquare` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double df, double nonc)

double `random_noncentral_f` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double dfnum, double dfden, double nonc)

double `random_wald` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double mean, double scale)

double `random_vonmises` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double mu, double kappa)

double `random_triangular` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double left, double mode, double right)

`npy_int64` `random_poisson` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double lam)

`npy_int64` `random_negative_binomial` (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double n, double p)

type `binomial_t`

```c
typedef struct s_binomial_t {
    int has_binomial; /* !=0: following parameters initialized for binomial */
    double psave;
} binomial_t;
```

(continues on next page)
RAND_INT_TYPE nsave;
double r;
double q;
double fm;
RAND_INT_TYPE m;
double p1;
double xm;
double x1;
double xr;
double c;
double lam1;
double lamr;
double p2;
double p3;
double p4;
} binomial_t;

`npy_int64 random_binomial (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double p, `npy_int64 n, binomial_t *binomial)`

`npy_int64 random_logseries (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double p)`

`npy_int64 random_geometric_search (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double p)`

`npy_int64 random_geometric_inversion (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double p)`

`npy_int64 random_geometric (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double p)`

`npy_int64 random_zipf (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, double a)`

`npy_int64 random_hypergeometric (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_int64 good, npy_int64 bad, npy_int64 sample)`

`npy_uint64 random_interval (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_uint64 max)`

void `random_multinomial (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_int64 n, npy_int64 *mnix, double *pix, npy_intp d, binomial_t *binomial)`

int `random_multivariate_hypergeometric_count (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_int64 total, size_t num_colors, npy_int64 *colors, npy_int64 nsample, size_t num_variates, npy_int64 *variates)`

void `random_multivariate_hypergeometric_marginals (bitgen_t *bitgen_state, npy_int64 total, size_t num_colors, npy_int64 *colors, npy_int64 nsample, size_t num_variates, npy_int64 *variates)`

Generate a single integer

`npy_int64 random_positive_int64 (bitgen_t *bitgen_state)`
**Extending**

The BitGenerators have been designed to be extendable using standard tools for high-performance Python – numba and Cython. The `Generator` object can also be used with user-provided BitGenerators as long as these export a small set of required functions.

**Numba**

Numba can be used with either CTypes or CFFI. The current iteration of the BitGenerators all export a small set of functions through both interfaces.

This example shows how numba can be used to produce gaussian samples using a pure Python implementation which is then compiled. The random numbers are provided by `ctypes.next_double`.

```python
import numpy as np
import numba as nb

from numpy.random import PCG64
from timeit import timeit

bit_gen = PCG64()
next_d = bit_gen.cffi.next_double
state_addr = bit_gen.cffi.state_address

def normals(n, state):
    out = np.empty(n)
    for i in range((n + 1) // 2):
        x1 = 2.0 * next_d(state) - 1.0
        x2 = 2.0 * next_d(state) - 1.0
        r2 = x1 * x1 + x2 * x2
        while r2 >= 1.0 or r2 == 0.0:
            x1 = 2.0 * next_d(state) - 1.0
            x2 = 2.0 * next_d(state) - 1.0
            r2 = x1 * x1 + x2 * x2
        f = np.sqrt(-2.0 * np.log(r2) / r2)
        out[2 * i] = f * x1
        if 2 * i + 1 < n:
            out[2 * i + 1] = f * x2
    return out

# Compile using Numba
normalsj = nb.jit(normals, nopython=True)
# Must use state address not state with numba
```

(continues on next page)
n = 10000

def numbacall():
    return normalsj(n, state_addr)

rg = np.random.Generator(PCG64())

def numpycall():
    return rg.normal(size=n)

# Check that the functions work
r1 = numbacall()
r2 = numpycall()
assert r1.shape == (n,)
assert r1.shape == r2.shape

t1 = timeit(numbacall, number=1000)
print(f'{t1:.2f} secs for {n} PCG64 (Numba/PCG64) gaussian randoms')
t2 = timeit(numpycall, number=1000)
print(f'{t2:.2f} secs for {n} PCG64 (NumPy/PCG64) gaussian randoms')

Both CTypes and CFFI allow the more complicated distributions to be used directly in Numba after compiling the file distributions.c into a DLL or so. An example showing the use of a more complicated distribution is in the examples section below.

Cython

Cython can be used to unpack the PyCapsule provided by a BitGenerator. This example uses PCG64 and the example from above. The usual caveats for writing high-performance code using Cython – removing bounds checks and wrap around, providing array alignment information – still apply.

```python
#!/usr/bin/env python3
#cython: language_level=3

""
This file shows how the to use a BitGenerator to create a distribution.
""

import numpy as np
cimport numpy as np
cimport cython
from cpython.pycapsule cimport PyCapsule_IsValid, PyCapsule_GetPointer
from libc.stdint cimport uint16_t, uint64_t
from numpy.random cimport bitgen_t
from numpy.random import PCG64
from numpy.random.c_distributions cimport {
    random_standard_uniform_fill, random_standard_uniform_fill_f}

@cython.boundscheck(False)
@cython.wraparound(False)
def uniforms(Py_ssize_t n):
    ""
    Create an array of \( n \) uniformly distributed doubles.
    A 'real' distribution would want to process the values into
    some non-uniform distribution
    ""
    cdef Py_ssize_t i
```
cdef bitgen_t *rng
cdef const char *capsule_name = "BitGenerator"
cdef double[:,::1] random_values

x = PCG64()
capsule = x.capsule
# Optional check that the capsule if from a BitGenerator
if not PyCapsule_IsValid(capsule, capsule_name):
    raise ValueError("Invalid pointer to anon_func_state")
# Cast the pointer
rng = <bitgen_t *> PyCapsule_GetPointer(capsule, capsule_name)
random_values = np.empty(n, dtype='float64')
with x.lock, nogil:
    for i in range(n):
        # Call the function
        random_values[i] = rng.next_double(rng.state)
randoms = np.asarray(random_values)
return randoms

The BitGenerator can also be directly accessed using the members of the bitgen_t struct.

@cython.boundscheck(False)
@cython.wraparound(False)
def uint10_uniforms(Py_ssize_t n):
    """Uniform 10 bit integers stored as 16-bit unsigned integers""
    cdef Py_ssize_t i
cdef bitgen_t *rng
cdef const char *capsule_name = "BitGenerator"
cdef uint16_t[:,::1] random_values
cdef int bits_remaining
cdef int width = 10
cdef uint64_t buff, mask = 0x3FF
x = PCG64()
capsule = x.capsule
if not PyCapsule_IsValid(capsule, capsule_name):
    raise ValueError("Invalid pointer to anon_func_state")
rng = <bitgen_t *> PyCapsule_GetPointer(capsule, capsule_name)
random_values = np.empty(n, dtype='uint16')
# Best practice is to release GIL and acquire the lock
bits_remaining = 0
with x.lock, nogil:
    for i in range(n):
        if bits_remaining < width:
            buff = rng.next_uint64(rng.state)
            random_values[i] = buff & mask
            buff >>= width

randoms = np.asarray(random_values)
return randoms

Cython can be used to directly access the functions in numpy/random/c_distributions.pxd. This requires linking with the npyrandom library located in numpy/random/lib.

def uniforms_ex(bit_generator, Py_ssize_t n, dtype= np.float64):

(continues on next page)
Create an array of `n` uniformly distributed doubles via a "fill" function.

A 'real' distribution would want to process the values into some non-uniform distribution

Parameters
----------
bit_generator: BitGenerator instance
n: int
   Output vector length
dtype: {str, dtype}, optional
   Desired dtype, either 'd' (or 'float64') or 'f' (or 'float32'). The default dtype value is 'd'

```c
Py_ssize_t i
cdef bitgen_t *rng
cdef const char *capsule_name = "BitGenerator"
cdef np.ndarray randoms

capsule = bit_generator.capsule
# Optional check that the capsule if from a BitGenerator
if not PyCapsule_IsValid(capsule, capsule_name):
    raise ValueError("Invalid pointer to anon_func_state")
# Cast the pointer
rng = <bitgen_t *> PyCapsule_GetPointer(capsule, capsule_name)

_dtype = np.dtype(dtype)
randoms = np.empty(n, dtype=_dtype)
if _dtype == np.float32:
    with bit_generator.lock:
        random_standard_uniform_fill_f(rng, n, <float>*np.PyArray_DATA(randoms))
elif _dtype == np.float64:
    with bit_generator.lock:
        random_standard_uniform_fill(rng, n, <double>*np.PyArray_DATA(randoms))
else:
    raise TypeError('Unsupported dtype %r for random' % _dtype)
return randoms
```

See *Extending numpy.random via Cython* for the complete listings of these examples and a minimal `setup.py` to build the c-extension modules.

**CFFI**

CFFI can be used to directly access the functions in `include/numpy/random/distributions.h`. Some “massaging” of the header file is required:

```python
import os
import numpy as np
import cffi
from .parse import parse_distributions_h
ffi = cffi.FFI()
inc_dir = os.path.join(np.get_include(), 'numpy')
```
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

(continued from previous page)

```python
# Basic numpy types
ffi.cdef(''
    typedef intptr_t npy_intp;
    typedef unsigned char npy_bool;
''')
parse_distributions_h(ffi, inc_dir)
```

Once the header is parsed by `ffi.cdef`, the functions can be accessed directly from the `_generator` shared object, using the `BitGenerator.cffi` interface.

```python
# Compare the distributions.h random_standard_normal_fill to
# Generator.standard_random
bit_gen = np.random.PCG64()
rng = np.random.Generator(bit_gen)
state = bit_gen.state

interface = rng.bit_generator.cffi
n = 100
vals_cffi = ffi.new('double[%d]' % n)
lib.random_standard_normal_fill(interface.bit_generator, n, vals_cffi)

# reset the state
bit_gen.state = state

vals = rng.standard_normal(n)

for i in range(n):
    assert vals[i] == vals_cffi[i]
```

### New Bit Generators

`Generator` can be used with user-provided `BitGenerators`. The simplest way to write a new BitGenerator is to examine the .pyx file of one of the existing BitGenerators. The key structure that must be provided is the `capsule` which contains a `PyCapsule` to a struct pointer of type `bitgen_t`,

```python
typedef struct bitgen {
    void *state;
    uint64_t (*next_uint64)(void *st);
    uint32_t (*next_uint32)(void *st);
    double (*next_double)(void *st);
    uint64_t (*next_raw)(void *st);
} bitgen_t;
```

which provides 5 pointers. The first is an opaque pointer to the data structure used by the BitGenerators. The next three are function pointers which return the next 64- and 32-bit unsigned integers, the next random double and the next raw value. This final function is used for testing and so can be set to the next 64-bit unsigned integer function if not needed. Functions inside `Generator` use this structure as in

```python
bitgen_state->next_uint64(bitgen_state->state)
```
Examples
Extending via Numba

```python
import numpy as np
import numba as nb

from numpy.random import PCG64
from timeit import timeit

bit_gen = PCG64()
next_d = bit_gen.cffi.next_double
state_addr = bit_gen.cffi.state_address

def normals(n, state):
    out = np.empty(n)
    for i in range((n + 1) // 2):
        x1 = 2.0 * next_d(state) - 1.0
        x2 = 2.0 * next_d(state) - 1.0
        r2 = x1 * x1 + x2 * x2
        while r2 >= 1.0 or r2 == 0.0:
            x1 = 2.0 * next_d(state) - 1.0
            x2 = 2.0 * next_d(state) - 1.0
            r2 = x1 * x1 + x2 * x2
        f = np.sqrt(-2.0 * np.log(r2) / r2)
        out[2 * i] = f * x1
        if 2 * i + 1 < n:
            out[2 * i + 1] = f * x2
    return out

# Compile using Numba
normalsj = nb.jit(normals, nopython=True)
# Must use state address not state with numba
n = 10000

def numbacall():
    return normalsj(n, state_addr)

r = np.random.RandomState(PCG64())

def numpycall():
    return r.normal(size=n)

# Check that the functions work
r1 = numbacall()
r2 = numpycall()
assert r1.shape == (n,)
assert r1.shape == r2.shape

t1 = timeit(numbacall, number=1000)
print(f'{t1:.2f} secs for {n} PCG64 (Numba/PCG64) gaussian randoms')
t2 = timeit(numpycall, number=1000)
print(f'{t2:.2f} secs for {n} PCG64 (NumPy/PCG64) gaussian randoms')

# example 2
next_u32 = bit_gen.cffi.next_uint32
```

(continues on next page)
Extending via Numba and CFFI

Building the required library in this example requires a source distribution of NumPy or clone of the NumPy git repository since distributions.c is not included in binary distributions.

On *nix, execute in numpy/random/src/distributions

```
export PYTHON_INCLUDE=/path to Python’s include folder, usually ${PYTHON_HOME}/include/python${PYTHON_VERSION}
export NUMPY_INCLUDE=/path to numpy’s include folder, usually ${PYTHON_HOME}/lib/python${PYTHON_VERSION}/site-packages/numpy/core/include
gcc -shared -o libdistributions.so -fPIC distributions.c -I${NUMPY_INCLUDE} -I${PYTHON_INCLUDE}
mv libdistributions.so ../../_examples/numba/
```

On Windows

`rem PYTHON_HOME and PYTHON_VERSION are setup dependent, this is an example set PYTHON_HOME=c:\Anaconda`

(continues on next page)
```python
set PYTHON_VERSION=38
cl.exe /LD .\distributions.c -DDLL_EXPORT \
   -I%PYTHON_HOME%\lib\site-packages\numpy\core\include \
   -I%PYTHON_HOME%\include %PYTHON_HOME%\libs\python%PYTHON_VERSION%.lib
move distributions.dll ../../_examples/numba/

import os
import numba as nb
import numpy as np
from cffi import FFI

from numpy.random import PCG64

ffi = FFI()
if os.path.exists('./distributions.dll'):
    lib = ffi.dlopen('./distributions.dll')
elif os.path.exists('./libdistributions.so'):
    lib = ffi.dlopen('./libdistributions.so')
else:
    raise RuntimeError('Required DLL/so file was not found.')

ffi.cdef(""
double random_standard_normal(void *bitgen_state);
""
)x = PCG64()
xffi = x.cffi
bit_generator = xffi.bit_generator
random_standard_normal = lib.random_standard_normal

def normals(n, bit_generator):
    out = np.empty(n)
    for i in range(n):
        out[i] = random_standard_normal(bit_generator)
    return out

normalsj = nb.jit(normals, nopython=True)

# Numba requires a memory address for void *
# Can also get address from x.ctypes.bit_generator.value
bit_generator_address = int(ffi.cast('uintptr_t', bit_generator))

norm = normalsj(1000, bit_generator_address)
print(norm[:12])
```
Extending `numpy.random` via Cython

**setup.py**

```python
#!/usr/bin/env python3
""
Build the Cython demonstrations of low-level access to NumPy random

Usage: python setup.py build_ext -i
""
from distutils.core import setup
from os.path import dirname, join, abspath

import numpy as np
from Cython.Build import cythonize
from numpy.distutils.misc_util import get_info
from setuptools.extension import Extension

path = dirname(__file__)
src_dir = join(dirname(path), '..', 'src')
defs = [('NPY_NO_DEPRECATED_API', 0)]
inc_path = np.get_include()
lib_path = [abspath(join(np.get_include(), '..', '..', 'random', 'lib'))]
lib_path += get_info('npymath')['library_dirs']

extending = Extension("extending",
                     sources=[join('..', 'extending.pyx')],
                     include_dirs=[
                       np.get_include(),
                       join(path, '..', '..')
                     ],
                     define_macros=defs,
                     )
distributions = Extension("extending_distributions",
                          sources=[join('..', 'extending_distributions.pyx')],
                          include_dirs=[inc_path],
                          library_dirs=lib_path,
                          libraries=['npyrandom', 'npymath'],
                          define_macros=defs,
                          )

extensions = [extending, distributions]

setup(  
    ext_modules=cythonize(extensions)
)
```

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extending.pyx

#!/usr/bin/env python3
#cython: language_level=3

from libc.stdint cimport uint32_t
from cpython.pycapsule cimport PyCapsule_IsValid, PyCapsule_GetPointer

import numpy as np
cimport numpy as np
cimport cython

from numpy.random cimport bitgen_t
from numpy.random import PCG64

np.import_array()

@cython.boundscheck(False)
@cython.wraparound(False)
def uniform_mean(Py_ssize_t n):
    cdef Py_ssize_t i
    cdef bitgen_t *rng
    cdef const char *capsule_name = "BitGenerator"
    cdef double[:n] random_values
    cdef np.ndarray randoms

    x = PCG64()
    capsule = x.capsule
    if not PyCapsule_IsValid(capsule, capsule_name):
        raise ValueError("Invalid pointer to anon_func_state")
    rng = <bitgen_t *> PyCapsule_GetPointer(capsule, capsule_name)
    random_values = np.empty(n)

    # Best practice is to acquire the lock whenever generating random values.
    # This prevents other threads from modifying the state. Acquiring the lock
    # is only necessary if if the GIL is also released, as in this example.
    with x.lock, nogil:
        for i in range(n):
            random_values[i] = rng.next_double(rng.state)
        randoms = np.asarray(random_values)
    return randoms.mean()

# This function is declared nogil so it can be used without the GIL below
cdef uint32_t bounded_uint(uint32_t lb, uint32_t ub, bitgen_t *rng) nogil:
    cdef uint32_t mask, delta, val
    mask = delta = ub - lb
    mask |= mask >> 1
    mask |= mask >> 2
    mask |= mask >> 4
    mask |= mask >> 8
    mask |= mask >> 16

    val = rng.next_uint32(rng.state) & mask
    while val > delta:
        val = rng.next_uint32(rng.state) & mask
@cython.boundscheck(False)
@cython.wraparound(False)

def bounded_uints(uint32_t lb, uint32_t ub, Py_ssize_t n):
    cdef Py_ssize_t i
    cdef bitgen_t *rng
    cdef uint32_t[::1] out
    cdef const char *capsule_name = "BitGenerator"

    x = PCG64()
    out = np.empty(n, dtype=np.uint32)
    capsule = x.capsule

    if not PyCapsule_IsValid(capsule, capsule_name):
        raise ValueError("Invalid pointer to anon_func_state")
    rng = <bitgen_t *>PyCapsule_GetPointer(capsule, capsule_name)

    with x.lock, nogil:
        for i in range(n):
            out[i] = bounded_uint(lb, ub, rng)
    return np.asarray(out)
x = PCG64()
capsule = x.capsule
# Optional check that the capsule is from a BitGenerator
if not PyCapsule_IsValid(capsule, capsule_name):
    raise ValueError("Invalid pointer to anon_func_state")
# Cast the pointer
rng = bitgen_t * PyCapsule_GetPointer(capsule, capsule_name)
random_values = np.empty(n, dtype='float64')
with x.lock, nogil:
    for i in range(n):
        # Call the function
        random_values[i] = rng.next_double(rng.state)
    randoms = np.asarray(random_values)
return randoms

# cython example 2
@cython.boundscheck(False)
@cython.wraparound(False)
def uint10_uniforms(Py_ssize_t n):
    """Uniform 10 bit integers stored as 16-bit unsigned integers""
    cdef Py_ssize_t i
cdef bitgen_t *rng
cdef const char *capsule_name = "BitGenerator"
cdef uint16_t[::1] random_values
cdef int bits_remaining
cdef int width = 10
cdef uint64_t buff, mask = 0x3FF

    x = PCG64()
capsule = x.capsule
    if not PyCapsule_IsValid(capsule, capsule_name):
        raise ValueError("Invalid pointer to anon_func_state")
    rng = bitgen_t * PyCapsule_GetPointer(capsule, capsule_name)
    random_values = np.empty(n, dtype='uint16')
    # Best practice is to release GIL and acquire the lock
    bits_remaining = 0
with x.lock, nogil:
    for i in range(n):
        if bits_remaining < width:
            buff = rng.next_uint64(rng.state)
            random_values[i] = buff & mask
            buff >>= width

    randoms = np.asarray(random_values)
return randoms

# cython example 3
def uniforms_ex(bit_generator, Py_ssize_t n, dtype=np.float64):
    """Create an array of `n` uniformly distributed doubles via a "fill" function.
A 'real' distribution would want to process the values into some non-uniform distribution"

Parameters
bit_generator: BitGenerator instance
n: int
   Output vector length
dtype: {str, dtype}, optional
   Desired dtype, either 'd' (or 'float64') or 'f' (or 'float32'). The
default dtype value is 'd'

""
cdef Py_ssize_t i
cdef bitgen_t *rng
cdef const char *capsule_name = "BitGenerator"
cdef np.ndarray randoms

capsule = bit_generator.capsule
# Optional check that the capsule if from a BitGenerator
if not PyCapsule_IsValid(capsule, capsule_name):
    raise ValueError("Invalid pointer to anon_func_state")
# Cast the pointer
rng = <bitgen_t *> PyCapsule_GetPointer(capsule, capsule_name)

_dtype = np.dtype(dtype)
randoms = np.empty(n, dtype=_dtype)
if _dtype == np.float32:
    with bit_generator.lock:
        random_standard_uniform_fill_f(rng, n, <float*>np.PyArray_DATA(randoms))
else:
    raise TypeError('Unsupported dtype %r for random' % _dtype)
return randoms

Extending via CFFI

""
Use cffi to access any of the underlying C functions from distributions.h
""
import os
import numpy as np
import cffi
from .parse import parse_distributions_h
ffi = cffi.FFI()

inc_dir = os.path.join(np.get_include(), 'numpy')

# Basic numpy types
ffi.cdef(''
    typedef intptr_t npy_intp;
    typedef unsigned char npy_bool;
'')

parse_distributions_h(ffi, inc_dir)
lib = ffi.dlopen(np.random._generator.__file__)

# Compare the distributions.h random_standard_normal_fill to
# Generator.standard_random
bit_gen = np.random.PCG64()
rng = np.random.Generator(bit_gen)
state = bit_gen.state

interface = rng.bit_generator.cffi
n = 100
vals_cffi = ffi.new('double[%d]' % n)
lib.random_standard_normal_fill(interface.bit_generator, n, vals_cffi)

# reset the state
bit_gen.state = state
vals = rng.standard_normal(n)

for i in range(n):
    assert vals[i] == vals_cffi[i]

Original Source of the Generator and BitGenerators

This package was developed independently of NumPy and was integrated in version 1.17.0. The original repo is at https://github.com/bashtage/randomgen.

4.24 Set routines

lib.arraysetops Set operations for arrays based on sorting.

Set operations for arrays based on sorting.

Notes

For floating point arrays, inaccurate results may appear due to usual round-off and floating point comparison issues.

Speed could be gained in some operations by an implementation of numpy.sort, that can provide directly the permutation vectors, thus avoiding calls to numpy.argsort.

Original author: Robert Cimrman
4.24.1 Making proper sets

```
unique(ar[, return_index, return_inverse, …])  Find the unique elements of an array.
```

4.24.2 Boolean operations

```
in1d(ar1, ar2[, assume_unique, invert])  Test whether each element of a 1-D array is also present in a second array.

intersect1d(ar1, ar2[, assume_unique, …])  Find the intersection of two arrays.

isin(element, test_elements[, …])  Calculates `element in test_elements`, broadcasting over `element` only.

setdiff1d(ar1, ar2[, assume_unique])  Find the set difference of two arrays.

setxor1d(ar1, ar2[, assume_unique])  Find the set exclusive-or of two arrays.

union1d(ar1, ar2)  Find the union of two arrays.
```

```
numpy.in1d(ar1, ar2, assume_unique=False, invert=False)

Test whether each element of a 1-D array is also present in a second array.

Returns a boolean array the same length as `ar1` that is True where an element of `ar1` is in `ar2` and False otherwise.

We recommend using `isin` instead of `in1d` for new code.

Parameters

ar1

[(M,) array_like] Input array.

ar2

[array_like] The values against which to test each value of `ar1`.

assume_unique

[bool, optional] If True, the input arrays are both assumed to be unique, which can speed up the calculation. Default is False.

invert

[bool, optional] If True, the values in the returned array are inverted (that is, False where an element of `ar1` is in `ar2` and True otherwise). Default is False. `np.in1d(a, b, invert=True)` is equivalent to (but is faster than) `np.invert(in1d(a, b))`.

New in version 1.8.0.

Returns

in1d

[(M,) ndarray, bool] The values `ar1[in1d]` are in `ar2`.

See also:

`isin`

Version of this function that preserves the shape of `ar1`. 
**numpy.lib.arraysetops**

Module with a number of other functions for performing set operations on arrays.

**Notes**

`in1d` can be considered as an element-wise function version of the python keyword `in`, for 1-D sequences. `in1d(a, b)` is roughly equivalent to `np.array([item in b for item in a])`. However, this idea fails if `ar2` is a set, or similar (non-sequence) container: As `ar2` is converted to an array, in those cases `asarray(ar2)` is an object array rather than the expected array of contained values.

New in version 1.4.0.

**Examples**

```python
>>> test = np.array([0, 1, 2, 5, 0])
>>> states = [0, 2]
>>> mask = np.in1d(test, states)
>>> mask
array([ True, False,  True, False,  True])
>>> test[mask]
array([0, 2, 0])
>>> mask = np.in1d(test, states, invert=True)
>>> mask
array([False,  True, False,  True, False])
>>> test[mask]
array([1, 5])
```

**numpy.intersect1d(ar1, ar2, assume_unique=False, return_indices=False)**

Find the intersection of two arrays.

Return the sorted, unique values that are in both of the input arrays.

**Parameters**

- `ar1, ar2` [array_like] Input arrays. Will be flattened if not already 1D.
- `assume_unique` [bool] If True, the input arrays are both assumed to be unique, which can speed up the calculation. If True but `ar1` or `ar2` are not unique, incorrect results and out-of-bounds indices could result. Default is False.
- `return_indices` [bool] If True, the indices which correspond to the intersection of the two arrays are returned. The first instance of a value is used if there are multiple. Default is False.

**Returns**

- `intersect1d` [ndarray] Sorted 1D array of common and unique elements.
comm1

[ndarray] The indices of the first occurrences of the common values in ar1. Only provided if return_indices is True.

comm2

[ndarray] The indices of the first occurrences of the common values in ar2. Only provided if return_indices is True.

See also:

numpy.lib.arraysetops

Module with a number of other functions for performing set operations on arrays.

Examples

```python
>>> np.intersect1d([1, 3, 4, 3], [3, 1, 2, 1])
array([1, 3])
```

To intersect more than two arrays, use functools.reduce:

```python
>>> from functools import reduce
>>> reduce(np.intersect1d, ([1, 3, 4, 3], [3, 1, 2, 1], [6, 3, 4, 2]))
array([3])
```

To return the indices of the values common to the input arrays along with the intersected values:

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> y = np.array([2, 1, 4, 6, 1])
>>> xy, x_ind, y_ind = np.intersect1d(x, y, return_indices=True)
>>> x_ind, y_ind
(array([0, 2, 4]), array([1, 0, 2]))
>>> x[x_ind], y[y_ind]
(array([1, 2, 4]), array([1, 2, 4]), array([1, 2, 4]))
```

numpy.isin(element, test_elements, assume_unique=False, invert=False)

Calculates element in test_elements, broadcasting over element only. Returns a boolean array of the same shape as element that is True where an element of element is in test_elements and False otherwise.

Parameters

- **element**
  - [array_like] Input array.

- **test_elements**
  - [array_like] The values against which to test each value of element. This argument is flattened if it is an array or array_like. See notes for behavior with non-array-like parameters.

- **assume_unique**
  - [bool, optional] If True, the input arrays are both assumed to be unique, which can speed up the calculation. Default is False.

- **invert**
[bool, optional] If True, the values in the returned array are inverted, as if calculating \textit{element not in test\_elements}. Default is False. \texttt{np.isin(a, b, invert=True)} is equivalent to (but faster than) \texttt{np.invert(np.isin(a, b))}.

**Returns**

\texttt{isin}

[ndarray, bool] Has the same shape as \texttt{element}. The values \texttt{element[isin]} are in \texttt{test\_elements}.

**See also:**

\texttt{in1d}

Flattened version of this function.

\texttt{numpy.lib.arraysetops}

Module with a number of other functions for performing set operations on arrays.

**Notes**

\texttt{isin} is an element-wise function version of the python keyword \texttt{in}. \texttt{isin(a, b)} is roughly equivalent to \texttt{np.array([item in b for item in a])} if \texttt{a} and \texttt{b} are 1-D sequences.

\texttt{element} and \texttt{test\_elements} are converted to arrays if they are not already. If \texttt{test\_elements} is a set (or other non-sequence collection) it will be converted to an object array with one element, rather than an array of the values contained in \texttt{test\_elements}. This is a consequence of the \texttt{array} constructor’s way of handling non-sequence collections. Converting the set to a list usually gives the desired behavior.

New in version 1.13.0.

**Examples**

```python
>>> element = 2*np.arange(4).reshape((2, 2))
>>> element
array([[0, 2],
       [4, 6]])
>>> test_elements = [1, 2, 4, 8]
>>> mask = np.isin(element, test_elements)
>>> mask
array([[False,  True],
       [ True, False]])
>>> element[mask]
array([2, 4])
```

The indices of the matched values can be obtained with \texttt{nonzero}:

```python
>>> np.nonzero(mask)
(array([0, 1]), array([1, 0]))
```

The test can also be inverted:
>>> mask = np.isin(element, test_elements, invert=True)
>>> mask
array([[ True, False],
       [False,  True]])
>>> element[mask]
array([0, 6])

Because of how \texttt{array} handles sets, the following does not work as expected:

>>> test_set = \\{1, 2, 4, 8\\}
>>> np.isin(element, test_set)
array([[False, False],
       [False, False]])

Casting the set to a list gives the expected result:

>>> np.isin(element, list(test_set))
array([[False,  True],
       [ True, False]])

\texttt{numpy.setdiff1d}(\texttt{ar1, ar2, assume_unique=False})
Find the set difference of two arrays.
Return the unique values in \texttt{ar1} that are not in \texttt{ar2}.

Parameters

\texttt{ar1}
[array_like] Input array.

\texttt{ar2}
[array_like] Input comparison array.

\texttt{assume_unique}
[bool] If True, the input arrays are both assumed to be unique, which can speed up the calculation. Default is False.

Returns

\texttt{setdiff1d}
[ndarray] 1D array of values in \texttt{ar1} that are not in \texttt{ar2}. The result is sorted when \texttt{assume_unique=False}, but otherwise only sorted if the input is sorted.

See also:

\texttt{numpy.lib.arraysetops}
Module with a number of other functions for performing set operations on arrays.
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3, 2, 4])
>>> b = np.array([3, 4, 5, 6])
>>> np.setdiff1d(a, b)
array([1, 2])
```

`numpy.setxor1d(ar1, ar2, assume_unique=False)`

Find the set exclusive-or of two arrays.

Return the sorted, unique values that are in only one (not both) of the input arrays.

Parameters

- `ar1, ar2` [array_like] Input arrays.
- `assume_unique` [bool] If True, the input arrays are both assumed to be unique, which can speed up the calculation. Default is False.

Returns

- `setxor1d` [ndarray] Sorted 1D array of unique values that are in only one of the input arrays.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([1, 2, 3, 2])
>>> b = np.array([2, 3, 5, 7, 5])
>>> np.setxor1d(a, b)
array([1, 4, 5, 7])
```

`numpy.union1d(ar1, ar2)`

Find the union of two arrays.

Return the unique, sorted array of values that are in either of the two input arrays.

Parameters

- `ar1, ar2` [array_like] Input arrays. They are flattened if they are not already 1D.

Returns

- `union1d` [ndarray] Unique, sorted union of the input arrays.

See also:

`numpy.lib.arraysetops`

Module with a number of other functions for performing set operations on arrays.
Examples

```python
>>> np.union1d([-1, 0, 1], [-2, 0, 2])
array([-2, -1, 0, 1, 2])
```
To find the union of more than two arrays, use `functools.reduce`:

```python
>>> from functools import reduce
>>> reduce(np.union1d, ([1, 3, 4, 3], [3, 1, 2, 1], [6, 3, 4, 2]))
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 6])
```

# 4.25 Sorting, searching, and counting

## 4.25.1 Sorting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>sort(a[, axis, kind, order])</code></td>
<td>Return a sorted copy of an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>lexsort(keys[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Perform an indirect stable sort using a sequence of keys.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>argsort(a[, axis, kind, order])</code></td>
<td>Returns the indices that would sort an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ndarray.sort([axis, kind, order])</code></td>
<td>Sort an array in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>msort(a)</code></td>
<td>Return a copy of an array sorted along the first axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>sort_complex(a)</code></td>
<td>Sort a complex array using the real part first, then the imaginary part.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>partition(a, kth[, axis, kind, order])</code></td>
<td>Return a partitioned copy of an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>argpartition(a, kth[, axis, kind, order])</code></td>
<td>Perform an indirect partition along the given axis using the algorithm specified by the <code>kind</code> keyword.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
numpy.sort (a, axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)  
Return a sorted copy of an array.
```

**Parameters**

- `a`
  - [array_like] Array to be sorted.

- `axis`
  - [int or None, optional] Axis along which to sort. If None, the array is flattened before sorting. The default is -1, which sorts along the last axis.

- `kind`
  - ['quicksort', 'mergesort', 'heapsort', 'stable'], optional] Sorting algorithm. The default is 'quicksort'. Note that both 'stable' and 'mergesort' use timsort or radix sort under the covers and, in general, the actual implementation will vary with data type. The 'mergesort' option is retained for backwards compatibility.

  Changed in version 1.15.0.: The ‘stable’ option was added.

- `order`
  - [str or list of str, optional] When `a` is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not all fields need be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.
Returns

sorted_array

[ndarray] Array of the same type and shape as a.

See also:

ndarray.sort

Method to sort an array in-place.

argsort

Indirect sort.

lexsort

Indirect stable sort on multiple keys.

searchsorted

Find elements in a sorted array.

partition

Partial sort.

Notes

The various sorting algorithms are characterized by their average speed, worst case performance, work space size, and whether they are stable. A stable sort keeps items with the same key in the same relative order. The four algorithms implemented in NumPy have the following properties:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kind</th>
<th>speed</th>
<th>worst case</th>
<th>work space</th>
<th>stable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'quicksort'</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>O(n^2)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'heapsort'</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>O(n*\log(n))</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'mergesort'</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>O(n*\log(n))</td>
<td>~n/2</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'timsort'</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>O(n*\log(n))</td>
<td>~n/2</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The datatype determines which of ‘mergesort’ or ‘timsort’ is actually used, even if ‘mergesort’ is specified. User selection at a finer scale is not currently available.

All the sort algorithms make temporary copies of the data when sorting along any but the last axis. Consequently, sorting along the last axis is faster and uses less space than sorting along any other axis.

The sort order for complex numbers is lexicographic. If both the real and imaginary parts are non-nan then the order is determined by the real parts except when they are equal, in which case the order is determined by the imaginary parts.

Previous to numpy 1.4.0 sorting real and complex arrays containing nan values led to undefined behaviour. In numpy versions $\geq 1.4.0$ nan values are sorted to the end. The extended sort order is:

- Real: [R, nan]
- Complex: [R + Rj, R + nanj, nan + Rj, nan + nanj]
where R is a non-nan real value. Complex values with the same nan placements are sorted according to the non-nan part if it exists. Non-nan values are sorted as before.

New in version 1.12.0.

quicksort has been changed to introsort. When sorting does not make enough progress it switches to heapsort. This implementation makes quicksort O(n*\log(n)) in the worst case.

‘stable’ automatically chooses the best stable sorting algorithm for the data type being sorted. It, along with ‘merge-sort’ is currently mapped to timsort or radix sort depending on the data type. API forward compatibility currently limits the ability to select the implementation and it is hardwired for the different data types.

New in version 1.17.0.

Timsort is added for better performance on already or nearly sorted data. On random data timsort is almost identical to mergesort. It is now used for stable sort while quicksort is still the default sort if none is chosen. For timsort details, refer to CPython listsort.txt. ‘mergesort’ and ‘stable’ are mapped to radix sort for integer data types. Radix sort is an O(n) sort instead of O(n \log n).

Changed in version 1.18.0.

NaT now sorts to the end of arrays for consistency with NaN.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 4], [3, 1]])
>>> np.sort(a)  # sort along the last axis
array([[1, 4],
       [1, 3]])
>>> np.sort(a, axis=None)  # sort the flattened array
array([1, 1, 3, 4])
>>> np.sort(a, axis=0)  # sort along the first axis
array([[1, 1],
       [3, 4]])
```

Use the `order` keyword to specify a field to use when sorting a structured array:

```python
>>> dtype = [('name', 'S10'), ('height', float), ('age', int)]
>>> values = [('Arthur', 1.8, 41), ('Lancelot', 1.9, 38),
            ('Galahad', 1.7, 38)]
>>> a = np.array(values, dtype=dtype)  # create a structured array
>>> np.sort(a, order='height')
array([('Galahad', 1.7, 38), ('Arthur', 1.8, 41),
      ('Lancelot', 1.8999999999999999, 38)],
     dtype=[('name', '|S10'), ('height', '<f8'), ('age', '<i4')])
```

Sort by age, then height if ages are equal:

```python
>>> np.sort(a, order=['age', 'height'])
array([('Galahad', 1.7, 38), ('Lancelot', 1.8999999999999999, 38),
      ('Arthur', 1.8, 41)],
     dtype=[('name', '|S10'), ('height', '<f8'), ('age', '<i4')])
```

numpy.lexsort (keys, axis=-1)

Perform an indirect stable sort using a sequence of keys.

Given multiple sorting keys, which can be interpreted as columns in a spreadsheet, lexsort returns an array of integer indices that describes the sort order by multiple columns. The last key in the sequence is used for the primary sort order, the second-to-last key for the secondary sort order, and so on. The keys argument must be a sequence of
objects that can be converted to arrays of the same shape. If a 2D array is provided for the keys argument, its rows
are interpreted as the sorting keys and sorting is according to the last row, second last row etc.

Parameters

keys

[(k, N) array or tuple containing k (N,)-shaped sequences] The k different “columns” to be
sorted. The last column (or row if keys is a 2D array) is the primary sort key.

axis

[int, optional] Axis to be indirectly sorted. By default, sort over the last axis.

Returns

indices

[(N,) ndarray of ints] Array of indices that sort the keys along the specified axis.

See also:

argsort

Indirect sort.

ndarray.sort

In-place sort.

sort

Return a sorted copy of an array.

Examples

Sort names: first by surname, then by name.

```python
>>> surnames = ('Hertz', 'Galilei', 'Hertz')
>>> first_names = ('Heinrich', 'Galileo', 'Gustav')
>>> ind = np.lexsort((first_names, surnames))
>>> ind
array([1, 2, 0])
```

```python
>>> [surnames[i] + ',', ' ' + first_names[i] for i in ind]
['Galilei, Galileo', 'Hertz, Gustav', 'Hertz, Heinrich']
```

Sort two columns of numbers:

```python
>>> a = [1, 5, 1, 4, 3, 4] # First column
>>> b = [9, 4, 0, 4, 0, 2, 1] # Second column
>>> ind = np.lexsort((b, a)) # Sort by a, then by b
>>> ind
array([2, 0, 4, 6, 5, 3, 1])
```

```python
>>> [(a[i], b[i]) for i in ind]
[(1, 0), (1, 9), (3, 0), (4, 1), (4, 2), (4, 4), (5, 4)]
```
Note that sorting is first according to the elements of \( a \). Secondary sorting is according to the elements of \( b \).

A normal `argsort` would have yielded:

```
>>> [(a[i],b[i]) for i in np.argsort(a)]
[(1, 9), (1, 0), (3, 0), (4, 4), (4, 2), (4, 1), (5, 4)]
```

Structured arrays are sorted lexically by `argsort`:

```
>>> x = np.array([(1, 9), (5, 4), (1, 0), (4, 4), (3, 0), (4, 2), (4, 1)],
... dtype=np.dtype([( 'x', int), ('y', int)]))

>>> np.argsort(x) # or np.argsort(x, order=('x', 'y'))
array([2, 0, 4, 6, 5, 3, 1])
```

```
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0
```

NumPy `argsort (a, axis=-1, kind=None, order=None)`

Returns the indices that would sort an array.

Perform an indirect sort along the given axis using the algorithm specified by the `kind` keyword. It returns an array of indices of the same shape as \( a \) that index data along the given axis in sorted order.

**Parameters**

- \( a \)
  - [array_like] Array to sort.

- \( axis \)
  - [int or None, optional] Axis along which to sort. The default is -1 (the last axis). If None, the flattened array is used.

- \( kind \)
  - [{'quicksort', 'mergesort', 'heapsort', 'stable'}, optional] Sorting algorithm. The default is 'quicksort'. Note that both 'stable' and 'mergesort' use timsort under the covers and, in general, the actual implementation will vary with data type. The 'mergesort' option is retained for backwards compatibility.

  Changed in version 1.15.0.: The 'stable' option was added.

- \( order \)
  - [str or list of str, optional] When \( a \) is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not all fields need be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

**Returns**

- \( index\_array \)
  - [ndarray, int] Array of indices that sort \( a \) along the specified \( axis \). If \( a \) is one-dimensional, \( a[index\_array] \) yields a sorted \( a \). More generally, `np.take_along_axis(a, index_array, axis=axis)` always yields the sorted \( a \), irrespective of dimensionality.

**See also:**

- `sort`
  - Describes sorting algorithms used.

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lexsort
Indirect stable sort with multiple keys.

ndarray.sort
Inplace sort.

argpartition
Indirect partial sort.

take_along_axis
Apply index_array from argsort to an array as if by calling sort.

Notes
See sort for notes on the different sorting algorithms.
As of NumPy 1.4.0 argsort works with real/complex arrays containing nan values. The enhanced sort order is documented in sort.

Examples
One dimensional array:

```python
>>> x = np.array([3, 1, 2])
>>> np.argsort(x)
array([1, 2, 0])
```

Two-dimensional array:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[0, 3], [2, 2]])
>>> x
array([[0, 3],
       [2, 2]])

>>> ind = np.argsort(x, axis=0)  # sorts along first axis (down)
>>> ind
array([[0, 1],
       [1, 0]])

>>> np.take_along_axis(x, ind, axis=0)  # same as np.sort(x, axis=0)
array([[0, 2],
       [2, 3]])

>>> ind = np.argsort(x, axis=1)  # sorts along last axis (across)
>>> ind
array([[0, 1],
       [0, 1]])

>>> np.take_along_axis(x, ind, axis=1)  # same as np.sort(x, axis=1)
array([[0, 3],
       [2, 2]])
```

Indices of the sorted elements of a N-dimensional array:
>>> ind = np.unravel_index(np.argsort(x, axis=None), x.shape)
>>> ind
(array([0, 1, 1, 0]), array([0, 0, 1, 1]))
>>> x[ind]  # same as np.sort(x, axis=None)
array([0, 2, 2, 3])

Sorting with keys:

>>> x = np.array([(1, 0), (0, 1)], dtype=[('x', '<i4'), ('y', '<i4')])
>>> x
array([(1, 0), (0, 1)],
      dtype=[('x', '<i4'), ('y', '<i4')])

>>> np.argsort(x, order=('x', 'y'))
array([1, 0])

>>> np.argsort(x, order=('y', 'x'))
array([0, 1])

NumPy \texttt{msort{(a)}}
Return a copy of an array sorted along the first axis.

\textbf{Parameters}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \texttt{a} \ [array_like] Array to be sorted.
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Returns}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \texttt{sorted\_array} \ [ndarray] Array of the same type and shape as \texttt{a}.
\end{itemize}

\textbf{See also:}

\texttt{sort}

\textbf{Notes}

\texttt{np.msort(a)} is equivalent to \texttt{np.sort(a, axis=0)}.

NumPy \texttt{sort\_complex{(a)}}
Sort a complex array using the real part first, then the imaginary part.

\textbf{Parameters}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \texttt{a} \ [array_like] Input array
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Returns}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \texttt{out} \ [complex ndarray] Always returns a sorted complex array.
\end{itemize}
Examples

```python
>>> np.sort_complex([5, 3, 6, 2, 1])
array([1.+0.j, 2.+0.j, 3.+0.j, 5.+0.j, 6.+0.j])

>>> np.sort_complex([1 + 2j, 2 - 1j, 3 - 2j, 3 - 3j, 3 + 5j])
array([1.+2.j, 2.-1.j, 3.-3.j, 3.-2.j, 3.+5.j])
```

`numpy.partition(a, kth=-1, kind='introselect', order=None)`

Return a partitioned copy of an array.

Creates a copy of the array with its elements rearranged in such a way that the value of the element in k-th position is in the position it would be in a sorted array. All elements smaller than the k-th element are moved before this element and all equal or greater are moved behind it. The ordering of the elements in the two partitions is undefined.

New in version 1.8.0.

**Parameters**

- **a**  
  [array_like] Array to be sorted.

- **kth**  
  [int or sequence of ints] Element index to partition by. The k-th value of the element will be in its final sorted position and all smaller elements will be moved before it and all equal or greater elements behind it. The order of all elements in the partitions is undefined. If provided with a sequence of k-th it will partition all elements indexed by k-th of them into their sorted position at once.

- **axis**  
  [int or None, optional] Axis along which to sort. If None, the array is flattened before sorting. The default is -1, which sorts along the last axis.

- **kind**  
  [{‘introselect’}, optional] Selection algorithm. Default is ‘introselect’.

- **order**  
  [str or list of str, optional] When a is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string. Not all fields need be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

**Returns**

- **partitioned_array**  
  [ndarray] Array of the same type and shape as a.

**See also:**

- `ndarray.partition`
  Method to sort an array in-place.

- `argpartition`
  Indirect partition.
sort

Full sorting

Notes

The various selection algorithms are characterized by their average speed, worst case performance, work space size, and whether they are stable. A stable sort keeps items with the same key in the same relative order. The available algorithms have the following properties:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kind</th>
<th>speed</th>
<th>worst case</th>
<th>work space</th>
<th>stable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>introselect</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>O(n)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the partition algorithms make temporary copies of the data when partitioning along any but the last axis. Consequently, partitioning along the last axis is faster and uses less space than partitioning along any other axis.

The sort order for complex numbers is lexicographic. If both the real and imaginary parts are non-nan then the order is determined by the real parts except when they are equal, in which case the order is determined by the imaginary parts.

Examples

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

>>> np.partition(a, (1, 3))
array([1, 2, 3, 4])
```

numpy.argpartition(a, kth, axis=-1, kind='introselect', order=None)

Perform an indirect partition along the given axis using the algorithm specified by the kind keyword. It returns an array of indices of the same shape as `a` that index data along the given axis in partitioned order.

New in version 1.8.0.

Parameters

a

[array_like] Array to sort.

kth

[int or sequence of ints] Element index to partition by. The k-th element will be in its final sorted position and all smaller elements will be moved before it and all larger elements behind it. The order all elements in the partitions is undefined. If provided with a sequence of k-th it will partition all of them into their sorted position at once.

axis

[int or None, optional] Axis along which to sort. The default is -1 (the last axis). If None, the flattened array is used.

kind

[{'introselect'}, optional] Selection algorithm. Default is ‘introselect’
order

[str or list of str, optional] When a is an array with fields defined, this argument specifies which fields to compare first, second, etc. A single field can be specified as a string, and not all fields need be specified, but unspecified fields will still be used, in the order in which they come up in the dtype, to break ties.

Returns

index_array

[ndarray, int] Array of indices that partition a along the specified axis. If a is one-dimensional, a[index_array] yields a partitioned a. More generally, np.take_along_axis(a, index_array, axis=a) always yields the partitioned a, irrespective of dimensionality.

See also:

partition

Describes partition algorithms used.

ndarray.partition

Inplace partition.

argsort

Full indirect sort.

take_along_axis

Apply index_array from argpartition to an array as if by calling partition.

Notes

See partition for notes on the different selection algorithms.

Examples

One dimensional array:

```python
>>> x = np.array([3, 4, 2, 1])
>>> x[np.argpartition(x, 3)]
array([2, 1, 3, 4])
>>> x[np.argpartition(x, (1, 3))]  
array([1, 2, 3, 4])
```

```python
>>> x = [3, 4, 2, 1]
>>> np.array(x)[np.argpartition(x, 3)]
array([2, 1, 3, 4])
```

Multi-dimensional array:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[3, 4, 2], [1, 3, 1]])
>>> index_array = np.argpartition(x, kth=1, axis=-1)
>>> np.take_along_axis(x, index_array, axis=-1)  # same as np.partition(x, kth=1)
array([[2, 3, 4],
       [1, 1, 3]])
```
4.25.2 Searching

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
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<td><code>argmax(a[, axis, out])</code></td>
<td>Returns the indices of the maximum values along an axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nanargmax(a[, axis])</code></td>
<td>Return the indices of the maximum values in the specified axis ignoring NaNs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>argmin(a[, axis, out])</code></td>
<td>Returns the indices of the minimum values along an axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nanargmin(a[, axis])</code></td>
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<td><code>argwhere(a)</code></td>
<td>Find the indices of array elements that are non-zero, grouped by element.</td>
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<td><code>flatnonzero(a)</code></td>
<td>Return indices that are non-zero in the flattened version of a.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>where(condition, [x, y])</code></td>
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<td><code>searchsorted(a, v[, side, sorter])</code></td>
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<td><code>extract(condition, arr)</code></td>
<td>Return the elements of an array that satisfy some condition.</td>
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**numpy.argmax(a[, axis=None, out=None])**

Returns the indices of the maximum values along an axis.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] Input array.

- **axis**
  - [int, optional] By default, the index is into the flattened array, otherwise along the specified axis.

- **out**
  - [array, optional] If provided, the result will be inserted into this array. It should be of the appropriate shape and dtype.

**Returns**

- **index_array**
  - [ndarray of ints] Array of indices into the array. It has the same shape as a.shape with the dimension along axis removed.

**See also:**

- `ndarray.argmax, argmin`
- `amax`
  - The maximum value along a given axis.
- `unravel_index`
  - Convert a flat index into an index tuple.
**take_along_axis**

Apply `np.expand_dims(index_array, axis)` from argmax to an array as if by calling max.

**Notes**

In case of multiple occurrences of the maximum values, the indices corresponding to the first occurrence are returned.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3) + 10
>>> a
array([[10, 11, 12],
       [13, 14, 15]])
>>> np.argmax(a)
5
>>> np.argmax(a, axis=0)
array([1, 1, 1])
>>> np.argmax(a, axis=1)
array([2, 2])
```

Indexes of the maximal elements of a N-dimensional array:

```python
>>> ind = np.unravel_index(np.argmax(a, axis=None), a.shape)
>>> ind
(1, 2)
>>> a[ind]
15
```

```python
>>> b = np.arange(6)
>>> b[1] = 5
>>> b
array([0, 5, 2, 3, 4, 5])
>>> np.argmax(b)  # Only the first occurrence is returned.
1
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([[4, 2, 3], [1, 0, 3]])
>>> index_array = np.argmax(x, axis=-1)
>>> # Same as np.max(x, axis=-1, keepdims=True)
>>> np.take_along_axis(x, np.expand_dims(index_array, axis=-1), axis=-1)
array([[4],
       [3]])
>>> # Same as np.max(x, axis=-1)
>>> np.take_along_axis(x, np.expand_dims(index_array, axis=-1), axis=-1).
# squeeze(axis=-1)
array([4, 3])
```

**numpy.nanargmax** *(a, axis=None)*

Return the indices of the maximum values in the specified axis ignoring NaNs. For all-NaN slices ValueError is raised. Warning: the results cannot be trusted if a slice contains only NaNs and -Infs.

**Parameters**

- a
[array_like] Input data.

axis

[int, optional] Axis along which to operate. By default flattened input is used.

Returns

index_array

[ndarray] An array of indices or a single index value.

See also:

argmax, nanargmin

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[np.nan, 4], [2, 3]])
>>> np.argmax(a)
0
>>> np.nanargmax(a)
1
>>> np.nanargmax(a, axis=0)
array([1, 0])
>>> np.nanargmax(a, axis=1)
array([1, 1])
```

numpy.argmin(a, axis=None, out=None)

Returns the indices of the minimum values along an axis.

Parameters

a

[array_like] Input array.

axis

[int, optional] By default, the index is into the flattened array, otherwise along the specified axis.

out

[array, optional] If provided, the result will be inserted into this array. It should be of the appropriate shape and dtype.

Returns

index_array

[ndarray of ints] Array of indices into the array. It has the same shape as a.shape with the dimension along axis removed.

See also:

ndarray.argmin, argmax
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

**amin**

The minimum value along a given axis.

**unravel_index**

Convert a flat index into an index tuple.

**take_along_axis**

Apply `np.expand_dims(index_array, axis)` from `argmin` to an array as if by calling `min`.

**Notes**

In case of multiple occurrences of the minimum values, the indices corresponding to the first occurrence are returned.

**Examples**

```
>>> a = np.arange(6).reshape(2, 3) + 10
>>> a
array([[10, 11, 12],
       [13, 14, 15]])
>>> np.argmin(a)
0
>>> np.argmin(a, axis=0)
array([0, 0, 0])
>>> np.argmin(a, axis=1)
array([0, 0])
```

Indices of the minimum elements of a N-dimensional array:

```
>>> ind = np.unravel_index(np.argmin(a, axis=None), a.shape)
>>> ind
(0, 0)
>>> a[ind]
10
```

```
>>> b = np.arange(6) + 10
>>> b[4] = 10
>>> b
array([10, 11, 12, 13, 10, 15])
>>> np.argmin(b)  # Only the first occurrence is returned.
0
```

```
>>> x = np.array([[4, 2, 3], [1, 6, 3]])
>>> index_array = np.argmin(x, axis=-1)
>>> # Same as np.min(x, axis=-1, keepdims=True)
>>> np.take_along_axis(x, np.expand_dims(index_array, axis=-1), axis=-1)
array([[2],
       [0]])
>>> # Same as np.max(x, axis=-1)
>>> np.take_along_axis(x, np.expand_dims(index_array, axis=-1), axis=-1).
   squeeze(axis=-1)
array([2, 0])
```
**numpy.nanargmin**(*a*, *axis=None*)

Return the indices of the minimum values in the specified axis ignoring NaNs. For all-NaN slices `ValueError` is raised. Warning: the results cannot be trusted if a slice contains only NaNs and Infs.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [array_like] Input data.

- **axis**
  
  [int, optional] Axis along which to operate. By default flattened input is used.

**Returns**

- **index_array**
  
  [ndarray] An array of indices or a single index value.

**See also:**

`argmin`, `nanargmax`

**Examples**

```python
g = np.array([[np.nan, 4], [2, 3]])
>>> g.argmin() 0
>>> g.nanargmin() 2
>>> g.nanargmin(g, axis=0)
array([1, 1])
>>> g.nanargmin(g, axis=1)
array([1, 0])
```

**numpy.argwhere**(*a*)

Find the indices of array elements that are non-zero, grouped by element.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [array_like] Input data.

**Returns**

- **index_array**
  
  [(N, a.ndim) ndarray] Indices of elements that are non-zero. Indices are grouped by element. This array will have shape (N, a.ndim) where N is the number of non-zero items.

**See also:**

`where`, `nonzero`
Notes

np.argwhere(a) is almost the same as np.transpose(np.nonzero(a)), but produces a result of the correct shape for a 0D array.

The output of argwhere is not suitable for indexing arrays. For this purpose use nonzero(a) instead.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(6).reshape(2,3)
>>> x
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [3, 4, 5]])
>>> np.argwhere(x>1)
array([[0, 2],
       [1, 0],
       [1, 1],
       [1, 2]])
```

numpy.flatnonzero(a)

Return indices that are non-zero in the flattened version of a.

This is equivalent to np.nonzero(np.ravel(a))[0].

Parameters

a

[array_like] Input data.

Returns

res

[ndarray] Output array, containing the indices of the elements of a.ravel() that are non-zero.

See also:

callzero
callzero

Return the indices of the non-zero elements of the input array.

callavel
callavel

Return a 1-D array containing the elements of the input array.

Examples

```python
>>> x = np.arange(-2, 3)
>>> x
array([-2, -1, 0, 1, 2])
>>> np.flatnonzero(x)
array([0, 1, 3, 4])
```

Use the indices of the non-zero elements as an index array to extract these elements:
```python
>>> x.ravel()[np.flatnonzero(x)]
array([-2, -1,  1,  2])
```

`numpy.searchsorted(a, v, side='left', sorter=None)`
Find indices where elements should be inserted to maintain order.

Find the indices into a sorted array `a` such that, if the corresponding elements in `v` were inserted before the indices, the order of `a` would be preserved.

Assuming that `a` is sorted:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>side</th>
<th>returned index <code>i</code> satisfies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>left</td>
<td><code>a[i-1] &lt; v &lt;= a[i]</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>right</td>
<td><code>a[i-1] &lt;= v &lt; a[i]</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Parameters**

- **a**
  
  [1-D array_like] Input array. If `sorter` is None, then it must be sorted in ascending order, otherwise `sorter` must be an array of indices that sort it.

- **v**
  
  [array_like] Values to insert into `a`.

- **side**
  
  [{'left', 'right'}, optional] If ‘left’, the index of the first suitable location found is given. If ‘right’, return the last such index. If there is no suitable index, return either 0 or N (where N is the length of `a`).

- **sorter**
  
  [1-D array_like, optional] Optional array of integer indices that sort array `a` into ascending order. They are typically the result of argsort.

**Returns**

- **indices**
  
  [array of ints] Array of insertion points with the same shape as `v`.

**See also:**

- **sort**
  
  Return a sorted copy of an array.

- **histogram**
  
  Produce histogram from 1-D data.

4.25. Sorting, searching, and counting
Notes

Binary search is used to find the required insertion points.

As of NumPy 1.4.0, `searchsorted` works with real/complex arrays containing `nan` values. The enhanced sort order is documented in `sort`.

This function uses the same algorithm as the built-in Python `bisect.bisect_left` (side='left') and `bisect.bisect_right` (side='right') functions, which is also vectorized in the `v` argument.

Examples

```
>>> np.searchsorted([1,2,3,4,5], 3)
2
>>> np.searchsorted([1,2,3,4,5], 3, side='right')
3
>>> np.searchsorted([1,2,3,4,5], [-10, 10, 2, 3])
array([0, 5, 1, 2])
```

numpy.extract(condition, arr)

Return the elements of an array that satisfy some condition.

This is equivalent to `np.compress(ravel(condition), ravel(arr))`. If `condition` is boolean `np.extract` is equivalent to `arr[condition].`

Note that `place` does the exact opposite of `extract`.

Parameters

condition

[array_like] An array whose nonzero or True entries indicate the elements of `arr` to extract.

arr

[array_like] Input array of the same size as `condition`.

Returns

extract

[ndarray] Rank 1 array of values from `arr` where `condition` is True.

See also:

take, put, copyto, compress, place

Examples

```
>>> arr = np.arange(12).reshape((3, 4))
>>> arr
array([[ 0,  1,  2,  3],
       [ 4,  5,  6,  7],
       [ 8,  9, 10, 11]])
>>> condition = np.mod(arr, 3)==0
>>> condition
array([[ True, False, False,  True],
       [ True, False,  True, False],
       [False, False, False, False]])
```
If `condition` is boolean:

```python
>>> arr[condition]
array([0, 3, 6, 9])
```
Examples

```python
>>> np.count_nonzero(np.eye(4))
4
>>> a = np.array([[0, 1, 7, 0],
... [3, 0, 2, 19]])
>>> np.count_nonzero(a)
5
>>> np.count_nonzero(a, axis=0)
array([1, 1, 2, 1])
>>> np.count_nonzero(a, axis=1)
array([2, 3])
>>> np.count_nonzero(a, axis=1, keepdims=True)
array([[2],
        [3]])
```

4.26 Statistics

4.26.1 Order statistics

- `amin(a[, axis, out, keepdims, initial, where])`: Return the minimum of an array or minimum along an axis.
- `amax(a[, axis, out, keepdims, initial, where])`: Return the maximum of an array or maximum along an axis.
- `nanmin(a[, axis, out, keepdims])`: Return minimum of an array or minimum along an axis, ignoring any NaNs.
- `nanmax(a[, axis, out, keepdims])`: Return the maximum of an array or maximum along an axis, ignoring any NaNs.
- `ptp(a[, axis, out, keepdims])`: Range of values (maximum - minimum) along an axis.
- `percentile(a, q[, axis, out, …])`: Compute the q-th percentile of the data along the specified axis.
- `nanpercentile(a, q[, axis, out, …])`: Compute the qth percentile of the data along the specified axis, while ignoring nan values.
- `quantile(a, q[, axis, out, overwrite_input, …])`: Compute the q-th quantile of the data along the specified axis.
- `nanquantile(a, q[, axis, out, …])`: Compute the qth quantile of the data along the specified axis, while ignoring nan values.

`numpy.amin (a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>, initial=<no value>, where=<no value>)`

Return the minimum of an array or minimum along an axis.

**Parameters**

- `a`
  
  [array_like] Input data.

- `axis`
  
  [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which to operate. By default, flattened input is used.

  New in version 1.7.0.
If this is a tuple of ints, the minimum is selected over multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

**out**

[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. Must be of the same shape and buffer length as the expected output. See *Output type determination* for more details.

**keepdims**

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

If the default value is passed, then *keepdims* will not be passed through to the *amin* method of sub-classes of *ndarray*, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class' method does not implement *keepdims* any exceptions will be raised.

**initial**

[scalar, optional] The maximum value of an output element. Must be present to allow computation on empty slice. See *reduce* for details.

New in version 1.15.0.

**where**

[array_like of bool, optional] Elements to compare for the minimum. See *reduce* for details.

New in version 1.17.0.

**Returns**

**amin**

[ndarray or scalar] Minimum of *a*. If *axis* is None, the result is a scalar value. If *axis* is given, the result is an array of dimension *a.ndim − 1*.

**See also:**

**amax**

The maximum value of an array along a given axis, propagating any NaNs.

**nanmin**

The minimum value of an array along a given axis, ignoring any NaNs.

**minimum**

Element-wise minimum of two arrays, propagating any NaNs.

**fmin**

Element-wise minimum of two arrays, ignoring any NaNs.

**argmin**

Return the indices of the minimum values.

**nanmax, maximum, fmax**
Notes

NaN values are propagated, that is if at least one item is NaN, the corresponding min value will be NaN as well. To ignore NaN values (MATLAB behavior), please use nanmin. Don’t use amin for element-wise comparison of 2 arrays; when a.shape[0] is 2, minimum(a[0], a[1]) is faster than amin(a, axis=0).

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(4).reshape((2,2))
>>> a
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]])
>>> np.amin(a)          # Minimum of the flattened array
0
>>> np.amin(a, axis=0)  # Minima along the first axis
array([0, 1])
>>> np.amin(a, axis=1)  # Minima along the second axis
array([0, 2])
>>> np.amin(a, where=[False, True], initial=10, axis=0)
array([10, 1])

>>> b = np.arange(5, dtype=float)
>>> np.amin(b)
nan
>>> np.amin(b, where=~np.isnan(b), initial=10)
0.0
>>> np.nanmin(b)
0.0

>>> np.min([[10], [10]], axis=-1, initial=0)
array([-50, 0])
```

Notice that the initial value is used as one of the elements for which the minimum is determined, unlike for the default argument Python’s max function, which is only used for empty iterables.

Notice that this isn’t the same as Python’s default argument.

```python
>>> np.min([6], initial=5)
5
>>> min([6], default=5)
6
```

numpy.amin(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=False, initial=<no value>, where=<no value>)

Return the minimum of an array or minimum along an axis.

Parameters

a

[array_like] Input data.

axis

[None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which to operate. By default, flattened input is used.
New in version 1.7.0.
If this is a tuple of ints, the maximum is selected over multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

**out**

[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. Must be of the same shape and buffer length as the expected output. See *Output type determination* for more details.

**keepdims**

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

If the default value is passed, then *keepdims* will not be passed through to the *amax* method of sub-classes of *ndarray*, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class' method does not implement *keepdims* any exceptions will be raised.

**initial**

[scalar, optional] The minimum value of an output element. Must be present to allow computation on empty slice. See *reduce* for details.

New in version 1.15.0.

**where**

[array_like of bool, optional] Elements to compare for the maximum. See *reduce* for details.

New in version 1.17.0.

**Returns**

**amax**

[ndarray or scalar] Maximum of *a*. If *axis* is None, the result is a scalar value. If *axis* is given, the result is an array of dimension *a.ndim - 1*.

See also:

**amin**

The minimum value of an array along a given axis, propagating any NaNs.

**nanmax**

The maximum value of an array along a given axis, ignoring any NaNs.

**maximum**

Element-wise maximum of two arrays, propagating any NaNs.

**fmax**

Element-wise maximum of two arrays, ignoring any NaNs.

**argmax**

Return the indices of the maximum values.

**nanmin, minimum, fmin**
Notes

NaN values are propagated, that is if at least one item is NaN, the corresponding max value will be NaN as well. To ignore NaN values (MATLAB behavior), please use nanmax.

Don’t use amax for element-wise comparison of 2 arrays; when a.shape[0] is 2, maximum(a[0], a[1]) is faster than amax(a, axis=0).

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.arange(4).reshape((2,2))
>>> a
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]])
>>> np.amax(a)        # Maximum of the flattened array
3
>>> np.amax(a, axis=0) # Maxima along the first axis
array([2, 3])
>>> np.amax(a, axis=1) # Maxima along the second axis
array([1, 3])
>>> np.amax(a, where=[False, True], initial=-1, axis=0)
array([-1, 3])
>>> b = np.arange(5, dtype=float)
>>> np.amax(b)
nan
>>> np.amax(b, where=~np.isnan(b), initial=-1)
4.0
>>> np.nanmax(b)
4.0
```

You can use an initial value to compute the maximum of an empty slice, or to initialize it to a different value:

```python
>>> np.max([[-50], [10]], axis=-1, initial=0)
array([ 0, 10])
```

Notice that the initial value is used as one of the elements for which the maximum is determined, unlike for the default argument Python’s max function, which is only used for empty iterables.

```python
>>> np.max([5], initial=6)
6
>>> max([5], default=6)
5
```

numpy.nanmin(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)

Return minimum of an array or minimum along an axis, ignoring any NaNs. When all-NaN slices are encountered a RuntimeWarning is raised and Nan is returned for that slice.

Parameters

- **a**
  - [array_like] Array containing numbers whose minimum is desired. If a is not an array, a conversion is attempted.

- **axis**
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

[int, tuple of int, None], optional] Axis or axes along which the minimum is computed. The default is to compute the minimum of the flattened array.

out

[ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. The default is None; if provided, it must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type will be cast if necessary. See Output type determination for more details.

New in version 1.8.0.

keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original a.

If the value is anything but the default, then keepdims will be passed through to the min method of sub-classes of ndarray. If the sub-classes methods does not implement keepdims any exceptions will be raised.

New in version 1.8.0.

Returns

nanmin

[ndarray] An array with the same shape as a, with the specified axis removed. If a is a 0-d array, or if axis is None, an ndarray scalar is returned. The same dtype as a is returned.

See also:

nanmax

The maximum value of an array along a given axis, ignoring any NaNs.

amin

The minimum value of an array along a given axis, propagating any NaNs.

fmin

Element-wise minimum of two arrays, ignoring any NaNs.

minimum

Element-wise minimum of two arrays, propagating any NaNs.

isnan

Shows which elements are Not a Number (NaN).

isfinite

Shows which elements are neither NaN nor infinity.

amax, fmax, maximum
Notes

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754). This means that Not a Number is not equivalent to infinity. Positive infinity is treated as a very large number and negative infinity is treated as a very small (i.e. negative) number.

If the input has a integer type the function is equivalent to np.min.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, np.nan]])
>>> np.nanmin(a)
1.0
>>> np.nanmin(a, axis=0)
array([1., 2.])
>>> np.nanmin(a, axis=1)
array([1., 3.])
```

When positive infinity and negative infinity are present:

```python
>>> np.nanmin([1, 2, np.nan, np.inf])
1.0
>>> np.nanmin([1, 2, np.nan, np.NINF])
-inf
```

numpy.nanmax (a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)

Return the maximum of an array or maximum along an axis, ignoring any NaNs. When all-NaN slices are encountered a `RuntimeWarning` is raised and NaN is returned for that slice.

Parameters

- **a**
  [array_like] Array containing numbers whose maximum is desired. If a is not an array, a conversion is attempted.

- **axis**
  [(int, tuple of int, None), optional] Axis or axes along which the maximum is computed. The default is to compute the maximum of the flattened array.

- **out**
  [ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. The default is `None`; if provided, it must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type will be cast if necessary. See `Output type determination` for more details.

  New in version 1.8.0.

- **keepdims**
  [bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original a.

  If the value is anything but the default, then `keepdims` will be passed through to the `max` method of sub-classes of `ndarray`. If the sub-classes methods does not implement `keepdims` any exceptions will be raised.

  New in version 1.8.0.
Returns

nanmax

[ndarray] An array with the same shape as a, with the specified axis removed. If a is a 0-d array, or if axis is None, an ndarray scalar is returned. The same dtype as a is returned.

See also:

nanmin
The minimum value of an array along a given axis, ignoring any NaNs.

amax
The maximum value of an array along a given axis, propagating any NaNs.

fmax
Element-wise maximum of two arrays, ignoring any NaNs.

maximum
Element-wise maximum of two arrays, propagating any NaNs.

isnan
Shows which elements are Not a Number (NaN).

isfinite
Shows which elements are neither NaN nor infinity.

amin, fmin, minimum

Notes

NumPy uses the IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point for Arithmetic (IEEE 754). This means that Not a Number is not equivalent to infinity. Positive infinity is treated as a very large number and negative infinity is treated as a very small (i.e. negative) number.

If the input has a integer type the function is equivalent to np.max.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, np.nan]])
>>> np.nanmax(a)
3.0
>>> np.nanmax(a, axis=0)
array([3.,  2.])
>>> np.nanmax(a, axis=1)
array([2.,  3.])
```

When positive infinity and negative infinity are present:

```python
>>> np.nanmax([1, 2, np.nan, np.NINF])
2.0
>>> np.nanmax([1, 2, np.nan, np.inf])
inf
```
```python
numpy.ptp(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)
```

Range of values (maximum - minimum) along an axis.

The name of the function comes from the acronym for 'peak to peak'.

**Warning:** `ptp` preserves the data type of the array. This means the return value for an input of signed integers with n bits (e.g. `np.int8`, `np.int16`, etc) is also a signed integer with n bits. In that case, peak-to-peak values greater than $2^{(n-1)} - 1$ will be returned as negative values. An example with a work-around is shown below.

**Parameters**

- `a`  
  [array_like] Input values.

- `axis`  
  [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis along which to find the peaks. By default, flatten the array. `axis` may be negative, in which case it counts from the last to the first axis.

  New in version 1.15.0.

  If this is a tuple of ints, a reduction is performed on multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

- `out`  
  [array_like] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output, but the type of the output values will be cast if necessary.

- `keepdims`  
  [bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

  If the default value is passed, then `keepdims` will not be passed through to the `ptp` method of sub-classes of `ndarray`, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class' method does not implement `keepdims` any exceptions will be raised.

**Returns**

- `ptp`  
  [ndarray] A new array holding the result, unless `out` was specified, in which case a reference to `out` is returned.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([[4, 9, 2, 10],
...                [6, 9, 7, 12]])
```

```python
>>> np.ptp(x, axis=1)
array([8, 6])
```

```python
>>> np.ptp(x, axis=0)
array([2, 0, 5, 2])
```

```python
>>> np.ptp(x)
10
```

This example shows that a negative value can be returned when the input is an array of signed integers.

```python
>>> y = np.array([[1, 127],
...                [0, 127],
...                [-1, 127],
...                [-2, 127]], dtype=np.int8)
>>> np.ptp(y, axis=1)
array([ 126, 127, -128, -127], dtype=int8)
```

A work-around is to use the `view()` method to view the result as unsigned integers with the same bit width:

```python
>>> np.ptp(y, axis=1).view(np.uint8)
array([126, 127, 128, 129], dtype=uint8)
```

numpy.percentile(a, q, axis=None, out=None, overwrite_input=False, interpolation='linear', keepdims=False)

Compute the q-th percentile of the data along the specified axis.

Returns the q-th percentile(s) of the array elements.

Parameters

- `a`
  [array_like] Input array or object that can be converted to an array.

- `q`
  [array_like of float] Percentile or sequence of percentiles to compute, which must be between 0 and 100 inclusive.

- `axis`
  [[int, tuple of int, None], optional] Axis or axes along which the percentiles are computed. The default is to compute the percentile(s) along a flattened version of the array.

  Changed in version 1.9.0: A tuple of axes is supported

- `out`
  [ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output, but the type (of the output) will be cast if necessary.

- `overwrite_input`

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[bool, optional] If True, then allow the input array $a$ to be modified by intermediate calculations, to save memory. In this case, the contents of the input $a$ after this function completes is undefined.

**interpolation**

[['linear', 'lower', 'higher', 'midpoint', 'nearest']] This optional parameter specifies the interpolation method to use when the desired percentile lies between two data points $i < j$:

- 'linear': $i + (j - i) \times \text{fraction}$, where $\text{fraction}$ is the fractional part of the index surrounded by $i$ and $j$.
- 'lower': $i$.
- 'higher': $j$.
- 'nearest': $i$ or $j$, whichever is nearest.
- 'midpoint': $(i + j) / 2$.

New in version 1.9.0.

**keepdims**

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original array $a$.

New in version 1.9.0.

**Returns**

**percentile**

[scalar or ndarray] If $q$ is a single percentile and $axis=None$, then the result is a scalar. If multiple percentiles are given, first axis of the result corresponds to the percentiles. The other axes are the axes that remain after the reduction of $a$. If the input contains integers or floats smaller than float64, the output data-type is float64. Otherwise, the output data-type is the same as that of the input. If $out$ is specified, that array is returned instead.

**See also:**

`mean`

`median`

Equivalent to `percentile(..., 50)`

`nanpercentile`

`quantile`

Equivalent to percentile, except with $q$ in the range $[0, 1]$. 
Notes

Given a vector $V$ of length $N$, the $q$-th percentile of $V$ is the value $q/100$ of the way from the minimum to the maximum in a sorted copy of $V$. The values and distances of the two nearest neighbors as well as the $interpolation$ parameter will determine the percentile if the normalized ranking does not match the location of $q$ exactly. This function is the same as the median if $q=50$, the same as the minimum if $q=0$ and the same as the maximum if $q=100$.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[10, 7, 4], [3, 2, 1]])
>>> a
array([[10, 7, 4],
       [ 3, 2, 1]])
>>> np.percentile(a, 50)
3.5
>>> np.percentile(a, 50, axis=0)
array([6.5, 4.5, 2.5])
>>> np.percentile(a, 50, axis=1)
array([7. , 2. ])
>>> np.percentile(a, 50, axis=1, keepdims=True)
array([[7.],
       [2.]])
```

```python
>>> m = np.percentile(a, 50, axis=0)
>>> out = np.zeros_like(m)
>>> np.percentile(a, 50, axis=0, out=out)
array([6.5, 4.5, 2.5])
>>> m
array([6.5, 4.5, 2.5])
```

```python
>>> b = a.copy()
>>> np.percentile(b, 50, axis=1, overwrite_input=True)
array([7. , 2. ])
>>> assert not np.all(a == b)
```

The different types of interpolation can be visualized graphically:

```python
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

a = np.arange(4)
p = np.linspace(0, 100, 6001)
ax = plt.gca()
lines = [
    ('linear', None),
    ('higher', '--'),
    ('lower', '--'),
    ('nearest', '-.'),
    ('midpoint', '-.'),
]
for interpolation, style in lines:
    ax.plot(
        p, np.percentile(a, p, interpolation=interpolation),
        label=interpolation, linestyle=style)
ax.set(
```

(continues on next page)
Interpolation methods for list: [0 1 2 3]

```
ax.legend()
plt.show()
```

\[0 20 40 60 80 100\]
\[0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3\]

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] Input array or object that can be converted to an array, containing nan values to be ignored.

- **q**
  - [array_like of float] Percentile or sequence of percentiles to compute, which must be between 0 and 100 inclusive.

- **axis**
  - [[int, tuple of int, None], optional] Axis or axes along which the percentiles are computed. The default is to compute the percentile(s) along a flattened version of the array.

- **out**
  - [ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output, but the type (of the output) will be cast if necessary.

- **overwrite_input**

**numpy.nanpercentile** \((a, q, axis=None, out=None, overwrite_input=False, interpolation='linear', keepdims=<no value>)\)

Compute the qth percentile of the data along the specified axis, while ignoring nan values.

Returns the qth percentile(s) of the array elements.

New in version 1.9.0.
[bool, optional] If True, then allow the input array \( a \) to be modified by intermediate calculations, to save memory. In this case, the contents of the input \( a \) after this function completes is undefined.

**interpolation**

[{'linear', 'lower', 'higher', 'midpoint', 'nearest'}] This optional parameter specifies the interpolation method to use when the desired percentile lies between two data points \( i < j \):

- 'linear': \( i + (j - i) \times \text{fraction} \), where \( \text{fraction} \) is the fractional part of the index surrounded by \( i \) and \( j \).
- 'lower': \( i \).
- 'higher': \( j \).
- 'nearest': \( i \) or \( j \), whichever is nearest.
- 'midpoint': \( (i + j) / 2 \).

**keepdims**

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original array \( a \).

If this is anything but the default value it will be passed through (in the special case of an empty array) to the `mean` function of the underlying array. If the array is a sub-class and `mean` does not have the kwarg `keepdims` this will raise a `RuntimeError`.

**Returns**

**percentile**

[scalar or ndarray] If \( q \) is a single percentile and \( \text{axis}=\text{None} \), then the result is a scalar. If multiple percentiles are given, first axis of the result corresponds to the percentiles. The other axes are the axes that remain after the reduction of \( a \). If the input contains integers or floats smaller than `float64`, the output data-type is `float64`. Otherwise, the output data-type is the same as that of the input. If `out` is specified, that array is returned instead.

**See also:**

`nanmean`

`nanmedian`

equivalent to `nanpercentile(..., 50)`

`percentile, median, mean`

`nanquantile`

equivalent to `nanpercentile`, but with \( q \) in the range \([0, 1]\).
Notes

Given a vector \( V \) of length \( N \), the \( q \)-th percentile of \( V \) is the value \( q/100 \) of the way from the minimum to the maximum in a sorted copy of \( V \). The values and distances of the two nearest neighbors as well as the interpolation parameter will determine the percentile if the normalized ranking does not match the location of \( q \) exactly. This function is the same as the median if \( q=50 \), the same as the minimum if \( q=0 \) and the same as the maximum if \( q=100 \).

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[10., 7., 4.], [3., 2., 1.]])
>>> a[0][1] = np.nan
>>> a
array([[ 10.,   nan,   4.],
        [  3.,   2.,   1.]])
>>> np.percentile(a, 50)
nan
>>> np.nanpercentile(a, 50)
3.0
>>> np.nanpercentile(a, 50, axis=0)
array([6.5, 2. , 2.5])
>>> np.nanpercentile(a, 50, axis=1, keepdims=True)
array([[7.],
        [2.]])
>>> m = np.nanpercentile(a, 50, axis=0)
>>> out = np.zeros_like(m)
>>> np.nanpercentile(a, 50, axis=0, out=out)
array([6.5, 2. , 2.5])
>>> m
array([6.5, 2. , 2.5])
```

```python
>>> b = a.copy()
>>> np.nanpercentile(b, 50, axis=1, overwrite_input=True)
array([7. , 2. ])
>>> assert not np.all(a==b)
```

`numpy.quantile` function

```python
Compute the q-th quantile of the data along the specified axis.

New in version 1.15.0.
```
[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output, but the type (of the output) will be cast if necessary.

**overwrite_input**

[bool, optional] If True, then allow the input array \( a \) to be modified by intermediate calculations, to save memory. In this case, the contents of the input \( a \) after this function completes is undefined.

**interpolation**

[‘linear’, ‘lower’, ‘higher’, ‘midpoint’, ‘nearest’] This optional parameter specifies the interpolation method to use when the desired quantile lies between two data points \( i < j \):

- linear: \( i + (j - i) \times \text{fraction} \), where \( \text{fraction} \) is the fractional part of the index surrounded by \( i \) and \( j \).
- lower: \( i \).
- higher: \( j \).
- nearest: \( i \) or \( j \), whichever is nearest.
- midpoint: \( (i + j) / 2 \).

**keepdims**

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original array \( a \).

**Returns**

**quantile**

[scalar or ndarray] If \( q \) is a single quantile and \( \text{axis=None} \), then the result is a scalar. If multiple quantiles are given, first axis of the result corresponds to the quantiles. The other axes are the axes that remain after the reduction of \( a \). If the input contains integers or floats smaller than float64, the output data-type is float64. Otherwise, the output data-type is the same as that of the input. If \( \text{out} \) is specified, that array is returned instead.

**See also:**

*mean*

*percentile*

  equivalent to quantile, but with \( q \) in the range \([0, 100] \).

*median*

  equivalent to quantile(..., 0.5)

*nanquantile*
Notes

Given a vector $V$ of length $N$, the $q$-th quantile of $V$ is the value $q$ of the way from the minimum to the maximum in a sorted copy of $V$. The values and distances of the two nearest neighbors as well as the interpolation parameter will determine the quantile if the normalized ranking does not match the location of $q$ exactly. This function is the same as the median if $q=0.5$, the same as the minimum if $q=0.0$ and the same as the maximum if $q=1.0$.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[10, 7, 4], [3, 2, 1]])
>>> a
array([[10, 7, 4],
       [3, 2, 1]])
>>> np.quantile(a, 0.5)
3.5
>>> np.quantile(a, 0.5, axis=0)
array([6.5, 4.5, 2.5])
>>> np.quantile(a, 0.5, axis=1)
array([7., 2.])
>>> np.quantile(a, 0.5, axis=1, keepdims=True)
array([[7.],
       [2.]])
>>> m = np.quantile(a, 0.5, axis=0)
>>> out = np.zeros_like(m)
>>> np.quantile(a, 0.5, axis=0, out=out)
array([6.5, 4.5, 2.5])
>>> m
array([6.5, 4.5, 2.5])
>>> b = a.copy()
>>> np.quantile(b, 0.5, axis=1, overwrite_input=True)
array([7., 2.])
>>> assert not np.all(a == b)
```

**numpy.nanquantile** ($a, q, axis=None, out=None, overwrite_input=False, interpolation='linear', keepdims=<no value>)

Compute the $q$th quantile of the data along the specified axis, while ignoring nan values. Returns the $q$th quantile(s) of the array elements.

New in version 1.15.0.

**Parameters**

- **a**
  - [array_like] Input array or object that can be converted to an array, containing nan values to be ignored

- **q**
  - [array_like of float] Quantile or sequence of quantiles to compute, which must be between 0 and 1 inclusive.

- **axis**
  - [[int, tuple of int, None], optional] Axis or axes along which the quantiles are computed. The default is to compute the quantile(s) along a flattened version of the array.

- **out**
[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output, but the type (of the output) will be cast if necessary.

overwrite_input

[bool, optional] If True, then allow the input array a to be modified by intermediate calculations, to save memory. In this case, the contents of the input a after this function completes is undefined.

interpolation

[{'linear', 'lower', 'higher', 'midpoint', 'nearest'}] This optional parameter specifies the interpolation method to use when the desired quantile lies between two data points i < j:

- linear: \( i + (j - i) \times \text{fraction} \), where fraction is the fractional part of the index surrounded by i and j.
- lower: i.
- higher: j.
- nearest: i or j, whichever is nearest.
- midpoint: \( (i + j) / 2 \).

keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original array a.

If this is anything but the default value it will be passed through (in the special case of an empty array) to the mean function of the underlying array. If the array is a sub-class and mean does not have the kwarg keepdims this will raise a RuntimeError.

Returns

quantile

[scalar or ndarray] If q is a single percentile and axis=None, then the result is a scalar. If multiple percentiles are given, first axis of the result corresponds to the percentiles. The other axes are the axes that remain after the reduction of a. If the input contains integers or floats smaller than float64, the output data-type is float64. Otherwise, the output data-type is the same as that of the input. If out is specified, that array is returned instead.

See also:

quantile
nanmean, nanmedian
nanmedian
equivalent to nanquantile(..., 0.5)
nanpercentile
same as nanquantile, but with q in the range [0, 100].
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[10., 7., 4.], [3., 2., 1.]])
>>> a[0][1] = np.nan
>>> a
array([[ 10.,  nan, 4.],
       [ 3., 2., 1.]]
>>> np.quantile(a, 0.5)
nan
>>> np.nanquantile(a, 0.5)
3.0
>>> np.nanquantile(a, 0.5, axis=0)
array([6.5, 2. , 2.5])
>>> np.nanquantile(a, 0.5, axis=1, keepdims=True)
array([[7.],
       [2.]]
>>> m = np.nanquantile(a, 0.5, axis=0)
>>> out = np.zeros_like(m)
>>> np.nanquantile(a, 0.5, axis=0, out=out)
array([6.5, 2. , 2.5])
>>> m
array([6.5, 2. , 2.5])
>>> b = a.copy()
>>> np.nanquantile(b, 0.5, axis=1, overwrite_input=True)
array([[7.],
       [2.]])
>>> assert not np.all(a==b)
```

## 4.26.2 Averages and variances

<table>
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<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td><code>median(a[, axis, out, overwrite_input, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Compute the median along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>average(a[, axis, weights, returned])</code></td>
<td>Compute the weighted average along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>mean(a[, axis, dtype, out, keepdims, where])</code></td>
<td>Compute the arithmetic mean along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
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<td><code>std(a[, axis, dtype, out, ddof, keepdims, where])</code></td>
<td>Compute the standard deviation along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>var(a[, axis, dtype, out, ddof, keepdims, where])</code></td>
<td>Compute the variance along the specified axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nanmedian(a[, axis, out, overwrite_input, ...])</code></td>
<td>Compute the median along the specified axis, while ignoring NaNs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nanmean(a[, axis, dtype, out, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Compute the arithmetic mean along the specified axis, ignoring NaNs.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>nanstd(a[, axis, dtype, out, ddof, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Compute the standard deviation along the specified axis, while ignoring NaNs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nanvar(a[, axis, dtype, out, ddof, keepdims])</code></td>
<td>Compute the variance along the specified axis, while ignoring NaNs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
numpy.median (a, axis=None, out=None, overwrite_input=False, keepdims=False)
```

Compute the median along the specified axis.

Returns the median of the array elements.

**Parameters**

- `a` : [array_like] Input array or object that can be converted to an array.
- `axis` : [None or int or tuple of ints] Axis or axes along which the median is computed. The default is to compute the median of the flattened array. If this is a tuple of ints, a variance is performed over all of the values returned by the indexing tuple. If `None` (the default), compute the median of the flattened array.

---

### Notes

- The median is not a linear function.
- NaN values are masked as missing data in computations.
- If `axis=None`, the input array is flattened before computation.
- The function supports multi-dimensional arrays. The output will be a array of lower dimensionality.
- The `keepdims` parameter allows the output to have the same number of dimensions as the input array.

---

### Examples

Example usage of `numpy.median`:

```python
import numpy as np

# Example array
arr = np.array([10, 7, 4, 3, 2, 1])

# Compute the median
median = np.median(arr)
print(median)
```

Output:

```
6.5
```
[[int, sequence of int, None], optional] Axis or axes along which the medians are computed. The default is to compute the median along a flattened version of the array. A sequence of axes is supported since version 1.9.0.

out

[ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output, but the type (of the output) will be cast if necessary.

overwrite_input

[bool, optional] If True, then allow use of memory of input array a for calculations. The input array will be modified by the call to median. This will save memory when you do not need to preserve the contents of the input array. Treat the input as undefined, but it will probably be fully or partially sorted. Default is False. If overwrite_input is True and a is not already an ndarray, an error will be raised.

keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original arr.

New in version 1.9.0.

Returns

median

[ndarray] A new array holding the result. If the input contains integers or floats smaller than float64, then the output data-type is np.float64. Otherwise, the data-type of the output is the same as that of the input. If out is specified, that array is returned instead.

See also:

mean, percentile

Notes

Given a vector V of length N, the median of V is the middle value of a sorted copy of V, V_sorted - i.e., V_sorted[(N−1)/2], when N is odd, and the average of the two middle values of V_sorted when N is even.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[10, 7, 4], [3, 2, 1]])
>>> a
array([[10,  7,  4],
       [ 3,  2,  1]])
>>> np.median(a)
3.5
>>> np.median(a, axis=0)
array([6.5, 4.5, 2.5])
>>> np.median(a, axis=1)
array([7.,  2.])
```
```python
>>> m = np.median(a, axis=0)
>>> out = np.zeros_like(m)
>>> np.median(a, axis=0, out=m)
array([6.5, 4.5, 2.5])
>>> m
array([6.5, 4.5, 2.5])
>>> b = a.copy()
>>> np.median(b, axis=1, overwrite_input=True)
array([7., 2.])
>>> assert not np.all(a==b)
>>> b = a.copy()
>>> np.median(b, axis=None, overwrite_input=True)
3.5
>>> assert not np.all(a==b)
```

**numpy.average** *(a, axis=None, weights=None, returned=False)*

Compute the weighted average along the specified axis.

**Parameters**

- `a`  
  [array_like] Array containing data to be averaged. If `a` is not an array, a conversion is attempted.

- `axis`  
  [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which to average `a`. The default, `axis=None`, will average over all of the elements of the input array. If `axis` is negative it counts from the last to the first axis. New in version 1.7.0.

  If `axis` is a tuple of ints, averaging is performed on all of the axes specified in the tuple instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

- `weights`  
  [array_like, optional] An array of weights associated with the values in `a`. Each value in `a` contributes to the average according to its associated weight. The weights array can either be 1-D (in which case its length must be the size of `a` along the given axis) or of the same shape as `a`. If `weights=None`, then all data in `a` are assumed to have a weight equal to one. The 1-D calculation is:

  \[
  \text{avg} = \frac{\text{sum}(a * \text{weights})}{\text{sum}(\text{weights})}
  \]

  The only constraint on `weights` is that `sum(weights)` must not be 0.

- `returned`  
  [bool, optional] Default is False. If `True`, the tuple (`average`, `sum_of_weights`) is returned, otherwise only the average is returned. If `weights=None`, `sum_of_weights` is equivalent to the number of elements over which the average is taken.

**Returns**

- `retval, [sum_of_weights]`  
  [array_type or double] Return the average along the specified axis. When `returned` is True, return a tuple with the average as the first element and the sum of the weights as the second

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element. `sum_of_weights` is of the same type as `retval`. The result dtype follows a general pattern. If `weights` is None, the result dtype will be that of `a`, or `float64` if `a` is integral. Otherwise, if `weights` is not None and `a` is non-integral, the result type will be the type of lowest precision capable of representing values of both `a` and `weights`. If `a` happens to be integral, the previous rules still applies but the result dtype will at least be `float64`.

**Raises**

**ZeroDivisionError**

When all weights along axis are zero. See `numpy.ma.average` for a version robust to this type of error.

**TypeError**

When the length of 1D `weights` is not the same as the shape of `a` along axis.

**See also:**

`mean`

`ma.average`

average for masked arrays – useful if your data contains “missing” values

`numpy.result_type`

Returns the type that results from applying the numpy type promotion rules to the arguments.

**Examples**

```python
>>> data = np.arange(1, 5)
>>> data
array([1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> np.average(data)
2.5
>>> np.average(np.arange(1, 11), weights=np.arange(10, 0, -1))
4.0

>>> data = np.arange(6).reshape((3,2))
>>> data
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3],
       [4, 5]])
>>> np.average(data, axis=1, weights=[1./4, 3./4])
array([0.75, 2.75, 4.75])
>>> np.average(data, weights=[1./4, 3./4])
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
TypeError: Axis must be specified when shapes of a and weights differ.

>>> a = np.ones(5, dtype=np.float128)
>>> w = np.ones(5, dtype=np.complex64)
>>> avg = np.average(a, weights=w)
>>> print(avg.dtype)
complex256```

4.26. Statistics
numpy.mean (a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>, *, where=<no value>)

Compute the arithmetic mean along the specified axis.

Returns the average of the array elements. The average is taken over the flattened array by default, otherwise over the specified axis. float64 intermediate and return values are used for integer inputs.

Parameters

- **a**
  [array_like] Array containing numbers whose mean is desired. If a is not an array, a conversion is attempted.

- **axis**
  [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which the means are computed. The default is to compute the mean of the flattened array.

  New in version 1.7.0.

  If this is a tuple of ints, a mean is performed over multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.

- **dtype**
  [data-type, optional] Type to use in computing the mean. For integer inputs, the default is float64; for floating point inputs, it is the same as the input dtype.

- **out**
  [ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. The default is None; if provided, it must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type will be cast if necessary. See Output type determination for more details.

- **keepdims**
  [bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

  If the default value is passed, then keepdims will not be passed through to the mean method of sub-classes of ndarray, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class’ method does not implement keepdims any exceptions will be raised.

- **where**
  [array_like of bool, optional] Elements to include in the mean. See reduce for details.

  New in version 1.20.0.

Returns

- **m**
  [ndarray, see dtype parameter above] If out=None, returns a new array containing the mean values, otherwise a reference to the output array is returned.

See also:

- **average**

  Weighted average

- **std, var, nanmean, nanstd, nanvar**
Notes

The arithmetic mean is the sum of the elements along the axis divided by the number of elements.

Note that for floating-point input, the mean is computed using the same precision the input has. Depending on the input data, this can cause the results to be inaccurate, especially for float32 (see example below). Specifying a higher-precision accumulator using the dtype keyword can alleviate this issue.

By default, float16 results are computed using float32 intermediates for extra precision.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> np.mean(a)
2.5
>>> np.mean(a, axis=0)
array([2., 3.])
>>> np.mean(a, axis=1)
array([1.5, 3.5])
```

In single precision, mean can be inaccurate:

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((2, 512*512), dtype=np.float32)
>>> a[0, :] = 1.0
>>> a[1, :] = 0.1
>>> np.mean(a)
0.54999924
```

Computing the mean in float64 is more accurate:

```python
>>> np.mean(a, dtype=np.float64)
0.55000000074505806 # may vary
```

Specifying a where argument:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[5, 9, 13], [14, 10, 12], [11, 15, 19]])
>>> np.mean(a)
12.0
>>> np.mean(a, where=[[True], [False], [False]])
9.0
```

numpy.std(a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=<no value>, *, where=<no value>)

Compute the standard deviation along the specified axis.

Returns the standard deviation, a measure of the spread of a distribution, of the array elements. The standard deviation is computed for the flattened array by default, otherwise over the specified axis.

Parameters

a

[array_like] Calculate the standard deviation of these values.

axis

[None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which the standard deviation is computed. The default is to compute the standard deviation of the flattened array.

New in version 1.7.0.

If this is a tuple of ints, a standard deviation is performed over multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.
**dtype**

[**dtype, optional**] Type to use in computing the standard deviation. For arrays of integer type the default is float64, for arrays of float types it is the same as the array type.

**out**

[**ndarray, optional**] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output but the type (of the calculated values) will be cast if necessary.

**ddof**

[**int, optional**] Means Delta Degrees of Freedom. The divisor used in calculations is \( N - \text{ddof} \), where \( N \) represents the number of elements. By default \( \text{ddof} \) is zero.

**keepdims**

[**bool, optional**] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

If the default value is passed, then keepdims will not be passed through to the \( \text{std} \) method of sub-classes of \( \text{ndarray} \), however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class' method does not implement keepdims any exceptions will be raised.

**where**

[**array_like of bool, optional**] Elements to include in the standard deviation. See reduce for details.

New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

**standard_deviation**

[**ndarray, see dtype parameter above.**] If out is None, return a new array containing the standard deviation, otherwise return a reference to the output array.

**See also:**

\( \text{var}, \text{mean}, \text{nanmean}, \text{nanstd}, \text{nanvar} \)

**Output type determination**

**Notes**

The standard deviation is the square root of the average of the squared deviations from the mean, i.e., \( \text{std} = \sqrt{\text{mean}(x)} \), where \( x = \text{abs}(a - a.\text{mean()})^2 \).

The average squared deviation is typically calculated as \( x.\text{sum()} / N \), where \( N = \text{len}(x) \). If, however, \( ddof \) is specified, the divisor \( N - \text{ddof} \) is used instead. In standard statistical practice, \( ddof=1 \) provides an unbiased estimator of the variance of the infinite population. \( ddof=0 \) provides a maximum likelihood estimate of the variance for normally distributed variables. The standard deviation computed in this function is the square root of the estimated variance, so even with \( ddof=1 \), it will not be an unbiased estimate of the standard deviation per se.

Note that, for complex numbers, \( \text{std} \) takes the absolute value before squaring, so that the result is always real and nonnegative.
For floating-point input, the \texttt{std} is computed using the same precision the input has. Depending on the input data, this can cause the results to be inaccurate, especially for float32 (see example below). Specifying a higher-accuracy accumulator using the \texttt{dtype} keyword can alleviate this issue.

\textbf{Examples}

\begin{verbatim}
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> np.std(a)
1.1180339887498949 # may vary
>>> np.std(a, axis=0)
array([1., 1.])
>>> np.std(a, axis=1)
array([0.5, 0.5])
\end{verbatim}

In single precision, \texttt{std()} can be inaccurate:

\begin{verbatim}
>>> a = np.zeros((2, 512*512), dtype=np.float32)
>>> a[0, :] = 1.0
>>> a[1, :] = 0.1
>>> np.std(a)
0.45000005
\end{verbatim}

Computing the standard deviation in float64 is more accurate:

\begin{verbatim}
>>> np.std(a, dtype=np.float64)
0.44999999925494177 # may vary
\end{verbatim}

Specifying a \texttt{where} argument:

\begin{verbatim}
>>> a = np.array([[14, 8, 11, 10], [7, 9, 10, 11], [10, 15, 5, 10]])
>>> np.std(a)
2.614064523559687 # may vary
>>> np.std(a, where=[[True], [True], [False]])
2.0
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{numpy.var (a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=False, *, where=False)}

Compute the variance along the specified axis.

Returns the variance of the array elements, a measure of the spread of a distribution. The variance is computed for the flattened array by default, otherwise over the specified axis.

\textbf{Parameters}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \texttt{a} [array_like] Array containing numbers whose variance is desired. If \texttt{a} is not an array, a conversion is attempted.
  \item \texttt{axis} [None or int or tuple of ints, optional] Axis or axes along which the variance is computed. The default is to compute the variance of the flattened array.
\end{itemize}

New in version 1.7.0.

If this is a tuple of ints, a variance is performed over multiple axes, instead of a single axis or all the axes as before.
**dtype**

[data-type, optional] Type to use in computing the variance. For arrays of integer type the default is `float64`; for arrays of float types it is the same as the array type.

**out**

[ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type is cast if necessary.

**ddof**

[int, optional] “Delta Degrees of Freedom”: the divisor used in the calculation is \( N - \text{ddof} \), where \( N \) represents the number of elements. By default \( \text{ddof} \) is zero.

**keepdims**

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the input array.

If the default value is passed, then `keepdims` will not be passed through to the `var` method of sub-classes of `ndarray`, however any non-default value will be. If the sub-class’ method does not implement `keepdims` any exceptions will be raised.

**where**

[array_like of bool, optional] Elements to include in the variance. See `reduce` for details.

New in version 1.20.0.

**Returns**

**variance**

[ndarray, see dtype parameter above] If `out=None`, returns a new array containing the variance; otherwise, a reference to the output array is returned.

**See also:**

`std`, `mean`, `nanmean`, `nanstd`, `nanvar`

**Output type determination**

**Notes**

The variance is the average of the squared deviations from the mean, i.e., \( \text{var} = \text{mean}(x) \), where \( x = \text{abs}(a - a.\text{mean}())**2 \).

The mean is typically calculated as \( x.\text{sum()} / N \), where \( N = \text{len}(x) \). If, however, \( \text{ddof} \) is specified, the divisor \( N - \text{ddof} \) is used instead. In standard statistical practice, \( \text{ddof}=1 \) provides an unbiased estimator of the variance of a hypothetical infinite population. \( \text{ddof}=0 \) provides a maximum likelihood estimate of the variance for normally distributed variables.

Note that for complex numbers, the absolute value is taken before squaring, so that the result is always real and nonnegative.

For floating-point input, the variance is computed using the same precision the input has. Depending on the input data, this can cause the results to be inaccurate, especially for `float32` (see example below). Specifying a higher-accuracy accumulator using the `dtype` keyword can alleviate this issue.
Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
>>> np.var(a)
1.25
>>> np.var(a, axis=0)
array([1., 1.])
>>> np.var(a, axis=1)
array([0.25, 0.25])
```

In single precision, `var()` can be inaccurate:

```python
>>> a = np.zeros((2, 512*512), dtype=np.float32)
>>> a[0, :] = 1.0
>>> a[1, :] = 0.1
>>> np.var(a)
0.20250003
```

Computing the variance in float64 is more accurate:

```python
>>> np.var(a, dtype=np.float64)
0.20249999932944759 # may vary
```

Specifying a `where` argument:

```python
>>> a = np.array([[14, 8, 11, 10], [7, 9, 10, 11], [10, 15, 5, 10]])
>>> np.var(a)
6.833333333333333 # may vary
>>> np.var(a, where=[[True], [True], [False]])
4.0
```

`numpy.nanmedian(a, axis=None, out=None, overwrite_input=False, keepdims=<no value>)`

Compute the median along the specified axis, while ignoring NaNs.

Returns the median of the array elements.

New in version 1.9.0.

Parameters

- `a`
  - [array_like] Input array or object that can be converted to an array.

- `axis`
  - [[int, sequence of int, None], optional] Axis or axes along which the medians are computed. The default is to compute the median along a flattened version of the array. A sequence of axes is supported since version 1.9.0.

- `out`
  - [ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape and buffer length as the expected output, but the type (of the output) will be cast if necessary.

- `overwrite_input`
[bool, optional] If True, then allow use of memory of input array \( a \) for calculations. The input array will be modified by the call to `median`. This will save memory when you do not need to preserve the contents of the input array. Treat the input as undefined, but it will probably be fully or partially sorted. Default is False. If `overwrite_input` is True and \( a \) is not already an `ndarray`, an error will be raised.

**keepdims**

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original \( a \).

If this is anything but the default value it will be passed through (in the special case of an empty array) to the `mean` function of the underlying array. If the array is a sub-class and `mean` does not have the kwarg `keepdims` this will raise a `RuntimeError`.

**Returns**

**median**

[ndarray] A new array holding the result. If the input contains integers or floats smaller than `float64`, then the output data-type is `np.float64`. Otherwise, the data-type of the output is the same as that of the input. If `out` is specified, that array is returned instead.

**See also:**

`mean`, `median`, `percentile`

**Notes**

Given a vector \( V \) of length \( N \), the median of \( V \) is the middle value of a sorted copy of \( V \), \( V_{\text{sorted}} \) - i.e., \( V_{\text{sorted}}[\lfloor(N-1)/2\rfloor] \), when \( N \) is odd and the average of the two middle values of \( V_{\text{sorted}} \) when \( N \) is even.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([[10.0, 7, 4], [3, 2, 1]])
>>> a[0, 1] = np.nan
>>> a
array([[ 10., nan,  4.],
       [  3.,  2.,  1.]])
>>> np.median(a)
nan
>>> np.nanmedian(a)
3.0
>>> np.nanmedian(a, axis=0)
array([6.5, 2. , 2.5])
>>> np.median(a, axis=1)
array([nan, 2.1])
>>> b = a.copy()
>>> np.nanmedian(b, axis=1, overwrite_input=True)
array([7. , 2.1])
>>> assert not np.all(a==b)
>>> b = a.copy()
>>> np.nanmedian(b, axis=None, overwrite_input=True)
```

(continues on next page)
3.0

```python
>>> assert not np.all(a==b)
```

numpy.nanmean(a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, keepdims=<no value>)

Compute the arithmetic mean along the specified axis, ignoring NaNs.

The average is taken over the flattened array by default, otherwise over the specified axis. `float64` intermediate and return values are used for integer inputs.

For all-NaN slices, NaN is returned and a `RuntimeWarning` is raised.

New in version 1.8.0.

Parameters

- **a**
  - [array_like] Array containing numbers whose mean is desired. If `a` is not an array, a conversion is attempted.

- **axis**
  - [{int, tuple of int, None}, optional] Axis or axes along which the means are computed. The default is to compute the mean of the flattened array.

- **dtype**
  - [data-type, optional] Type to use in computing the mean. For integer inputs, the default is `float64`; for inexact inputs, it is the same as the input dtype.

- **out**
  - [ndarray, optional] Alternate output array in which to place the result. The default is `None`; if provided, it must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type will be cast if necessary. See Output type determination for more details.

- **keepdims**
  - [bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original `a`.

If the value is anything but the default, then `keepdims` will be passed through to the `mean` or `sum` methods of sub-classes of `ndarray`. If the sub-classes methods does not implement `keepdims` any exceptions will be raised.

Returns

- **m**
  - [ndarray, see dtype parameter above] If `out=None`, returns a new array containing the mean values, otherwise a reference to the output array is returned. Nan is returned for slices that contain only NaNs.

See also:

- `average`
  - Weighted average

4.26. Statistics
**mean**

Arithmetic mean taken while not ignoring NaNs

**var, nanvar**

**Notes**

The arithmetic mean is the sum of the non-NaN elements along the axis divided by the number of non-NaN elements.

Note that for floating-point input, the mean is computed using the same precision the input has. Depending on the input data, this can cause the results to be inaccurate, especially for `float32`. Specifying a higher-precision accumulator using the `dtype` keyword can alleviate this issue.

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, np.nan], [3, 4]])
>>> np.nanmean(a)
2.6666666666666665
>>> np.nanmean(a, axis=0)
array([2., 4.])
>>> np.nanmean(a, axis=1)
array([1., 3.5]) # may vary
```

`numpy.nanstd(a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=<no value>)`

Compute the standard deviation along the specified axis, while ignoring NaNs.

Returns the standard deviation, a measure of the spread of a distribution, of the non-NaN array elements. The standard deviation is computed for the flattened array by default, otherwise over the specified axis.

For all-NaN slices or slices with zero degrees of freedom, NaN is returned and a `RuntimeWarning` is raised.

New in version 1.8.0.

**Parameters**

- `a`
  [array_like] Calculate the standard deviation of the non-NaN values.

- `axis`
  [[int, tuple of int, None], optional] Axis or axes along which the standard deviation is computed. The default is to compute the standard deviation of the flattened array.

- `dtype`
  [dtype, optional] Type to use in computing the standard deviation. For arrays of integer type the default is `float64`, for arrays of float types it is the same as the array type.

- `out`
  [ndarray, optional] Alternative output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output but the type (of the calculated values) will be cast if necessary.

- `ddof`
  [int, optional] Means Delta Degrees of Freedom. The divisor used in calculations is \( N - ddof \), where \( N \) represents the number of non-NaN elements. By default `ddof` is zero.
keepdims

[bool, optional] If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original a.

If this value is anything but the default it is passed through as-is to the relevant functions of the sub-classes. If these functions do not have a keepdims kwarg, a RuntimeError will be raised.

Returns

standard_deviation

[ndarray, see dtype parameter above.] If out is None, return a new array containing the standard deviation, otherwise return a reference to the output array. If ddof is >= the number of non-NaN elements in a slice or the slice contains only NaNs, then the result for that slice is NaN.

See also:

var, mean, std

nanvar, nanmean

Output type determination

Notes

The standard deviation is the square root of the average of the squared deviations from the mean: \( \text{std} = \sqrt{\text{mean}(\text{abs}(x - \text{mean}(x))^2)} \).

The average squared deviation is normally calculated as \( x.\text{sum()} / N \), where \( N = \text{len}(x) \). If, however, ddof is specified, the divisor \( N - \text{ddof} \) is used instead. In standard statistical practice, ddof=1 provides an unbiased estimator of the variance of the infinite population. ddof=0 provides a maximum likelihood estimate of the variance for normally distributed variables. The standard deviation computed in this function is the square root of the estimated variance, so even with ddof=1, it will not be an unbiased estimate of the standard deviation per se.

Note that, for complex numbers, std takes the absolute value before squaring, so that the result is always real and nonnegative.

For floating-point input, the std is computed using the same precision the input has. Depending on the input data, this can cause the results to be inaccurate, especially for float32 (see example below). Specifying a higher-accuracy accumulator using the dtype keyword can alleviate this issue.

Examples

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, np.nan], [3, 4]])
>>> np.nanstd(a)
1.247219128924647
>>> np.nanstd(a, axis=0)
array([1., 0.])
>>> np.nanstd(a, axis=1)
array([0., 0.5])  # may vary
```
numpy.nanvar(a, axis=None, dtype=None, out=None, ddof=0, keepdims=<no value>)

Compute the variance along the specified axis, while ignoring NaNs.

Returns the variance of the array elements, a measure of the spread of a distribution. The variance is computed for the flattened array by default, otherwise over the specified axis.

For all-NaN slices or slices with zero degrees of freedom, NaN is returned and a RuntimeWarning is raised.

New in version 1.8.0.

Parameters

- **a**: array_like
  - Array containing numbers whose variance is desired. If a is not an array, a conversion is attempted.

- **axis**: int, tuple of int, or None, optional
  - Axis or axes along which the variance is computed. The default is to compute the variance of the flattened array.

- **dtype**: data-type, optional
  - Type to use in computing the variance. For arrays of integer type the default is float64; for arrays of float types it is the same as the array type.

- **out**: ndarray, optional
  - Alternate output array in which to place the result. It must have the same shape as the expected output, but the type is cast if necessary.

- **ddof**: int, optional
  - “Delta Degrees of Freedom”: the divisor used in the calculation is \(N - ddof\), where \(N\) represents the number of non-NaN elements. By default ddof is zero.

- **keepdims**: bool, optional
  - If this is set to True, the axes which are reduced are left in the result as dimensions with size one. With this option, the result will broadcast correctly against the original a.

Returns

- **variance**: ndarray, see dtype parameter above
  - If out is None, return a new array containing the variance, otherwise return a reference to the output array. If ddof is \(>=\) the number of non-NaN elements in a slice or the slice contains only NaNs, then the result for that slice is NaN.

See also:

- **std**: Standard deviation
- **mean**: Average
- **var**: Variance while not ignoring NaNs
**nanstd, nanmean**

**Output type determination**

**Notes**

The variance is the average of the squared deviations from the mean, i.e., $\text{var} = \text{mean}(\text{abs}(x - x.\text{mean()}\text{)**2}).$

The mean is normally calculated as $x.\text{sum()} / N$, where $N = \text{len}(x)$. If, however, $ddof$ is specified, the divisor $N - ddof$ is used instead. In standard statistical practice, $ddof=1$ provides an unbiased estimator of the variance of a hypothetical infinite population. $ddof=0$ provides a maximum likelihood estimate of the variance for normally distributed variables.

Note that for complex numbers, the absolute value is taken before squaring, so that the result is always real and nonnegative.

For floating-point input, the variance is computed using the same precision the input has. Depending on the input data, this can cause the results to be inaccurate, especially for float32 (see example below). Specifying a higher-accuracy accumulator using the $\text{dtype}$ keyword can alleviate this issue.

For this function to work on sub-classes of ndarray, they must define $\text{sum}$ with the kwarg $\text{keepdims}$

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.array([[1, np.nan], [3, 4]])
>>> np.nanvar(a)
1.5555555555555554
>>> np.nanvar(a, axis=0)
aarray([1., 0.])
>>> np.nanvar(a, axis=1)
aarray([0., 0.25]) # may vary
```

### 4.26.3 Correlating

`numpy.corrcoef(x[, y, rowvar, bias, ddof, dtype])` Return Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients.

`numpy.correlate(a, v[, mode])` Cross-correlation of two 1-dimensional sequences.

`numpy.cov(m[, y, rowvar, bias, ddof, fweights,...])` Estimate a covariance matrix, given data and weights.

numpy.corrcoef(x, y=None, rowvar=True, bias=<no value>, ddof=<no value>, *, dtype=None)

Return Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients.

Please refer to the documentation for `cov` for more detail. The relationship between the correlation coefficient matrix, $R$, and the covariance matrix, $C$, is

$$R_{ij} = \frac{C_{ij}}{\sqrt{C_{ii} \cdot C_{jj}}}$$

The values of $R$ are between -1 and 1, inclusive.

**Parameters**

- $x$
**array_like** A 1-D or 2-D array containing multiple variables and observations. Each row of $x$ represents a variable, and each column a single observation of all those variables. Also see **rowvar** below.

**y**

[array_like, optional] An additional set of variables and observations. $y$ has the same shape as $x$.

**rowvar**

[bool, optional] If **rowvar** is True (default), then each row represents a variable, with observations in the columns. Otherwise, the relationship is transposed: each column represents a variable, while the rows contain observations.

**bias**

[_NoValue, optional] Has no effect, do not use.

Deprecated since version 1.10.0.

**ddof**

[_NoValue, optional] Has no effect, do not use.

Deprecated since version 1.10.0.

**dtype**

[data-type, optional] Data-type of the result. By default, the return data-type will have at least **numpy.float64** precision.

New in version 1.20.

**Returns**

**R**

[ndarray] The correlation coefficient matrix of the variables.

**See also:**

**cov**

Covariance matrix

**Notes**

Due to floating point rounding the resulting array may not be Hermitian, the diagonal elements may not be 1, and the elements may not satisfy the inequality abs(a) <= 1. The real and imaginary parts are clipped to the interval [-1, 1] in an attempt to improve on that situation but is not much help in the complex case.

This function accepts but discards arguments **bias** and **ddof**. This is for backwards compatibility with previous versions of this function. These arguments had no effect on the return values of the function and can be safely ignored in this and previous versions of numpy.
Examples

In this example we generate two random arrays, \texttt{xarr} and \texttt{yarr}, and compute the row-wise and column-wise Pearson correlation coefficients, \( R \). Since \texttt{rowvar} is true by default, we first find the row-wise Pearson correlation coefficients between the variables of \texttt{xarr}.

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> rng = np.random.default_rng(seed=42)
>>> xarr = rng.random((3, 3))
>>> xarr
array([[0.77395605, 0.43887844, 0.85859792],
       [0.69736803, 0.09417735, 0.97562235],
       [0.7611397 , 0.78606431, 0.12811363]])
>>> R1 = np.corrcoef(xarr)
>>> R1
array([[ 1.        , 0.99256089, -0.68080986],
       [ 0.99256089, 1.        , -0.76492172],
       [-0.68080986, -0.76492172, 1.        ]])
```

If we add another set of variables and observations \texttt{yarr}, we can compute the row-wise Pearson correlation coefficients between the variables in \texttt{xarr} and \texttt{yarr}.

```python
>>> yarr = rng.random((3, 3))
>>> yarr
array([[0.45038594, 0.37079802, 0.92676499],
       [0.64386512, 0.82276161, 0.4434142 ],
       [0.22723872, 0.55458479, 0.06381726]])
>>> R2 = np.corrcoef(xarr, yarr)
>>> R2
array([[ 1.        , 0.77598074, -0.47458546, -0.75078643, -0.9665554 ,
       0.22423734],
       [ 0.77598074, 1.        , -0.92346708, -0.99923895, -0.58826587,
       -0.44069024],
       [-0.47458546, -0.92346708, 1.        , 0.93773029, 0.23297648,
       0.75137473],
       [-0.75078643, -0.99923895, 0.93773029, 1.        , 0.55627469,
       0.47536961],
       [-0.9665554 , -0.58826587, 0.23297648, 0.55627469, 1.        ,
       -0.46666491],
       [ 1.        , ]])
```

Finally if we use the option \texttt{rowvar=False}, the columns are now being treated as the variables and we will find the column-wise Pearson correlation coefficients between variables in \texttt{xarr} and \texttt{yarr}.

```python
>>> R3 = np.corrcoef(xarr, yarr, rowvar=False)
>>> R3
array([[ 1.        , 0.77598074, -0.47458546, -0.75078643, -0.9665554 ,
       0.22423734],
       [ 0.77598074, 1.        , -0.92346708, -0.99923895, -0.58826587,
       -0.44069024],
       [-0.47458546, -0.92346708, 1.        , 0.93773029, 0.23297648,
       0.75137473],
       [-0.75078643, -0.99923895, 0.93773029, 1.        , 0.55627469,
       0.47536961],
       [-0.9665554 , -0.58826587, 0.23297648, 0.55627469, 1.        ,
       -0.46666491],
       [ 1.        , ]])
```
(continues on next page)
numpy.correlate(a, v, mode='valid')

Cross-correlation of two 1-dimensional sequences.

This function computes the correlation as generally defined in signal processing texts:

\[ c_{av}[k] = \sum_n a[n+k] \cdot \text{conj}(v[n]) \]

with a and v sequences being zero-padded where necessary and conj being the conjugate.

Parameters

- **a, v**: [array_like] Input sequences.
- **mode**: [{'valid', 'same', 'full'}, optional] Refer to the convolve docstring. Note that the default is 'valid', unlike convolve, which uses 'full'.
- **old_behavior**: [bool] old_behavior was removed in NumPy 1.10. If you need the old behavior, use multiarray.correlate.

Returns

- **out**: [ndarray] Discrete cross-correlation of a and v.

See also:

- **convolve**: Discrete, linear convolution of two one-dimensional sequences.
- **multiarray.correlate**: Old, no conjugate, version of correlate.
- **scipy.signal.correlate**: uses FFT which has superior performance on large arrays.

Notes

The definition of correlation above is not unique and sometimes correlation may be defined differently. Another common definition is:

\[ c'_{av}[k] = \sum_n a[n] \cdot \text{conj}(v[n+k]) \]

which is related to \( c_{av}[k] \) by \( c'_{av}[k] = c_{av}[-k] \).

numpy.correlate may perform slowly in large arrays (i.e. n = 1e5) because it does not use the FFT to compute the convolution; in that case, scipy.signal.correlate might be preferable.
Examples

```python
>>> np.correlate([1, 2, 3], [0, 1, 0.5])
array([3.5])
>>> np.correlate([1, 2, 3], [0, 1, 0.5], "same")
array([2. , 3.5, 3. ])
>>> np.correlate([1, 2, 3], [0, 1, 0.5], "full")
array([0.5, 2. , 3.5, 3. , 0. ])```

Using complex sequences:

```python
>>> np.correlate([1+1j, 2, 3-1j], [0, 1, 0.5j], 'full')
array([ 0.5-0.5j,  1.0+0.j ,  1.5-1.5j,  3.0-1.j ,  0.0+0.j ])```

Note that you get the time reversed, complex conjugated result when the two input sequences change places, i.e.,

\[ c_{va}[k] = c^{*}_{av}[-k] \]

```python
>>> np.correlate([0, 1, 0.5j], [1+1j, 2, 3-1j], 'full')
array([ 0.0+0.j ,  3.0+1.j ,  1.5+1.5j,  1.0+0.j ,  0.5+0.5j])```

`numpy.cov(m, y=None, rowvar=True, bias=False, ddof=None, fweights=None, aweights=None, *, dtype=None)`

Estimate a covariance matrix, given data and weights.

Covariance indicates the level to which two variables vary together. If we examine N-dimensional samples, \(X = [x_1, x_2, ... x_N]^T\), then the covariance matrix element \(C_{ij}\) is the covariance of \(x_i\) and \(x_j\). The element \(C_{ii}\) is the variance of \(x_i\).

See the notes for an outline of the algorithm.

**Parameters**

- **m**
  - [array_like] A 1-D or 2-D array containing multiple variables and observations. Each row of \(m\) represents a variable, and each column a single observation of all those variables. Also see `rowvar` below.

- **y**
  - [array_like, optional] An additional set of variables and observations. \(y\) has the same form as that of \(m\).

- **rowvar**
  - [bool, optional] If `rowvar` is True (default), then each row represents a variable, with observations in the columns. Otherwise, the relationship is transposed: each column represents a variable, while the rows contain observations.

- **bias**
  - [bool, optional] Default normalization (False) is by \((N - 1)\), where \(N\) is the number of observations given (unbiased estimate). If `bias` is True, then normalization is by \(N\). These values can be overridden by using the keyword `ddof` in numpy versions >= 1.5.

- **ddof**
  - [int, optional] If not `None` the default value implied by `bias` is overridden. Note that `ddof=1` will return the unbiased estimate, even if both `fweights` and `aweights` are specified, and `ddof=0` will return the simple average. See the notes for the details. The default value is `None`.

New in version 1.5.
fweights
[array_like, int, optional] 1-D array of integer frequency weights; the number of times each observation vector should be repeated.

New in version 1.10.

aweights
[array_like, optional] 1-D array of observation vector weights. These relative weights are typically large for observations considered “important” and smaller for observations considered less “important”. If ddof=0 the array of weights can be used to assign probabilities to observation vectors.

New in version 1.10.

dtype
[data-type, optional] Data-type of the result. By default, the return data-type will have at least numpy.float64 precision.

New in version 1.20.

Returns

out
[ndarray] The covariance matrix of the variables.

See also:

corrcoef

Normalized covariance matrix

Notes

Assume that the observations are in the columns of the observation array m and let f = fweights and a = aweights for brevity. The steps to compute the weighted covariance are as follows:

```python
>>> m = np.arange(10, dtype=np.float64)
>>> f = np.arange(10) * 2
>>> a = np.arange(10) ** 2.
>>> ddof = 1
>>> w = f * a
>>> v1 = np.sum(w)
>>> v2 = np.sum(w * a)
>>> m -= np.sum(m * w, axis=None, keepdims=True) / v1
>>> cov = np.dot(m * w, m.T) * v1 / (v1**2 - ddof * v2)
```

Note that when a == 1, the normalization factor v1 / (v1**2 - ddof * v2) goes over to 1 / (np.sum(f) - ddof) as it should.
Examples

Consider two variables, \(x_0\) and \(x_1\), which correlate perfectly, but in opposite directions:

```python
>>> x = np.array([[0, 2], [1, 1], [2, 0]]).T
>>> x
array([[0, 1, 2],
       [2, 1, 0]])
```

Note how \(x_0\) increases while \(x_1\) decreases. The covariance matrix shows this clearly:

```python
>>> np.cov(x)
array([[ 1., -1.],
       [-1., 1.]])
```

Note that element \(C_{0,1}\), which shows the correlation between \(x_0\) and \(x_1\), is negative.

Further, note how \(x\) and \(y\) are combined:

```python
>>> x = [-2.1, -1, 4.3]
>>> y = [3, 1.1, 0.12]
>>> X = np.stack((x, y), axis=0)
>>> np.cov(X)
array([[11.71 , -4.286 ],
       [-4.286 , 2.144133]])
>>> np.cov(x, y)
array([[11.71 , -4.286 ],
       [-4.286 , 2.144133]])
>>> np.cov(x)
array(11.71)
```

4.26.4 Histograms

```python
histogram(a[, bins, range, normed, weights, ...]) Compute the histogram of a dataset.
```

Parameters

- `a` [array_like] Input data. The histogram is computed over the flattened array.
- `bins` [int or sequence of scalars or str, optional] If `bins` is an int, it defines the number of equal-width

```python
numpy.histogram (a, bins=10, range=None, normed=None, weights=None, density=None) Compute the histogram of a dataset.
```

Parameters

- `a` [array_like] Input data. The histogram is computed over the flattened array.
bins in the given range (10, by default). If `bins` is a sequence, it defines a monotonically increasing array of bin edges, including the rightmost edge, allowing for non-uniform bin widths.

New in version 1.11.0.

If `bins` is a string, it defines the method used to calculate the optimal bin width, as defined by `histogram_bin_edges`.

**range**

[(float, float), optional] The lower and upper range of the bins. If not provided, range is simply `(a.min(), a.max())`. Values outside the range are ignored. The first element of the range must be less than or equal to the second. `range` affects the automatic bin computation as well. While bin width is computed to be optimal based on the actual data within `range`, the bin count will fill the entire range including portions containing no data.

**normed**

[bool, optional] Deprecated since version 1.6.0.

This is equivalent to the `density` argument, but produces incorrect results for unequal bin widths. It should not be used.

Changed in version 1.15.0: DeprecationWarnings are actually emitted.

**weights**

[array_like, optional] An array of weights, of the same shape as `a`. Each value in `a` only contributes its associated weight towards the bin count (instead of 1). If `density` is True, the weights are normalized, so that the integral of the density over the range remains 1.

**density**

[bool, optional] If False, the result will contain the number of samples in each bin. If True, the result is the value of the probability density function at the bin, normalized such that the integral over the range is 1. Note that the sum of the histogram values will not be equal to 1 unless bins of unity width are chosen; it is not a probability mass function.

Overrides the `normed` keyword if given.

**Returns**

- **hist**
  
  [array] The values of the histogram. See `density` and `weights` for a description of the possible semantics.

- **bin_edges**
  
  [array of dtype float] Return the bin edges `len(hist)+1`.

See also:

- `histogramdd`, `bincount`, `searchsorted`, `digitize`, `histogram_bin_edges`
Notes

All but the last (righthand-most) bin is half-open. In other words, if \texttt{bins} is:

\[
[1, 2, 3, 4]
\]

then the first bin is \([1, 2)\) (including 1, but excluding 2) and the second \([2, 3)\). The last bin, however, is \([3, 4]\), which includes 4.

Examples

```python
>>> np.histogram([1, 2, 1], bins=[0, 1, 2, 3])
(array([0, 2, 1]), array([0, 1, 2, 3]))

>>> np.histogram(np.arange(4), bins=np.arange(5), density=True)
(array([0.25, 0.25, 0.25, 0.25]), array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4]))

>>> np.histogram([[1, 2, 1], [1, 0, 1]], bins=[0,1,2,3])
(array([1, 4, 1]), array([0, 1, 2, 3]))
```

```python
>>> a = np.arange(5)
>>> hist, bin_edges = np.histogram(a, density=True)
>>> hist
array([0.5, 0.0, 0.5, 0.0, 0.5, 0.0, 0.5])
>>> hist.sum()
2.4999999999999996
```

New in version 1.11.0.

Automated Bin Selection Methods example, using 2 peak random data with 2000 points:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> rng = np.random.RandomState(10)  # deterministic random data
>>> a = np.hstack((rng.normal(size=1000),...
...               rng.normal(loc=5, scale=2, size=1000)))
>>> _ = plt.hist(a, bins='auto')  # arguments are passed to np.histogram
>>> plt.title("Histogram with 'auto' bins")
Text(0.5, 1.0, "Histogram with 'auto' bins")
>>> plt.show()
```

\texttt{numpy.histogram2d} (x, y, \texttt{bins=10}, \texttt{range=None}, \texttt{normed=None}, \texttt{weights=None}, \texttt{density=None})  
Compute the bi-dimensional histogram of two data samples.

Parameters

- \texttt{x}
  - [array_like, shape (N,)] An array containing the x coordinates of the points to be histogrammed.

- \texttt{y}
  - [array_like, shape (N,)] An array containing the y coordinates of the points to be histogrammed.

- \texttt{bins}
  - [int or array_like or [int, int] or [array, array], optional] The bin specification:
If int, the number of bins for the two dimensions (nx=ny=bins).

- If array_like, the bin edges for the two dimensions (x_edges=y_edges=bins).
- If [int, int], the number of bins in each dimension (nx, ny = bins).
- If [array, array], the bin edges in each dimension (x_edges, y_edges = bins).
- A combination [int, array] or [array, int], where int is the number of bins and array is the bin edges.

range

[array_like, shape(2,2), optional] The leftmost and rightmost edges of the bins along each dimension (if not specified explicitly in the bins parameters): [[xmin, xmax], [ymin, ymax]]. All values outside of this range will be considered outliers and not tallied in the histogram.

density

[bool, optional] If False, the default, returns the number of samples in each bin. If True, returns the probability density function at the bin, bin_count / sample_count / bin_area.

normed

[bool, optional] An alias for the density argument that behaves identically. To avoid confusion with the broken normed argument to histogram, density should be preferred.

weights

[array_like, shape(N,), optional] An array of values w_i weighing each sample (x_i, y_i). Weights are normalized to 1 if normed is True. If normed is False, the values of the returned histogram are equal to the sum of the weights belonging to the samples falling into each bin.

Returns

H
[ndarray, shape(nx, ny)] The bi-dimensional histogram of samples x and y. Values in x are histogrammed along the first dimension and values in y are histogrammed along the second dimension.

xedges
[ndarray, shape(nx+1,)] The bin edges along the first dimension.

yedges
[ndarray, shape(ny+1,)] The bin edges along the second dimension.

See also:

histogram
1D histogram

histogramdd
Multidimensional histogram

Notes

When normed is True, then the returned histogram is the sample density, defined such that the sum over bins of the product bin_value * bin_area is 1.

Please note that the histogram does not follow the Cartesian convention where x values are on the abscissa and y values on the ordinate axis. Rather, x is histogrammed along the first dimension of the array (vertical), and y along the second dimension of the array (horizontal). This ensures compatibility with histogramdd.

Examples

```python
>>> from matplotlib.image import NonUniformImage
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

Construct a 2-D histogram with variable bin width. First define the bin edges:

```python
>>> xedges = [0, 1, 3, 5]
>>> yedges = [0, 2, 3, 4, 6]
```

Next we create a histogram H with random bin content:

```python
>>> x = np.random.normal(2, 1, 100)
>>> y = np.random.normal(1, 1, 100)
>>> H, xedges, yedges = np.histogram2d(x, y, bins=(xedges, yedges))
>>> # Histogram does not follow Cartesian convention (see Notes),
>>> # therefore transpose H for visualization purposes.
>>> H = H.T
```

imshow can only display square bins:

```python
>>> fig = plt.figure(figsize=(7, 3))
>>> ax = fig.add_subplot(131, title='imshow: square bins')
>>> plt.imshow(H, interpolation='nearest', origin='lower',
...            extent=[xedges[0], xedges[-1], yedges[0], yedges[-1]])
<matplotlib.image.AxesImage object at 0x...>
```
pcolormesh can display actual edges:

```python
>>> ax = fig.add_subplot(132, title='pcolormesh: actual edges',
...    aspect='equal')
>>> X, Y = np.meshgrid(xedges, yedges)
>>> ax.pcolormesh(X, Y, H)
<matplotlib.collections.QuadMesh object at 0x...>
```

NonUniformImage can be used to display actual bin edges with interpolation:

```python
>>> ax = fig.add_subplot(133, title='NonUniformImage: interpolated',
...    aspect='equal', xlim=xedges[[0, -1]], ylim=yedges[[0, -1]])
>>> im = NonUniformImage(ax, interpolation='bilinear')
>>> xcenters = (xedges[:-1] + xedges[1:]) / 2
>>> ycenters = (yedges[:-1] + yedges[1:]) / 2
>>> im.set_data(xcenters, ycenters, H)
>>> ax.images.append(im)
>>> plt.show()
```

```latex
\texttt{numpy.histogramdd} \texttt{(sample, bins=10, range=None, normed=None, weights=None, density=None)}

Compute the multidimensional histogram of some data.

\textbf{Parameters}

\texttt{sample}

\texttt{[(N, D) array, or (D, N) array_like] The data to be histogrammed.}

Note the unusual interpretation of \texttt{sample} when an array_like:
- When an array, each row is a coordinate in a D-dimensional space - such as \texttt{histogramdd(np.array([p1, p2, p3]))}.
- When an array_like, each element is the list of values for single coordinate - such as \texttt{histogramdd((X, Y, Z))}.

The first form should be preferred.

\texttt{bins}

\texttt{[sequence or int, optional] The bin specification:}
```
• A sequence of arrays describing the monotonically increasing bin edges along each dimension.

• The number of bins for each dimension (nx, ny, … =bins)

• The number of bins for all dimensions (nx=ny=…=bins).

range

[sequence, optional] A sequence of length D, each an optional (lower, upper) tuple giving the outer bin edges to be used if the edges are not given explicitly in bins. An entry of None in the sequence results in the minimum and maximum values being used for the corresponding dimension. The default, None, is equivalent to passing a tuple of D None values.

density

[bool, optional] If False, the default, returns the number of samples in each bin. If True, returns the probability density function at the bin, bin_count / sample_count / bin_volume.

normed

[bool, optional] An alias for the density argument that behaves identically. To avoid confusion with the broken normed argument to histogram, density should be preferred.

weights

[(N,) array_like, optional] An array of values w_i weighing each sample (x_i, y_i, z_i, …). Weights are normalized to 1 if normed is True. If normed is False, the values of the returned histogram are equal to the sum of the weights belonging to the samples falling into each bin.

Returns

H

[ndarray] The multidimensional histogram of sample x. See normed and weights for the different possible semantics.

edges

[list] A list of D arrays describing the bin edges for each dimension.

See also:

histogram

1-D histogram

histogram2d

2-D histogram
Examples

```python
>>> r = np.random.randn(100, 3)
>>> H, edges = np.histogramdd(r, bins = (5, 8, 4))
>>> H.shape, edges[0].size, edges[1].size, edges[2].size
((5, 8, 4), 6, 9, 5)
```

`numpy.bincount(x, weights=None, minlength=0)`

Count number of occurrences of each value in array of non-negative ints.

The number of bins (of size 1) is one larger than the largest value in x. If `minlength` is specified, there will be at least this number of bins in the output array (though it will be longer if necessary, depending on the contents of x). Each bin gives the number of occurrences of its index value in x. If `weights` is specified the input array is weighted by it, i.e. if a value n is found at position i, `out[n] += weight[i]` instead of `out[n] += 1`.

**Parameters**

- `x`  
  [array_like, 1 dimension, nonnegative ints] Input array.

- `weights`  
  [array_like, optional] Weights, array of the same shape as x.

- `minlength`  
  [int, optional] A minimum number of bins for the output array.

  New in version 1.6.0.

**Returns**

- `out`  
  [ndarray of ints] The result of binning the input array. The length of `out` is equal to `np.amax(x)+1`.

**Raises**

- `ValueError`  
  If the input is not 1-dimensional, or contains elements with negative values, or if `minlength` is negative.

- `TypeError`  
  If the type of the input is float or complex.

**See also:**

`histogram, digitize, unique`
Examples

```python
>>> np.bincount(np.arange(5))
array([1, 1, 1, 1, 1])
>>> np.bincount(np.array([0, 1, 1, 3, 2, 1, 7]))
array([1, 3, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1])
```

The input array needs to be of integer dtype, otherwise a TypeError is raised:

```python
>>> np.bincount(np.arange(5, dtype=float))
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
TypeError: Cannot cast array data from dtype('float64') to dtype('int64') according to the rule 'safe'
```

A possible use of `bincount` is to perform sums over variable-size chunks of an array, using the `weights` keyword.

```python
>>> w = np.array([0.3, 0.5, 0.2, 0.7, 1., -0.6])  # weights
>>> x = np.array([0, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2])
>>> np.bincount(x, weights=w)
array([ 0.3,  0.7,  1.1])
```

`numpy.histogram_bin_edges(a, bins=10, range=None, weights=None)`

Function to calculate only the edges of the bins used by the `histogram` function.

**Parameters**

- `a`
  [array_like] Input data. The histogram is computed over the flattened array.

- `bins`
  [int or sequence of scalars or str, optional] If `bins` is an int, it defines the number of equal-width bins in the given range (10, by default). If `bins` is a sequence, it defines the bin edges, including the rightmost edge, allowing for non-uniform bin widths.

  If `bins` is a string from the list below, `histogram_bin_edges` will use the method chosen to calculate the optimal bin width and consequently the number of bins (see `Notes` for more detail on the estimators) from the data that falls within the requested range. While the bin width will be optimal for the actual data in the range, the number of bins will be computed to fill the entire range, including the empty portions. For visualisation, using the ‘auto’ option is suggested. Weighted data is not supported for automated bin size selection.

  - ‘auto’
    Maximum of the ‘sturges’ and ‘fd’ estimators. Provides good all around performance.

  - ‘fd’ (Freedman Diaconis Estimator)
    Robust (resilient to outliers) estimator that takes into account data variability and data size.

  - ‘doane’
    An improved version of Sturges’ estimator that works better with non-normal datasets.
`scott`  
Less robust estimator that that takes into account data variability and data size.

`stone`  
Estimator based on leave-one-out cross-validation estimate of the integrated squared error. Can be regarded as a generalization of Scott's rule.

`rice`  
Estimator does not take variability into account, only data size. Commonly overestimates number of bins required.

`sturges`  
R's default method, only accounts for data size. Only optimal for gaussian data and underestimates number of bins for large non-gaussian datasets.

`sqrt`  
Square root (of data size) estimator, used by Excel and other programs for its speed and simplicity.

**range**  
[(float, float), optional] The lower and upper range of the bins. If not provided, range is simply \((a.\text{min}(), a.\text{max}())\). Values outside the range are ignored. The first element of the range must be less than or equal to the second. *range* affects the automatic bin computation as well. While bin width is computed to be optimal based on the actual data within *range*, the bin count will fill the entire range including portions containing no data.

**weights**  
[array_like, optional] An array of weights, of the same shape as *a*. Each value in *a* only contributes its associated weight towards the bin count (instead of 1). This is currently not used by any of the bin estimators, but may be in the future.

**Returns**

**bin_edges**  
[array of dtype float] The edges to pass into *histogram*

**See also:**

*histogram*

**Notes**

The methods to estimate the optimal number of bins are well founded in literature, and are inspired by the choices R provides for histogram visualisation. Note that having the number of bins proportional to \(n^{1/3}\) is asymptotically optimal, which is why it appears in most estimators. These are simply plug-in methods that give good starting points for number of bins. In the equations below, \(h\) is the binwidth and \(n_h\) is the number of bins. All estimators that compute bin counts are recast to bin width using the *ptp* of the data. The final bin count is obtained from \(\text{np.round(np.ceil(range / h))}\). The final bin width is often less than what is returned by the estimators below.
A compromise to get a good value. For small datasets the Sturges value will usually be chosen, while larger datasets will usually default to FD. Avoids the overly conservative behaviour of FD and Sturges for small and large datasets respectively. Switchover point is usually $a\cdot \text{size} \approx 1000$.

**‘fd’ (Freedman Diaconis Estimator)**

$$h = \frac{2 \cdot \text{IQR}}{n^{1/3}}$$

The binwidth is proportional to the interquartile range (IQR) and inversely proportional to cube root of $a\cdot \text{size}$. Can be too conservative for small datasets, but is quite good for large datasets. The IQR is very robust to outliers.

**‘scott’**

$$h = \sigma \sqrt[3]{\frac{24 \cdot \sqrt{\pi}}{n}}$$

The binwidth is proportional to the standard deviation of the data and inversely proportional to cube root of $x\cdot \text{size}$. Can be too conservative for small datasets, but is quite good for large datasets. The standard deviation is not very robust to outliers. Values are very similar to the Freedman-Diaconis estimator in the absence of outliers.

**‘rice’**

$$n_h = 2n^{1/3}$$

The number of bins is only proportional to cube root of $a\cdot \text{size}$. It tends to overestimate the number of bins and it does not take into account data variability.

**‘sturges’**

$$n_h = \log_2 n + 1$$

The number of bins is the base 2 log of $a\cdot \text{size}$. This estimator assumes normality of data and is too conservative for larger, non-normal datasets. This is the default method in R’s `hist` method.

**‘doane’**

$$n_h = 1 + \log_2(n) + \log_2(1 + \frac{|g_1|}{\sigma_{g1}})$$

$$g_1 = \text{mean}[(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma})^3]$$

$$\sigma_{g1} = \sqrt{\frac{6(n - 2)}{(n + 1)(n + 3)}}$$

An improved version of Sturges’ formula that produces better estimates for non-normal datasets. This estimator attempts to account for the skew of the data.
The simplest and fastest estimator. Only takes into account the data size.

Examples

```python
>>> arr = np.array([0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5])
>>> np.histogram_bin_edges(arr, bins='auto', range=(0, 1))
array([0. , 0.25, 0.5 , 0.75, 1. ])
>>> np.histogram_bin_edges(arr, bins=2)
array([0. , 2.5, 5. ])
```

For consistency with histogram, an array of pre-computed bins is passed through unmodified:

```python
>>> np.histogram_bin_edges(arr, [1, 2])
array([1, 2])
```

This function allows one set of bins to be computed, and reused across multiple histograms:

```python
>>> shared_bins = np.histogram_bin_edges(arr, bins='auto')
>>> shared_bins
array([0., 1., 2., 3., 4., 5.])

>>> group_id = np.array([0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1])
>>> hist_0, _ = np.histogram(arr[group_id == 0], bins=shared_bins)
>>> hist_1, _ = np.histogram(arr[group_id == 1], bins=shared_bins)

>>> hist_0; hist_1
array([1, 1, 0, 1, 0])
array([2, 0, 1, 1, 2])
```

Which gives more easily comparable results than using separate bins for each histogram:

```python
>>> hist_0, bins_0 = np.histogram(arr[group_id == 0], bins='auto')
>>> hist_1, bins_1 = np.histogram(arr[group_id == 1], bins='auto')

>>> hist_0; hist_1
array([1, 1, 1])
array([2, 1, 1, 2])
```

`numpy.digitize(x, bins, right=False)`

Return the indices of the bins to which each value in input array belongs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>right</th>
<th>order of bins</th>
<th>returned index i satisfies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>increasing</td>
<td>bins[i-1] &lt;= x &lt; bins[i]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>increasing</td>
<td>bins[i-1] &lt; x &lt;= bins[i]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>decreasing</td>
<td>bins[i-1] &gt; x &gt;= bins[i]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>decreasing</td>
<td>bins[i-1] &gt;= x &gt; bins[i]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If values in `x` are beyond the bounds of `bins`, `0` or `len(bins)` is returned as appropriate.
Parameters

x
[array_like] Input array to be binned. Prior to NumPy 1.10.0, this array had to be 1-dimensional, but can now have any shape.

bins
[array_like] Array of bins. It has to be 1-dimensional and monotonic.

right
[bool, optional] Indicating whether the intervals include the right or the left bin edge. Default behavior is (right==False) indicating that the interval does not include the right edge. The left bin end is open in this case, i.e., bins[i-1] <= x < bins[i] is the default behavior for monotonically increasing bins.

Returns

indices
[ndarray of ints] Output array of indices, of same shape as x.

Raises

ValueError
If bins is not monotonic.

TypeError
If the type of the input is complex.

See also:

bincount, histogram, unique, searchsorted

Notes

If values in x are such that they fall outside the bin range, attempting to index bins with the indices that digitize returns will result in an IndexError.

New in version 1.10.0.

np.digitize is implemented in terms of np.searchsorted. This means that a binary search is used to bin the values, which scales much better for larger number of bins than the previous linear search. It also removes the requirement for the input array to be 1-dimensional.

For monotonically _increasing_ bins, the following are equivalent:

```python
np.digitize(x, bins, right=True)
np.searchsorted(bins, x, side='left')
```

Note that as the order of the arguments are reversed, the side must be too. The searchsorted call is marginally faster, as it does not do any monotonicity checks. Perhaps more importantly, it supports all dtypes.
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([0.2, 6.4, 3.0, 1.6])
>>> bins = np.array([0.0, 1.0, 2.5, 4.0, 10.0])
>>> inds = np.digitize(x, bins)
>>> inds
array([1, 4, 3, 2])
>>> for n in range(x.size):
...     print(bins[inds[n]-1], "<=", x[n], "<", bins[inds[n]])
0.0 <= 0.2 < 1.0
4.0 <= 6.4 < 10.0
2.5 <= 3.0 < 4.0
1.0 <= 1.6 < 2.5
```

```python
>>> x = np.array([1.2, 10.0, 12.4, 15.5, 20.])
>>> bins = np.array([0, 5, 10, 15, 20])
>>> np.digitize(x,bins,right=True)
array([1, 2, 3, 4, 4])
>>> np.digitize(x,bins,right=False)
array([1, 3, 3, 4, 5])
```

4.27 Test Support (numpy.testing)

Common test support for all numpy test scripts.

This single module should provide all the common functionality for numpy tests in a single location, so that test scripts can just import it and work right away. For background, see the Testing Guidelines

4.27.1 Asserts

```python
assert_allclose(actual, desired[, rtol, ...])
Raise an AssertionError if two objects are not equal up
to desired tolerance.

assert_array_almost_equal_nulp(x, y[, nulp])
Compare two arrays relatively to their spacing.

assert_array_max_ulp(a, b[, maxulp, dtype])
Check that all items of arrays differ in at most N Units in
the Last Place.

assert_array_equal(x, y[, err_msg, verbose])
Raise an AssertionError if two array_like objects are not
equal.

assert_array_less(x, y[, err_msg, verbose])
Raise an AssertionError if two array_like objects are not
ordered by less than.

assert_equal(actual, desired[, err_msg, verbose])
Raise an AssertionError if two objects are not equal.

assert_raises(assert_raises)
Fail unless an exception of class exception_class is thrown
by callable when invoked with arguments args and key-
word arguments kwargs.

assert_raises_regex(exception_class, ...)
Fail unless an exception of class exception_class and
with message that matches expected_regex is thrown by
callable when invoked with arguments args and keyword
arguments kwargs.

assert_warns(warning_class, *args, **kwargs)
Fail unless the given callable throws the specified warning.
```

continues on next page
assert_string_equal(actual, desired) Test if two strings are equal.

testing.assert_allclose(actual, desired, rtol=1e-07, atol=0, equal_nan=True, err_msg=", verbose=True) Raises an AssertionError if two objects are not equal up to desired tolerance.

The test is equivalent to allclose(actual, desired, rtol, atol) (note that allclose has different default values). It compares the difference between actual and desired to atol + rtol * abs(desired).

New in version 1.5.0.

Parameters

actual
[array_like] Array obtained.

desired
[array_like] Array desired.

rtol
[float, optional] Relative tolerance.

atol
[float, optional] Absolute tolerance.

equal_nan
[bool, optional] If True, NaNs will compare equal.

err_msg
[str, optional] The error message to be printed in case of failure.

verbose
[bool, optional] If True, the conflicting values are appended to the error message.

Raises

AssertionError
If actual and desired are not equal up to specified precision.

See also:

assert_array_almost_equal_nulp, assert_array_max_ulp
Examples

```python
>>> x = [1e-5, 1e-3, 1e-1]
>>> y = np.arccos(np.cos(x))
```

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_allclose(x, y, rtol=1e-5, atol=0)
```

```
testing.assert_array_almost_equal_nulp(x, y, nulp=1)
```

Compare two arrays relatively to their spacing.

This is a relatively robust method to compare two arrays whose amplitude is variable.

**Parameters**

- `x, y` [array_like] Input arrays.
- `nulp` [int, optional] The maximum number of unit in the last place for tolerance (see Notes). Default is 1.

**Returns**

- None

**Raises**

- `AssertionError` If the spacing between `x` and `y` for one or more elements is larger than `nulp`.

**See also:**

- `assert_array_max_ulp` Check that all items of arrays differ in at most N Units in the Last Place.

- `spacing` Return the distance between `x` and the nearest adjacent number.

**Notes**

An assertion is raised if the following condition is not met:

```python
abs(x - y) <= nulps * spacing(maximum(abs(x), abs(y)))
```
Examples

```python
>>> x = np.array([1., 1e-10, 1e-20])
>>> eps = np.finfo(x.dtype).eps
>>> np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal_nulp(x, x*eps/2 + x)

>>> np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal_nulp(x, x*eps + x)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...  
AssertionError: X and Y are not equal to 1 ULP (max is 2)
```

testing.assert_array_max_ulp (a, b, maxulp=1, dtype=None)

Check that all items of arrays differ in at most N Units in the Last Place.

Parameters

a, b

[array_like] Input arrays to be compared.

maxulp

[int, optional] The maximum number of units in the last place that elements of a and b can differ. Default is 1.

dtype

[dtype, optional] Data-type to convert a and b to if given. Default is None.

Returns

ret

[ndarray] Array containing number of representable floating point numbers between items in a and b.

Raises

AssertionError

If one or more elements differ by more than maxulp.

See also:

assert_array_almost_equal_nulp

Compare two arrays relatively to their spacing.
**Notes**

For computing the ULP difference, this API does not differentiate between various representations of NaN (ULP difference between 0x7fc00000 and 0xffc00000 is zero).

**Examples**

```python
>>> a = np.linspace(0., 1., 100)
>>> res = np.testing.assert_array_max_ulp(a, np.arcsin(np.sin(a)))
```

`testing.assert_array_equal(x, y, err_msg='', verbose=True)`

Raises an AssertionError if two array_like objects are not equal.

Given two array_like objects, check that the shape is equal and all elements of these objects are equal (but see the Notes for the special handling of a scalar). An exception is raised at shape mismatch or conflicting values. In contrast to the standard usage in numpy, NaNs are compared like numbers, no assertion is raised if both objects have NaNs in the same positions.

The usual caution for verifying equality with floating point numbers is advised.

**Parameters**

- `x` [array_like] The actual object to check.
- `y` [array_like] The desired, expected object.
- `err_msg` [str, optional] The error message to be printed in case of failure.
- `verbose` [bool, optional] If True, the conflicting values are appended to the error message.

**Raises**

- `AssertionError` If actual and desired objects are not equal.

**See also:**

- `assert_allclose`

  Compare two array_like objects for equality with desired relative and/or absolute precision.

- `assert_array_almost_equal_nulp`, `assert_array_max_ulp`, `assert_equal`
Notes

When one of x and y is a scalar and the other is array_like, the function checks that each element of the array_like object is equal to the scalar.

Examples

The first assert does not raise an exception:

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_array_equal([1.0, 2.33333, np.nan],
... np.exp(0), 2.33333, np.nan])
```

Assert fails with numerical imprecision with floats:

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_array_equal([1.0, np.pi, np.nan],
... [1, np.sqrt(np.pi)**2, np.nan])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...AssertionError:
  Arrays are not equal
Mismatched elements: 1 / 3 (33.3%)
Max absolute difference: 4.4408921e-16
Max relative difference: 1.41357986e-16
x: array([1. , 3.141593, nan])
y: array([1. , 3.141593, nan])
```

Use `assert_allclose` or one of the nulp (number of floating point values) functions for these cases instead:

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_allclose([1.0, np.pi, np.nan],
... [1, np.sqrt(np.pi)**2, np.nan],
... rtol=1e-10, atol=0)
```

As mentioned in the Notes section, `assert_array_equal` has special handling for scalars. Here the test checks that each value in x is 3:

```python
>>> x = np.full((2, 5), fill_value=3)
>>> np.testing.assert_array_equal(x, 3)
```

`testing.assert_array_less (x, y, err_msg="", verbose=True)`

Raises an `AssertionError` if two array_like objects are not ordered by less than.

Given two array_like objects, check that the shape is equal and all elements of the first object are strictly smaller than those of the second object. An exception is raised at shape mismatch or incorrectly ordered values. Shape mismatch does not raise if an object has zero dimension. In contrast to the standard usage in numpy, NaNs are compared, no assertion is raised if both objects have NaNs in the same positions.

Parameters

- x
  - [array_like] The smaller object to check.
- y
  - [array_like] The larger object to compare.
err_msg

[string] The error message to be printed in case of failure.

verbose

[bool] If True, the conflicting values are appended to the error message.

Raises

AssertionError

If actual and desired objects are not equal.

See also:

assert_array_equal

tests objects for equality

assert_array_almost_equal

test objects for equality up to precision

Examples

>>> np.testing.assert_array_less([1.0, 1.0, np.nan], [1.1, 2.0, np.nan])
>>> np.testing.assert_array_less([1.0, 1.0, np.nan], [1, 2.0, np.nan])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...  
AssertionError:  
Arrays are not less-ordered

Mismatched elements: 1 / 3 (33.3%)
Max absolute difference: 1.
Max relative difference: 0.5
  x: array([ 1.,  1., nan])
  y: array([ 1.,  2., nan])

>>> np.testing.assert_array_less([1.0, 4.0], 3)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...  
AssertionError:  
Arrays are not less-ordered

Mismatched elements: 1 / 2 (50%)
Max absolute difference: 2.
Max relative difference: 0.66666667
  x: array([1., 4.])
  y: array(3)

>>> np.testing.assert_array_less([1.0, 2.0, 3.0], [4])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...  
AssertionError:  
Arrays are not less-ordered

(continues on next page)
testing.assert_equal(actual, desired, err_msg=None, verbose=True)

Raises an AssertionError if two objects are not equal.

Given two objects (scalars, lists, tuples, dictionaries or numpy arrays), check that all elements of these objects are equal. An exception is raised at the first conflicting values.

When one of actual and desired is a scalar and the other is array_like, the function checks that each element of the array_like object is equal to the scalar.

This function handles NaN comparisons as if NaN was a “normal” number. That is, AssertionError is not raised if both objects have NaNs in the same positions. This is in contrast to the IEEE standard on NaNs, which says that NaN compared to anything must return False.

Parameters

- **actual**
  
  [array_like] The object to check.

- **desired**
  
  [array_like] The expected object.

- **err_msg**
  
  [str, optional] The error message to be printed in case of failure.

- **verbose**
  
  [bool, optional] If True, the conflicting values are appended to the error message.

Raises

AssertionError

If actual and desired are not equal.

Examples

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_equal([4, 5], [4, 6])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...:
AssertionError:
  Items are not equal:
  item=1
  ACTUAL:  5
  DESIRED:  6
```

The following comparison does not raise an exception. There are NaNs in the inputs, but they are in the same positions.

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_equal(np.array([1.0, 2.0, np.nan]), [1, 2, np.nan])
```

Testing assert_raises(exception_class, callable, *args, **kwargs) assert_raises(exception_class)
assert_raises(exception_class) → None
    Fail unless an exception of class exception_class is thrown by callable when invoked with arguments args and
    keyword arguments kwargs. If a different type of exception is thrown, it will not be caught, and the test case will
    be deemed to have suffered an error, exactly as for an unexpected exception.

Alternatively, assert_raises can be used as a context manager:

```python
>>> from numpy.testing import assert_raises
>>> with assert_raises(ZeroDivisionError):
...    1 / 0
```

is equivalent to

```python
>>> def div(x, y):
...    return x / y
>>> assert_raises(ZeroDivisionError, div, 1, 0)
```

testing.assert_raises_regex(exception_class, expected_regexp, callable, *args, **kwargs)
    Fail unless an exception of class exception_class and with message that matches expected_regexp is thrown by
    callable when invoked with arguments args and keyword arguments kwargs.

Alternatively, can be used as a context manager like assert_raises.

Name of this function adheres to Python 3.2+ reference, but should work in all versions down to 2.6.

Notes

New in version 1.9.0.

testing.assert_warns(warning_class, *args, **kwargs)
    Fail unless the given callable throws the specified warning.

A warning of class warning_class should be thrown by the callable when invoked with arguments args and keyword
arguments kwargs. If a different type of warning is thrown, it will not be caught.

If called with all arguments other than the warning class omitted, may be used as a context manager:

```python
with assert_warns(SomeWarning):
    do_something()
```

The ability to be used as a context manager is new in NumPy v1.11.0.

New in version 1.4.0.

Parameters

warning_class
    [class] The class defining the warning that func is expected to throw.

func
    [callable, optional] Callable to test

*args
    [Arguments] Arguments for func.

**kwars
Returns

The value returned by \textit{func}.

Examples

```python
>>> import warnings
>>> def deprecated_func(num):
...     warnings.warn("Please upgrade", DeprecationWarning)
...     return num
>>> with np.testing.assert_warns(DeprecationWarning):
...     assert deprecated_func(4) == 16
>>> # or passing a func
>>> ret = np.testing.assert_warns(DeprecationWarning, deprecated_func, 4)
>>> assert ret == 16
```

testing.\texttt{assert_string_equal}(\textit{actual}, \textit{desired})

Test if two strings are equal.

If the given strings are equal, \texttt{assert_string_equal} does nothing. If they are not equal, an \texttt{AssertionError} is raised, and the diff between the strings is shown.

Parameters

\begin{itemize}
  \item \texttt{actual} [str] The string to test for equality against the expected string.
  \item \texttt{desired} [str] The expected string.
\end{itemize}

Examples

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_string_equal('abc', 'abc')
>>> np.testing.assert_string_equal('abc', 'abcd')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
...  AssertionError: Differences in strings:
- abc
+ abcd
```

4.27.2 \textbf{Asserts (not recommended)}

It is recommended to use one of \texttt{assert_allclose}, \texttt{assert_array_almost_equal_nulp} or \texttt{assert_array_max_ulp} instead of these functions for more consistent floating point comparisons.

```
assert_almost_equal(actual, desired[, ...])  Raises an AssertionError if two items are not equal up to desired precision.
assert_approx_equal(actual, desired[, ...])  Raises an AssertionError if two items are not equal up to significant digits.
assert_array_almost_equal(x, y[, decimal, ...])  Raises an AssertionError if two objects are not equal up to desired precision.
```

4.27. \textbf{Test Support (numpy.testing)}
testing.assert_almost_equal(actual, desired, decimal=7, err_msg="", verbose=True)

Raises an AssertionError if two items are not equal up to desired precision.

**Note:** It is recommended to use one of assert_allclose, assert_array_almost_equal_nulp or assert_array_max_ulp instead of this function for more consistent floating point comparisons.

The test verifies that the elements of `actual` and `desired` satisfy.

\[
\text{abs(desired-actual)} < 1.5 \times 10^{-\text{decimal}}
\]

That is a looser test than originally documented, but agrees with what the actual implementation in assert_array_almost_equal did up to rounding vagaries. An exception is raised at conflicting values. For ndarrays this delegates to assert_array_almost_equal

**Parameters**

- **actual**
  - [array_like] The object to check.
- **desired**
  - [array_like] The expected object.
- **decimal**
  - [int, optional] Desired precision, default is 7.
- **err_msg**
  - [str, optional] The error message to be printed in case of failure.
- **verbose**
  - [bool, optional] If True, the conflicting values are appended to the error message.

**Raises**

AssertionError

If actual and desired are not equal up to specified precision.

**See also:**

- assert_allclose
  - Compare two array_like objects for equality with desired relative and/or absolute precision.
- assert_array_almost_equal_nulp, assert_array_max_ulp, assert_equal
Examples

```python
>>> from numpy.testing import assert_almost_equal
>>> assert_almost_equal(2.3333333333333, 2.3333334)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...  
AssertionError:
Arrays are not almost equal to 10 decimals
  ACTUAL: 2.3333333333333
  DESIRED: 2.33333334

>>> assert_almost_equal(np.array([1.0, 2.3333333333333]),
                      np.array([1.0, 2.3333334]), decimal=9)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...  
AssertionError:
Arrays are not almost equal to 9 decimals

Mismatched elements: 1 / 2 (50%)
Max absolute difference: 6.66669964e-09
Max relative difference: 2.85715698e-09
  x: array([1.0, 2.33333333])
  y: array([1.0, 2.3333334])
```

`testing.assert_approx_equal` *(actual, desired, significant=7, err_msg=", verbose=True)*

Raises an `AssertionError` if two items are not equal up to significant digits.

**Note:** It is recommended to use one of `assert_allclose`, `assert_array_almost_equal_nulp` or `assert_array_max_ulp` instead of this function for more consistent floating point comparisons.

Given two numbers, check that they are approximately equal. Approximately equal is defined as the number of significant digits that agree.

**Parameters**

- **actual**
  [scalar] The object to check.

- **desired**
  [scalar] The expected object.

- **significant**
  [int, optional] Desired precision, default is 7.

- **err_msg**
  [str, optional] The error message to be printed in case of failure.

- **verbose**
  [bool, optional] If True, the conflicting values are appended to the error message.

**Raises**
AssertionError

If actual and desired are not equal up to specified precision.

See also:

assert_allclose

Compare two array_like objects for equality with desired relative and/or absolute precision.

assert_array_almost_equal_nulp, assert_array_max_ulp, assert_equal

Examples

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_approx_equal(0.12345677777777e-20, 0.1234567e-20)
>>> np.testing.assert_approx_equal(0.12345670e-20, 0.12345671e-20,
... significant=8)
>>> np.testing.assert_approx_equal(0.12345670e-20, 0.12345672e-20,
... significant=8)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...AssertionError:
Items are not equal to 8 significant digits:
ACTUAL: 1.234567e-21
DESIRED: 1.2345672e-21
```

The evaluated condition that raises the exception is

```python
>>> abs(0.12345670e-20/1e-21 - 0.12345672e-20/1e-21) >= 10**(8-1)
True
```

testing.assert_array_almost_equal (x, y, decimal=6, err_msg='', verbose=True)

Raises an AssertionError if two objects are not equal up to desired precision.

Note: It is recommended to use one of assert_allclose, assert_array_almost_equal_nulp or assert_array_max_ulp instead of this function for more consistent floating point comparisons.

The test verifies identical shapes and that the elements of actual and desired satisfy.

\[
\text{abs(desired-actual)} < 1.5 \times 10^{(-\text{decimal})}
\]

That is a looser test than originally documented, but agrees with what the actual implementation did up to rounding vagaries. An exception is raised at shape mismatch or conflicting values. In contrast to the standard usage in numpy, NaNs are compared like numbers, no assertion is raised if both objects have NaNs in the same positions.

Parameters

x

[array_like] The actual object to check.

y

[array_like] The desired, expected object.

decimal

[int, optional] Desired precision, default is 6.
err_msg

[str, optional] The error message to be printed in case of failure.

verbose

[bool, optional] If True, the conflicting values are appended to the error message.

Raises

AssertionError

If actual and desired are not equal up to specified precision.

See also:

assert_allclose

Compare two array_like objects for equality with desired relative and/or absolute precision.

assert_array_almost_equal_nulp, assert_array_max_ulp, assert_equal

Examples

the first assert does not raise an exception

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal([1.0, 2.333, np.nan],
... [1.0, 2.333, np.nan])
```

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal([1.0, 2.33333, np.nan],
... [1.0, 2.33339, np.nan], decimal=5)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ... AssertionError:
Arrays are not almost equal to 5 decimals
Mismatches:
  x: array([1.0, 2.33333, nan])
  y: array([1.0, 2.33339, nan])
```

```python
>>> np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal([1.0, 2.33333, np.nan],
... [1.0, 2.33333, 5.0], decimal=5)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ... AssertionError:
Arrays are not almost equal to 5 decimals
x and y nan location mismatch:
  x: array([1.0, 2.33333, nan])
  y: array([1.0, 2.33333, 5.0])
```
4.27.3 Decorators

\texttt{dec.deprecated}([\text{conditional}])

Deprecates since version 1.21.

\texttt{dec.knownfailureif}({\text{fail\_condition}[,. \text{msg}]})

Deprecates since version 1.21.

\texttt{dec.setastest}([\text{tf}])

Deprecates since version 1.21.

\texttt{dec.skipif}({\text{skip\_condition}[,. \text{msg}]})

Deprecates since version 1.21.

\texttt{dec.slow}(t)

Deprecates since version 1.21.

\texttt{decorate\_methods}(\text{cls, decorator[, testmatch]})

Apply a decorator to all methods in a class matching a regular expression.

testing.\texttt{dec.deprecated}({\text{conditional}=\text{True}})

Deprecated since version 1.21: This decorator is retained for compatibility with the nose testing framework, which is being phased out. Please use the nose2 or pytest frameworks instead.

Filter deprecated warnings while running the test suite.

This decorator can be used to filter DeprecationWarning’s, to avoid printing them during the test suite run, while checking that the test actually raises a DeprecationWarning.

Parameters

\textbf{conditional}

[bool or callable, optional] Flag to determine whether to mark test as deprecated or not. If the condition is a callable, it is used at runtime to dynamically make the decision. Default is True.

Returns

\textbf{decorator}

[function] The \texttt{deprecated} decorator itself.

Notes

New in version 1.4.0.

\texttt{testing.dec.knownfailureif}({\text{fail\_condition}, \text{msg}=\text{None}})

Deprecated since version 1.21: This decorator is retained for compatibility with the nose testing framework, which is being phased out. Please use the nose2 or pytest frameworks instead.

Make function raise KnownFailureException exception if given condition is true.

If the condition is a callable, it is used at runtime to dynamically make the decision. This is useful for tests that may require costly imports, to delay the cost until the test suite is actually executed.

Parameters
fail_condition

[bool or callable] Flag to determine whether to mark the decorated test as a known failure (if True) or not (if False).

msg

[optional] Message to give on raising a KnownFailureException exception. Default is None.

Returns

decorator

[function] Decorator, which, when applied to a function, causes KnownFailureException to be raised when fail_condition is True, and the function to be called normally otherwise.

Notes

The decorator itself is decorated with the nose.tools.make_decorator function in order to transmit function name, and various other metadata.

testing.dec.setastest(tf=True)

Deprecated since version 1.21: This decorator is retained for compatibility with the nose testing framework, which is being phased out. Please use the nose2 or pytest frameworks instead.

Signals to nose that this function is or is not a test.

Parameters

tf

[bool] If True, specifies that the decorated callable is a test. If False, specifies that the decorated callable is not a test. Default is True.

Notes

This decorator can’t use the nose namespace, because it can be called from a non-test module. See also istest and notest in nose.tools.

Examples

setastest can be used in the following way:

```python
from numpy.testing import dec
@dec.setastest(False)
def func_with_test_in_name(arg1, arg2):
    pass
```

testing.dec.skipif(skip_condition, msg=None)

Deprecated since version 1.21: This decorator is retained for compatibility with the nose testing framework, which is being phased out. Please use the nose2 or pytest frameworks instead.

Make function raise SkipTest exception if a given condition is true.

If the condition is a callable, it is used at runtime to dynamically make the decision. This is useful for tests that may require costly imports, to delay the cost until the test suite is actually executed.
Parameters

**skip_condition**

[bool or callable] Flag to determine whether to skip the decorated test.

**msg**

[str, optional] Message to give on raising a SkipTest exception. Default is None.

Returns

**decorator**

[function] Decorator which, when applied to a function, causes SkipTest to be raised when

`skip_condition` is True, and the function to be called normally otherwise.

Notes

The decorator itself is decorated with the `nose.tools.make_decorator` function in order to transmit function name, and various other metadata.

```
@testing.dec.slow(t)
```

Deprecated since version 1.21: This decorator is retained for compatibility with the nose testing framework, which is being phased out. Please use the nose2 or pytest frameworks instead.

Label a test as ‘slow’.

The exact definition of a slow test is obviously both subjective and hardware-dependent, but in general any individual test that requires more than a second or two should be labeled as slow (the whole suite consists of thousands of tests, so even a second is significant).

Parameters

**t**

[callable] The test to label as slow.

Returns

**t**

[callable] The decorated test t.

Examples

The `numpy.testing` module includes import decorators as dec. A test can be decorated as slow like this:

```python
from numpy.testing import *

dec.slow

def test_big(self):
    print('Big, slow test')
```
testing.**decorate_methods** *(cls, decorator, testmatch=None)*

Apply a decorator to all methods in a class matching a regular expression.

The given decorator is applied to all public methods of `cls` that are matched by the regular expression `testmatch` (testmatch.search(methodname)). Methods that are private, i.e. start with an underscore, are ignored.

**Parameters**

- **cls**
  
  [class] Class whose methods to decorate.

- **decorator**
  
  [function] Decorator to apply to methods

- **testmatch**
  
  [compiled regexp or str, optional] The regular expression. Default value is None, in which case the nose default (`re.compile(r'(?:^|\[\b_\.%s-])\[Tt\]est' % os.sep) is used. If `testmatch` is a string, it is compiled to a regular expression first.

### 4.27.4 Test Running

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<th>Description</th>
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<td>Run a test module.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rundocs</code> <em>(filename, raise_on_error)</em></td>
<td>Run doctests found in the given file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>suppress_warnings</code> <em>(forwarding_rule)</em></td>
<td>Context manager and decorator doing much the same as <code>warnings.catch_warnings</code>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tester** alias of `numpy.testing._private.nosetester.NoseTester`

**testing.run_module_suite** *(file_to_run=None, argv=None)*

Run a test module.

Equivalent to calling `$ nosetests <argv> <file_to_run>` from the command line

**Parameters**

- **file_to_run**

  [str, optional] Path to test module, or None. By default, run the module from which this function is called.

- **argv**

  [list of strings] Arguments to be passed to the nose test runner. `argv[0]` is ignored. All command line arguments accepted by `nosetests` will work. If it is the default value None, `sys.argv` is used.

  New in version 1.9.0.
Examples

Adding the following:

```python
if __name__ == "__main__":
    run_module_suite(argv=sys.argv)
```

at the end of a test module will run the tests when that module is called in the python interpreter.

Alternatively, calling:

```
>>> run_module_suite(file_to_run="numpy/tests/test_matlib.py")
```

from an interpreter will run all the test routine in 'test_matlib.py'.

```
testing.rundocs (filename=None, raise_on_error=True)
```

Run doctests found in the given file.

By default `rundocs` raises an `AssertionError` on failure.

**Parameters**

- `filename`
  - `[str]` The path to the file for which the doctests are run.

- `raise_on_error`
  - `[bool]` Whether to raise an `AssertionError` when a doctest fails. Default is True.

**Notes**

The doctests can be run by the user/developer by adding the `doctests` argument to the `test()` call. For example, to run all tests (including doctests) for `numpy.lib`:

```
>>> np.lib.test(doctests=True)
```

```
class numpy.testing.suppress_warnings (forwarding_rule='always')
```

Context manager and decorator doing much the same as `warnings.catch_warnings`.

However, it also provides a filter mechanism to work around https://bugs.python.org/issue4180.

This bug causes Python before 3.4 to not reliably show warnings again after they have been ignored once (even within `catch_warnings`). It means that no “ignore” filter can be used easily, since following tests might need to see the warning. Additionally it allows easier specificity for testing warnings and can be nested.

**Parameters**

- `forwarding_rule`
  - `[str, optional]` One of “always”, “once”, “module”, or “location”. Analogous to the usual warnings module filter mode, it is useful to reduce noise mostly on the outmost level. Unsuppressed and unrecorded warnings will be forwarded based on this rule. Defaults to “always”. “location” is equivalent to the warnings “default”, match by exact location the warning warning originated from.
Notes

Filters added inside the context manager will be discarded again when leaving it. Upon entering all filters defined outside a context will be applied automatically.

When a recording filter is added, matching warnings are stored in the `log` attribute as well as in the list returned by `record`.

If filters are added and the `module` keyword is given, the warning registry of this module will additionally be cleared when applying it, entering the context, or exiting it. This could cause warnings to appear a second time after leaving the context if they were configured to be printed once (default) and were already printed before the context was entered.

Nesting this context manager will work as expected when the forwarding rule is “always” (default). Unfiltered and unrecorded warnings will be passed out and be matched by the outer level. On the outmost level they will be printed (or caught by another warnings context). The forwarding rule argument can modify this behaviour.

Like `catch_warnings` this context manager is not threadsafe.

Examples

With a context manager:

```python
with np.testing.suppress_warnings() as sup:
    sup.filter(DeprecationWarning, "Some text")
    sup.filter(module=np.ma.core)
    log = sup.record(FutureWarning, "Does this occur?")
    command_giving_warnings()
    # The FutureWarning was given once, the filtered warnings were
    # ignored. All other warnings abide outside settings (may be
    # printed/error)
    assert_(len(log) == 1)
    assert_(len(sup.log) == 1)  # also stored in log attribute
```

Or as a decorator:

```python
sup = np.testing.suppress_warnings()
sup.filter(module=np.ma.core)  # module must match exactly
@sup
def some_function():
    # do something which causes a warning in np.ma.core
    pass
```

Methods

<table>
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<th>Method</th>
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<tr>
<td><code>__call__</code>(func)</td>
<td>Function decorator to apply certain suppressions to a whole function.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>filter([category, message, module])</code></td>
<td>Add a new suppressing filter or apply it if the state is entered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>record([category, message, module])</code></td>
<td>Append a new recording filter or apply it if the state is entered.</td>
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method
testing.suppress_warnings.__call__(func)
    Function decorator to apply certain suppressions to a whole function.

method
testing.suppress_warnings.filter(category=<class 'Warning'>, message=", module=None)
    Add a new suppressing filter or apply it if the state is entered.

Parameters

    category
        [class, optional] Warning class to filter

    message
        [string, optional] Regular expression matching the warning message.

    module
        [module, optional] Module to filter for. Note that the module (and its file) must match exactly
        and cannot be a submodule. This may make it unreliable for external modules.

Notes

    When added within a context, filters are only added inside the context and will be forgotten when the context
    is exited.

method
testing.suppress_warnings.record(category=<class 'Warning'>, message=", module=None)
    Append a new recording filter or apply it if the state is entered.

    All warnings matching will be appended to the log attribute.

Parameters

    category
        [class, optional] Warning class to filter

    message
        [string, optional] Regular expression matching the warning message.

    module
        [module, optional] Module to filter for. Note that the module (and its file) must match exactly
        and cannot be a submodule. This may make it unreliable for external modules.

Returns

    log
        [list] A list which will be filled with all matched warnings.
Notes

When added within a context, filters are only added inside the context and will be forgotten when the context is exited.

4.27.5 Guidelines

Testing Guidelines

Introduction

Until the 1.15 release, NumPy used the nose testing framework, it now uses the pytest framework. The older framework is still maintained in order to support downstream projects that use the old numpy framework, but all tests for NumPy should use pytest.

Our goal is that every module and package in NumPy should have a thorough set of unit tests. These tests should exercise the full functionality of a given routine as well as its robustness to erroneous or unexpected input arguments. Long experience has shown that by far the best time to write the tests is before you write or change the code - this is test-driven development. The arguments for this can sound rather abstract, but we can assure you that you will find that writing the tests first leads to more robust and better designed code. Well-designed tests with good coverage make an enormous difference to the ease of refactoring. Whenever a new bug is found in a routine, you should write a new test for that specific case and add it to the test suite to prevent that bug from creeping back in unnoticed.

Note: SciPy uses the testing framework from numpy.testing, so all of the NumPy examples shown below are also applicable to SciPy.

Testing NumPy

NumPy can be tested in a number of ways, choose any way you feel comfortable.

Running tests from inside Python

You can test an installed NumPy by numpy.test, for example, To run NumPy's full test suite, use the following:

```python
>>> import numpy
>>> numpy.test(label='slow')
```

The test method may take two or more arguments; the first label is a string specifying what should be tested and the second verbose is an integer giving the level of output verbosity. See the docstring numpy.test for details. The default value for label is ‘fast’ - which will run the standard tests. The string ‘full’ will run the full battery of tests, including those identified as being slow to run. If verbose is 1 or less, the tests will just show information messages about the tests that are run; but if it is greater than 1, then the tests will also provide warnings on missing tests. So if you want to run every test and get messages about which modules don’t have tests:

```python
>>> numpy.test(label='full', verbose=2) # or numpy.test('full', 2)
```

Finally, if you are only interested in testing a subset of NumPy, for example, the core module, use the following:

```python
>>> numpy.core.test()
```
Running tests from the command line

If you want to build NumPy in order to work on NumPy itself, use `runtests.py`. To run NumPy's full test suite:

```
$ python runtests.py
```

Testing a subset of NumPy:

```
$python runtests.py -t numpy/core/tests
```

For detailed info on testing, see testing-builds

Other methods of running tests

Run tests using your favourite IDE such as vscode or pycharm

Writing your own tests

If you are writing a package that you'd like to become part of NumPy, please write the tests as you develop the package. Every Python module, extension module, or subpackage in the NumPy package directory should have a corresponding `test_<name>.py` file. Pytest examines these files for test methods (named `test*`) and test classes (named `Test*`).

Suppose you have a NumPy module `numpy/xxx/yyy.py` containing a function `zzz()`. To test this function you would create a test module called `test_yyy.py`. If you only need to test one aspect of `zzz`, you can simply add a test function:

```python
def test_zzz():
    assert zzz() == 'Hello from zzz'
```

More often, we need to group a number of tests together, so we create a test class:

```python
import pytest

# import xxx symbols
from numpy.xxx.yyy import zzz
import pytest

class TestZzz:
    def test_simple(self):
        assert zzz() == 'Hello from zzz'

    def test_invalid_parameter(self):
        with pytest.raises(ValueError, match='.*some matching regex.*'):
            ...
```

Within these test methods, `assert` and related functions are used to test whether a certain assumption is valid. If the assertion fails, the test fails. `pytest` internally rewrites the `assert` statement to give informative output when it fails, so should be preferred over the legacy variant `numpy.testing.assert_`. Whereas plain `assert` statements are ignored when running Python in optimized mode with `-O`, this is not an issue when running tests with pytest.

Similarly, the `pytest` functions `pytest.raises` and `pytest.warns` should be preferred over their legacy counterparts `numpy.testing.assert_raises` and `numpy.testing.assert_warns`, since the `pytest` variants are more broadly used and allow more explicit targeting of warnings and errors when used with the `match` regex.

Note that `test_` functions or methods should not have a docstring, because that makes it hard to identify the test from the output of running the test suite with `verbose=2` (or similar verbosity setting). Use plain comments (`#`) if necessary.
Also since much of NumPy is legacy code that was originally written without unit tests, there are still several modules that don’t have tests yet. Please feel free to choose one of these modules and develop tests for it.

**Labeling tests**

Unlabeled tests like the ones above are run in the default `numpy.test()` run. If you want to label your test as slow - and therefore reserved for a full `numpy.test(label='full')` run, you can label it with `pytest.mark.slow`:

```python
import pytest

@pytest.mark.slow
def test_big(self):
    print('Big, slow test')
```

Similarly for methods:

```python
class test_zzz:
    @pytest.mark.slow
def test_simple(self):
        assert_(zzz() == 'Hello from zzz')
```

**Easier setup and teardown functions / methods**

Testing looks for module-level or class-level setup and teardown functions by name; thus:

```python
def setup():
    """Module-level setup""
    print('doing setup')

def teardown():
    """Module-level teardown""
    print('doing teardown')

class TestMe:
    def setup():
        """Class-level setup""
        print('doing setup')

    def teardown():
        """Class-level teardown""
        print('doing teardown')
```

Setup and teardown functions to functions and methods are known as “fixtures”, and their use is not encouraged.
Parametric tests

One very nice feature of testing is allowing easy testing across a range of parameters - a nasty problem for standard unit tests. Use the pytest.mark.parametrize decorator.

Doctests

Doctests are a convenient way of documenting the behavior of a function and allowing that behavior to be tested at the same time. The output of an interactive Python session can be included in the docstring of a function, and the test framework can run the example and compare the actual output to the expected output.

The doctests can be run by adding the doctests argument to the test() call; for example, to run all tests (including doctests) for numpy.lib:

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> np.lib.test(doctests=True)
```

The doctests are run as if they are in a fresh Python instance which has executed import numpy as np. Tests that are part of a NumPy subpackage will have that subpackage already imported. E.g. for a test in numpy/linalg/tests/, the namespace will be created such that from numpy import linalg has already executed.

tests/

Rather than keeping the code and the tests in the same directory, we put all the tests for a given subpackage in a tests/ subdirectory. For our example, if it doesn’t already exist you will need to create a tests/ directory in numpy/xxx/. So the path for test_yyy.py is numpy/xxx/tests/test_yyy.py.

Once the numpy/xxx/tests/test_yyy.py is written, its possible to run the tests by going to the tests/ directory and typing:

```bash
python test_yyy.py
```

Or if you add numpy/xxx/tests/ to the Python path, you could run the tests interactively in the interpreter like this:

```python
>>> import test_yyy
>>> test_yyy.test()
```

__init__.py and setup.py

Usually, however, adding the tests/ directory to the python path isn’t desirable. Instead it would better to invoke the test straight from the module xxx. To this end, simply place the following lines at the end of your package’s __init__.py file:

```python
...  
def test(level=1, verbosity=1):
    from numpy.testing import Tester
    return Tester().test(level, verbosity)
```

You will also need to add the tests directory in the configuration section of your setup.py:
def configuration(parent_package='', top_path=None):
    ...
    config.add_subpackage('tests')
    return config
    ...

Now you can do the following to test your module:

```python
>>> import numpy
>>> numpy.xxx.test()
```

Also, when invoking the entire NumPy test suite, your tests will be found and run:

```python
>>> import numpy
>>> numpy.test()
# your tests are included and run automatically!
```

**Tips & Tricks**

**Creating many similar tests**

If you have a collection of tests that must be run multiple times with minor variations, it can be helpful to create a base class containing all the common tests, and then create a subclass for each variation. Several examples of this technique exist in NumPy; below are excerpts from one in `numpy/linalg/tests/test_linalg.py`:

```python
class LinalgTestCase:
    def test_single(self):
        a = array([[1., 2.], [3., 4.]], dtype=single)
        b = array([2., 1.], dtype=single)
        self.do(a, b)

    def test_double(self):
        a = array([[1., 2.], [3., 4.]], dtype=double)
        b = array([2., 1.], dtype=double)
        self.do(a, b)

    ...

class TestSolve(LinalgTestCase):
    def do(self, a, b):
        x = linalg.solve(a, b)
        assert_allclose(b, dot(a, x))
        assert imply(isinstance(b, matrix), isinstance(x, matrix))

class TestInv(LinalgTestCase):
    def do(self, a, b):
        a_inv = linalg.inv(a)
        assert_allclose(dot(a, a_inv), identity(asarray(a).shape[0]))
        assert imply(isinstance(a, matrix), isinstance(a_inv, matrix))
```

In this case, we wanted to test solving a linear algebra problem using matrices of several data types, using `linalg.solve` and `linalg.inv`. The common test cases (for single-precision, double-precision, etc. matrices) are collected in `LinalgTestCase`. 
Known failures & skipping tests

Sometimes you might want to skip a test or mark it as a known failure, such as when the test suite is being written before the code it's meant to test, or if a test only fails on a particular architecture.

To skip a test, simply use `skipif`:

```python
import pytest

@pytest.mark.skipif(SkipMyTest, reason="Skipping this test because...")
def test_something(foo):
    ...
```

The test is marked as skipped if `SkipMyTest` evaluates to nonzero, and the message in verbose test output is the second argument given to `skipif`. Similarly, a test can be marked as a known failure by using `xfail`:

```python
import pytest

@pytest.mark.xfail(MyTestFails, reason="This test is known to fail because...")
def test_something_else(foo):
    ...
```

Of course, a test can be unconditionally skipped or marked as a known failure by using `skip` or `xfail` without argument, respectively.

A total of the number of skipped and known failing tests is displayed at the end of the test run. Skipped tests are marked as 'S' in the test results (or 'SKIPPED' for `verbose > 1`), and known failing tests are marked as 'x' (or 'XFAIL' if `verbose > 1`).

Tests on random data

Tests on random data are good, but since test failures are meant to expose new bugs or regressions, a test that passes most of the time but fails occasionally with no code changes is not helpful. Make the random data deterministic by setting the random number seed before generating it. Use either Python's `random.seed(some_number)` or NumPy's `numpy.random.seed(some_number)`, depending on the source of random numbers.

Alternatively, you can use Hypothesis to generate arbitrary data. Hypothesis manages both Python's and NumPy's random seeds for you, and provides a very concise and powerful way to describe data (including `hypothesis.extra.numpy`, e.g. for a set of mutually-broadcastable shapes).

The advantages over random generation include tools to replay and share failures without requiring a fixed seed, reporting minimal examples for each failure, and better-than-naive-random techniques for triggering bugs.

Documentation for `numpy.test`

`numpy.test` (label='fast', verbose=1, extra_argv=None, doctests=False, coverage=False, durations=-1, tests=None)

Pytest test runner.

A test function is typically added to a package's `__init__.py` like so:

```python
from numpy._pytesttester import PytestTester
test = PytestTester(__name__).test
del PytestTester
```

Calling this test function finds and runs all tests associated with the module and all its sub-modules.
Parameters

module_name

[module name] The name of the module to test.

Notes

Unlike the previous nose-based implementation, this class is not publicly exposed as it performs some numpy-specific warning suppression.

Attributes

module_name

[str] Full path to the package to test.

4.28 Window functions

4.28.1 Various windows

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<td>Return the Blackman window.</td>
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<td>hamming(M)</td>
<td>Return the Hamming window.</td>
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<tr>
<td>hanning(M)</td>
<td>Return the Hanning window.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaiser(M, beta)</td>
<td>Return the Kaiser window.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

numpy.bartlett(M)

Return the Bartlett window.

The Bartlett window is very similar to a triangular window, except that the end points are at zero. It is often used in signal processing for tapering a signal, without generating too much ripple in the frequency domain.

Parameters

M

[int] Number of points in the output window. If zero or less, an empty array is returned.

Returns

out

[array] The triangular window, with the maximum value normalized to one (the value one appears only if the number of samples is odd), with the first and last samples equal to zero.

See also:

blackman, hamming, hanning, kaiser
Notes

The Bartlett window is defined as

\[ w(n) = \frac{2}{M-1} \left( \frac{M-1}{2} - \left| n - \frac{M-1}{2} \right| \right) \]

Most references to the Bartlett window come from the signal processing literature, where it is used as one of many windowing functions for smoothing values. Note that convolution with this window produces linear interpolation. It is also known as an apodization (which means “removing the foot”, i.e. smoothing discontinuities at the beginning and end of the sampled signal) or tapering function. The fourier transform of the Bartlett is the product of two sinc functions. Note the excellent discussion in Kanasewich.

References

[1], [2], [3], [4], [5]

Examples

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> np.bartlett(12)
array([ 0. , 0.18181818, 0.36363636, 0.54545455, 0.72727273, # may vary
       0.90909091, 0.90909091, 0.72727273, 0.54545455, 0.36363636,
       0.18181818, 0. ])
Plot the window and its frequency response (requires SciPy and matplotlib):
```
The Blackman window is a taper formed by using the first three terms of a summation of cosines. It was designed to have close to the minimal leakage possible. It is close to optimal, only slightly worse than a Kaiser window.

**Parameters**

- `M`  
  [int] Number of points in the output window. If zero or less, an empty array is returned.
Returns

out

[ndarray] The window, with the maximum value normalized to one (the value one appears only if the number of samples is odd).

See also:

*bartlett*, *hamming*, *hanning*, *kaiser*

Notes

The Blackman window is defined as

\[ w(n) = 0.42 - 0.5 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n}{M}\right) + 0.08 \cos\left(\frac{4\pi n}{M}\right) \]

Most references to the Blackman window come from the signal processing literature, where it is used as one of many windowing functions for smoothing values. It is also known as an apodization (which means “removing the foot”, i.e. smoothing discontinuities at the beginning and end of the sampled signal) or tapering function. It is known as a “near optimal” tapering function, almost as good (by some measures) as the kaiser window.

References


Examples

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> np.blackman(12)
array([-1.38777878e-17,  3.26064346e-02,  1.59903635e-01, # may vary
       4.14397981e-01,  7.36045180e-01,  9.67046769e-01,
       9.67046769e-01,  7.36045180e-01,  4.14397981e-01,
       1.59903635e-01,  3.26064346e-02, -1.38777878e-17])
```

Plot the window and the frequency response:

```python
>>> from numpy.fft import fft, fftshift
>>> window = np.blackman(51)
>>> plt.plot(window)
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.title("Blackman window")
Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Blackman window')
>>> plt.ylabel("Amplitude")
Text(0, 0.5, 'Amplitude')
>>> plt.xlabel("Sample")
Text(0.5, 0, 'Sample')
>>> plt.show()
```
Blackman window

```python
>>> plt.figure()
<Figure size 640x480 with 0 Axes>
>>> A = fft(window, 2048) / 25.5
>>> mag = np.abs(fftshift(A))
>>> freq = np.linspace(-0.5, 0.5, len(A))
>>> with np.errstate(divide='ignore', invalid='ignore'):
...    response = 20 * np.log10(mag)
...
>>> response = np.clip(response, -100, 100)
>>> plt.plot(freq, response)
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.title("Frequency response of Blackman window")
Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Frequency response of Blackman window')
>>> plt.xlabel("Normalized frequency [cycles per sample]"
Text(0.5, 0, 'Normalized frequency [cycles per sample]')
>>> _ = plt.axis('tight')
>>> plt.show()
```

numpy.hamming(M)

Return the Hamming window.

The Hamming window is a taper formed by using a weighted cosine.

Parameters

- **M**
  
  [int] Number of points in the output window. If zero or less, an empty array is returned.

Returns

- **out**
  
  [ndarray] The window, with the maximum value normalized to one (the value one appears only if the number of samples is odd).
See also:

* bartlett, blackman, hanning, kaiser *

Notes

The Hamming window is defined as

\[
w(n) = 0.54 - 0.46 \cos \left( \frac{2\pi n}{M-1} \right) \quad 0 \leq n \leq M - 1
\]

The Hamming was named for R. W. Hamming, an associate of J. W. Tukey and is described in Blackman and Tukey. It was recommended for smoothing the truncated autocovariance function in the time domain. Most references to the Hamming window come from the signal processing literature, where it is used as one of many windowing functions for smoothing values. It is also known as an apodization (which means “removing the foot”, i.e. smoothing discontinuities at the beginning and end of the sampled signal) or tapering function.

References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

```python
>>> np.hamming(12)
array([ 0.08 , 0.15302337, 0.34890909, 0.60546483, 0.84123594, # may vary
          0.98136677, 0.98136677, 0.84123594, 0.60546483, 0.34890909,
          0.98136677, 0.98136677, 0.84123594, 0.60546483, 0.34890909,
          0.15302337, 0.08 ])
```

Plot the window and the frequency response:
```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from numpy.fft import fft, fftshift
>>> window = np.hamming(51)
>>> plt.plot(window)
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.title("Hamming window")
Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Hamming window')
>>> plt.ylabel("Amplitude")
Text(0, 0.5, 'Amplitude')
>>> plt.xlabel("Sample")
Text(0.5, 0, 'Sample')
>>> plt.show()
```

```python
>>> plt.figure()
<Figure size 640x480 with 0 Axes>
>>> A = fft(window, 2048) / 25.5
>>> mag = np.abs(fftshift(A))
>>> freq = np.linspace(-0.5, 0.5, len(A))
>>> response = 20 * np.log10(mag)
>>> response = np.clip(response, -100, 100)
>>> plt.plot(freq, response)
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.title("Frequency response of Hamming window")
Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Frequency response of Hamming window')
>>> plt.ylabel("Magnitude [dB]")
Text(0, 0.5, 'Magnitude [dB]')
>>> plt.xlabel("Normalized frequency [cycles per sample]"
Text(0.5, 0, 'Normalized frequency [cycles per sample]')
>>> plt.axis('tight')
...
>>> plt.show()
```

`numpy.hamming(M)`

Return the Hanning window.

The Hanning window is a taper formed by using a weighted cosine.
Parameters

M

[int] Number of points in the output window. If zero or less, an empty array is returned.

Returns

out

[ndarray, shape(M,)] The window, with the maximum value normalized to one (the value one appears only if M is odd).

See also:

bartlett, blackman, hamming, kaiser

Notes

The Hanning window is defined as

\[ w(n) = 0.5 - 0.5 \cos \left( \frac{2\pi n}{M-1} \right) \quad 0 \leq n \leq M - 1 \]

The Hanning was named for Julius von Hann, an Austrian meteorologist. It is also known as the Cosine Bell. Some authors prefer that it be called a Hann window, to help avoid confusion with the very similar Hamming window.

Most references to the Hanning window come from the signal processing literature, where it is used as one of many windowing functions for smoothing values. It is also known as an apodization (which means “removing the foot”, i.e. smoothing discontinuities at the beginning and end of the sampled signal) or tapering function.
References

[1], [2], [3], [4]

Examples

```python
>>> np.hanning(12)
aarray([0.        , 0.07937323, 0.29229249, 0.57115742, 0.82743037, 
        0.97974649, 0.97974649, 0.82743037, 0.57115742, 0.29229249, 
        0.07937323, 0.        ])
```

Plot the window and its frequency response:

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> from numpy.fft import fft, fftshift
>>> window = np.hanning(51)
>>> plt.plot(window)
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0xin...>]
>>> plt.title("Hann window")
Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Hann window')
>>> plt.ylabel("Amplitude")
Text(0, 0.5, 'Amplitude')
>>> plt.xlabel("Sample")
Text(0.5, 0, 'Sample')
>>> plt.show()
```

![Hann window plot](image)

```python
>>> plt.figure()
<Figure size 640x480 with 0 Axes>
>>> A = fft(window, 2048) / 25.5
>>> mag = np.abs(fftshift(A))
>>> freq = np.linspace(-0.5, 0.5, len(A))
>>> with np.errstate(divide='ignore', invalid='ignore'):
...    response = 20 * np.log10(mag)
...    
>>> response = np.clip(response, -100, 100)
```
>>> plt.plot(freq, response)
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.title("Frequency response of the Hann window")
Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Frequency response of the Hann window')
>>> plt.ylabel("Magnitude [dB]")
Text(0, 0.5, 'Magnitude [dB]')
>>> plt.xlabel("Normalized frequency [cycles per sample]")
Text(0.5, 0, 'Normalized frequency [cycles per sample]')
>>> plt.axis('tight')
...
>>> plt.show()

```

numpy.kaiser(M, beta)
Return the Kaiser window.

The Kaiser window is a taper formed by using a Bessel function.

Parameters

M
[int] Number of points in the output window. If zero or less, an empty array is returned.

beta
[float] Shape parameter for window.

Returns

out
[array] The window, with the maximum value normalized to one (the value one appears only if the number of samples is odd).

See also:

bartlett, blackman, hamming, hanning
```
Notes

The Kaiser window is defined as

\[ w(n) = I_0 \left( \beta \sqrt{1 - \frac{4n^2}{(M - 1)^2}} \right) / I_0(\beta) \]

with

\[-\frac{M - 1}{2} \leq n \leq \frac{M - 1}{2},\]

where \( I_0 \) is the modified zeroth-order Bessel function.

The Kaiser was named for Jim Kaiser, who discovered a simple approximation to the DPSS window based on Bessel functions. The Kaiser window is a very good approximation to the Digital Prolate Spheroidal Sequence, or Slepian window, which is the transform which maximizes the energy in the main lobe of the window relative to total energy.

The Kaiser can approximate many other windows by varying the beta parameter.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>beta</th>
<th>Window shape</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Rectangular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Similar to a Hamming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Similar to a Hanning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>Similar to a Blackman</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A beta value of 14 is probably a good starting point. Note that as beta gets large, the window narrows, and so the number of samples needs to be large enough to sample the increasingly narrow spike, otherwise NaNs will get returned.

Most references to the Kaiser window come from the signal processing literature, where it is used as one of many windowing functions for smoothing values. It is also known as an apodization (which means “removing the foot”, i.e. smoothing discontinuities at the beginning and end of the sampled signal) or tapering function.

References

[1], [2], [3]

Examples

```python
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> import numpy

>>> np.kaiser(12, 14)
a
array([7.72686684e-06, 3.46009194e-03, 4.65200189e-02, 2.29737120e-01, 5.99885316e-01, 9.45674898e-01, 9.45674898e-01, 5.99885316e-01, 2.29737120e-01, 4.65200189e-02, 3.46009194e-03, 7.72686684e-06])
```

Plot the window and the frequency response:

```python
>>> from numpy.fft import fft, fftshift
>>> window = np.kaiser(51, 14)
>>> plt.plot(window)

[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
```

(continues on next page)
>>> plt.title("Kaiser window")
Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Kaiser window')
>>> plt.ylabel("Amplitude")
Text(0, 0.5, 'Amplitude')
>>> plt.xlabel("Sample")
Text(0.5, 0, 'Sample')
>>> plt.show()

Kaiser window

>>> plt.figure()
<Figure size 640x480 with 0 Axes>
>>> A = fft(window, 2048) / 25.5
>>> mag = np.abs(fftsfft(A))
>>> freq = np.linspace(-0.5, 0.5, len(A))
>>> response = 20 * np.log10(mag)
>>> response = np.clip(response, -100, 100)
>>> plt.plot(freq, response)
[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D object at 0x...>]
>>> plt.title("Frequency response of Kaiser window")
Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Frequency response of Kaiser window')
>>> plt.ylabel("Magnitude [dB]")
Text(0, 0.5, 'Magnitude [dB]')
>>> plt.xlabel("Normalized frequency [cycles per sample]")
Text(0.5, 0, 'Normalized frequency [cycles per sample]')
>>> plt.axis('tight')
(-0.5, 0.5, -100.0, ...) # may vary
>>> plt.show()
4.28. Window functions
### Warning

Some of the types in this module rely on features only present in the standard library in Python 3.8 and greater. If you want to use these types in earlier versions of Python, you should install the `typing-extensions` package.

Large parts of the NumPy API have PEP-484-style type annotations. In addition a number of type aliases are available to users, most prominently the two below:

- `ArrayLike`: objects that can be converted to arrays
- `DTypeLike`: objects that can be converted to dtypes

## 5.1 Mypy plugin

A `mypy` plugin is distributed in `numpy.typing` for managing a number of platform-specific annotations. Its function can be split into two parts:

- Assigning the (platform-dependent) precisions of certain `number` subclasses, including the likes of `int_`, `intp` and `longlong`. See the documentation on `scalar types` for a comprehensive overview of the affected classes. Without the plugin the precision of all relevant classes will be inferred as `Any`.
- Removing all extended-precision `number` subclasses that are unavailable for the platform in question. Most notable this includes the likes of `float128` and `complex256`. Without the plugin all extended-precision types will, as far as mypy is concerned, be available to all platforms.

To enable the plugin, one must add it to their mypy configuration file:

```ini
[mypy]
plugins = numpy.typing.mypy_plugin
```

## 5.2 Differences from the runtime NumPy API

NumPy is very flexible. Trying to describe the full range of possibilities statically would result in types that are not very helpful. For that reason, the typed NumPy API is often stricter than the runtime NumPy API. This section describes some notable differences.
5.2.1 ArrayLike

The `ArrayLike` type tries to avoid creating object arrays. For example,

```python
>>> np.array(x**2 for x in range(10))
array(<generator object <genexpr> at ...>, dtype=object)
```

is valid NumPy code which will create a 0-dimensional object array. Type checkers will complain about the above example when using the NumPy types however. If you really intended to do the above, then you can either use a `# type: ignore` comment:

```python
>>> np.array(x**2 for x in range(10))  # type: ignore
```

or explicitly type the array like object as `Any`:

```python
>>> from typing import Any
>>> array_like: Any = {x**2 for x in range(10)}
>>> np.array(array_like)
array(<generator object <genexpr> at ...>, dtype=object)
```

5.2.2 ndarray

It's possible to mutate the dtype of an array at runtime. For example, the following code is valid:

```python
>>> x = np.array([1, 2])
>>> x.dtype = np.bool_
```

This sort of mutation is not allowed by the types. Users who want to write statically typed code should instead use the `numpy.ndarray.view` method to create a view of the array with a different dtype.

5.2.3 DtypeLike

The `DTypeLike` type tries to avoid creation of dtype objects using dictionary of fields like below:

```python
>>> x = np.dtype("field1": (float, 1), "field2": (int, 3))
```

Although this is valid NumPy code, the type checker will complain about it, since its usage is discouraged. Please see: `Data type objects`

5.2.4 Number precision

The precision of `numpy.number` subclasses is treated as a covariant generic parameter (see `NBitBase`), simplifying the annotating of processes involving precision-based casting.

```python
>>> from typing import TypeVar
>>> import numpy as np
>>> import numpy.typing as npt

>>> T = TypeVar("T", bound=npt.NBitBase)
>>> def func(a: "np.floating[T]", b: "np.floating[T]") -> "np.floating[T]":
...  ...
```

Consequently, the likes of `float16`, `float32` and `float64` are still sub-types of `floating`, but, contrary to runtime, they're not necessarily considered as sub-classes.
5.2.5 Timedelta64

The `timedelta64` class is not considered a subclass of `signedinteger`, the former only inheriting from `generic` while static type checking.

5.2.6 0D arrays

During runtime numpy aggressively casts any passed 0D arrays into their corresponding `generic` instance. Until the introduction of shape typing (see PEP 646) it is unfortunately not possible to make the necessary distinction between 0D and >0D arrays. While thus not strictly correct, all operations are that can potentially perform a 0D-array -> scalar cast are currently annotated as exclusively returning an `ndarray`.

If it is known in advance that an operation _will_ perform a 0D-array -> scalar cast, then one can consider manually remedying the situation with either `typing.cast` or a `# type: ignore` comment.

5.3 API

`numpy.typing.ArrayLike = typing.Union[...]`

A `Union` representing objects that can be coerced into an `ndarray`.

Among others this includes the likes of:

- Scalars.
- (Nested) sequences.
- Objects implementing the `__array__` protocol.

See Also

`array_like`:

Any scalar or sequence that can be interpreted as an ndarray.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> import numpy.typing as npt

>>> def as_array(a: npt.ArrayLike) -> np.ndarray:
...     return np.array(a)
```

`numpy.typing.DTypeLike = typing.Union[...]`

A `Union` representing objects that can be coerced into a `dtype`.

Among others this includes the likes of:

- `type` objects.
- Character codes or the names of `type` objects.
- Objects with the `.dtype` attribute.

See Also
Specifying and constructing data types

A comprehensive overview of all objects that can be coerced into data types.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> import numpy.typing as npt

>>> def as_dtype(d: npt.DTypeLike) -> np.dtype:
...    return np.dtype(d)
```

```
numpy.typing.NDArray = numpy.ndarray[typing.Any, numpy.dtype[+ScalarType]]
```

A generic version of `numpy.ndarray[typing.Any, numpy.dtype[+ScalarType]]`.

Can be used during runtime for typing arrays with a given dtype and unspecified shape.

Examples

```python
>>> import numpy as np
>>> import numpy.typing as npt

>>> print(npt.NDArray)
numpy.ndarray[typing.Any, numpy.dtype[+ScalarType]]

>>> print(npt.NDArray[np.float64])
numpy.ndarray[typing.Any, numpy.dtype[numpy.float64]]

>>> NDArrayInt = npt.NDArray[np.int_]
>>> a: NDArrayInt = np.arange(10)

>>> def func(a: npt.ArrayLike) -> npt.NDArray[typing.Any]:
...    return np.array(a)
```

```
final class numpy.typing.NBitBase
An object representing numpy.number precision during static type checking.

Used exclusively for the purpose static type checking, NBitBase represents the base of a hierarchical set of subclasses. Each subsequent subclass is herein used for representing a lower level of precision, e.g. 64Bit > 32Bit > 16Bit.

Examples

Below is a typical usage example: NBitBase is herein used for annotating a function that takes a float and integer of arbitrary precision as arguments and returns a new float of whichever precision is largest (e.g. np.float16 + np.int64 -> np.float64).

```python
>>> from __future__ import annotations
>>> from typing import TypeVar, Union, TYPE_CHECKING

>>> import numpy as np
>>> import numpy.typing as npt

>>> T1 = TypeVar("T1", bound=npt.NBitBase)
```

(continues on next page)
>>> T2 = TypeVar("T2", bound=npt.NBitBase)

>>> def add(a: np.float64[T1], b: np.integer[T2]) -> np.float64[Union[T1, T2]]:
...     return a + b

>>> a = np.float64()
>>> b = np.int64()
>>> out = add(a, b)

>>> if TYPE_CHECKING:
...     reveal_locals()
...
...     # note: Revealed local types are:
...     ...     # note: a: numpy.float64[numpy.typing._16Bit*]
...     ...     # note: b: numpy.signedinteger[numpy.typing._64Bit*]
...     ...     # note: out: numpy.float64[numpy.typing._64Bit*]
NumPy has a few import-time, compile-time, or runtime options which change the global behaviour. Most of these are related to performance or for debugging purposes and will not be interesting to the vast majority of users.

### 6.1 Performance-Related Options

#### 6.1.1 Number of Threads used for Linear Algebra

NumPy itself is normally intentionally limited to a single thread during function calls, however it does support multiple Python threads running at the same time. Note that for performant linear algebra NumPy uses a BLAS backend such as OpenBLAS or MKL, which may use multiple threads that may be controlled by environment variables such as `OMP_NUM_THREADS` depending on what is used. One way to control the number of threads is the package `threadpoolctl`.

#### 6.1.2 Madvise Hugepage on Linux

When working with very large arrays on modern Linux kernels, you can experience a significant speedup when transparent hugepage is used. The current system policy for transparent hugepages can be seen by:

```
cat /sys/kernel/mm/transparent_hugepage/enabled
```

When set to `madvise` NumPy will typically use hugepages for a performance boost. This behaviour can be modified by setting the environment variable:

```
NUMPY_MADVISE_HUGEPAGE=0
```

or setting it to 1 to always enable it. When not set, the default is to use madvise on Kernels 4.6 and newer. These kernels presumably experience a large speedup with hugepage support. This flag is checked at import time.

### 6.2 Interoperability-Related Options

The array function protocol which allows array-like objects to hook into the NumPy API is currently enabled by default. This option exists since NumPy 1.16 and is enabled by default since NumPy 1.17. It can be disabled using:

```
NUMPY_EXPERIMENTAL_ARRAY_FUNCTION=0
```

See also `numpy.class.__array_function__` for more information. This flag is checked at import time.
6.3 Debugging-Related Options

6.3.1 Relaxed Strides Checking

The compile-time environment variables:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NPY_RELAXED_STRIDES_DEBUG</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPY_RELAXED_STRIDES_CHECKING</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

control how NumPy reports contiguity for arrays. The default that it is enabled and the debug mode is disabled. This setting should always be enabled. Setting the debug option can be interesting for testing code written in C which iterates through arrays that may or may not be contiguous in memory. Most users will have no reason to change these; for details see the memory layout documentation.
NumPy provides enhanced distutils functionality to make it easier to build and install sub-packages, auto-generate code, and extension modules that use Fortran-compiled libraries. To use features of NumPy distutils, use the `setup` command from `numpy.distutils.core`. A useful `Configuration` class is also provided in `numpy.distutils.misc_util` that can make it easier to construct keyword arguments to pass to the setup function (by passing the dictionary obtained from the todict() method of the class). More information is available in the *NumPy Distutils - Users Guide*.

The choice and location of linked libraries such as BLAS and LAPACK as well as include paths and other such build options can be specified in a `site.cfg` file located in the NumPy root repository or a `.numpy-site.cfg` file in your home directory. See the `site.cfg.example` example file included in the NumPy repository or `sdist` for documentation.

### 7.1 Modules in `numpy.distutils`

#### 7.1.1 distutils.misc_util

- `numpy.distutils.misc_util.all_strings(lst)`: Return True if all items in lst are string objects.
- `numpy.distutils.misc_util.allpath(name)`: Convert a /-separated pathname to one using the OS's path separator.
- `numpy.distutils.misc_util.appendpath(prefix, path)`: Add `prefix` to `path`.
- `numpy.distutils.misc_util.as_list(seq)`: Convert a sequence to a list.
- `numpy.distutils.misc_util.blue_text(s)`: Return blue text.
- `numpy.distutils.misc_util.cyan_text(s)`: Return cyan text.
- `numpy.distutils.misc_util.cyg2win32(path)`: Convert Windows path to cygwin path.
- `numpy.distutils.misc_util.default_config_dict(name=None, parent_name=None, local_path=None)`: Return a configuration dictionary for usage in configuration() function defined in file setup_<name>.py.
- `numpy.distutils.misc_util.dict_append(d, **kws)`: Add key-value pairs to dictionary `d`.
numpy.distutils.misc_util.dot_join(*args)

numpy.distutils.misc_util.filter_sources(sources)
    Return four lists of filenames containing C, C++, Fortran, and Fortran 90 module sources, respectively.

numpy.distutils.misc_util.generate_config_py(target)
    Generate config.py file containing system_info information used during building the package.

    Usage:
    config['py_modules'].append((packagename, '__config___.generate_config_py))

numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_build_architecture()

numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_cmd(cmdname, _cache={})

numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_data_files(data)

numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_dependencies(sources)

numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_ext_source_files(ext)

numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_frame(level=0)
    Return frame object from call stack with given level.

numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_info(pkgname, dirs=None)
    Return an info dict for a given C library.

    The info dict contains the necessary options to use the C library.

    Parameters

    pkgname
        [str] Name of the package (should match the name of the .ini file, without the extension, e.g. foo for the file foo.ini).

    dirs
        [sequence, optional] If given, should be a sequence of additional directories where to look for npy-pkg-config files. Those directories are searched prior to the NumPy directory.

    Returns

    info
        [dict] The dictionary with build information.

    Raises

    PkgNotFound
        If the package is not found.

    See also:

    Configuration.add_npy_pkg_config, Configuration.add_installed_library
**get_pkg_info**

### Examples

To get the necessary information for the npymath library from NumPy:

```python
>>> npymath_info = np.distutils.misc_util.get_info('npymath')
>>> npymath_info
{'define_macros': [], 'libraries': ['npymath'], 'library_dirs': ['./numpy/core/lib'], 'include_dirs': ['./numpy/core/include']}
```

This info dict can then be used as input to a `Configuration` instance:

```python
config.add_extension('foo', sources=['foo.c'], extra_info=npymath_info)
```

**numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_language** *(sources)*

Determine language value (c,f77,f90) from sources

**numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_lib_source_files** *(lib)*

**numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_mathlibs** *(path=\texttt{\textbf{None}})*

Return the MATHLIB line from numpyconfig.h

**numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_num_build_jobs** *

Get number of parallel build jobs set by the –parallel command line argument of setup.py If the command did not receive a setting the environment variable NPY_NUM_BUILD_JOBS is checked. If that is unset, return the number of processors on the system, with a maximum of 8 (to prevent overloading the system if there a lot of CPUs).

**Returns**

out

[int] number of parallel jobs that can be run

**numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_numpy_include_dirs** *

**numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_pkg_info** *(pkname, dirs=\texttt{\textbf{None}})*

Return library info for the given package.

**Parameters**

pkname

[\texttt{\textbf{str}}] Name of the package (should match the name of the .ini file, without the extension, e.g. foo for the file foo.ini).

dirs

[sequence, optional] If given, should be a sequence of additional directories where to look for npy-pkg-config files. Those directories are searched prior to the NumPy directory.

**Returns**

pkginfo

[class instance] The `LibraryInfo` instance containing the build information.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

Raises

PkgNotFound
If the package is not found.

See also:

Configuration.add_npy_pkg_config, Configuration.add_installed_library

get_info
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.get_script_files(scripts)
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.gpaths(paths, local_path=", include_non_existing=True)

Apply glob to paths and prepend local_path if needed.
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.green_text(s)
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.has_cxx_sources(sources)

Return True if sources contains C++ files
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.has_f_sources(sources)

Return True if sources contains Fortran files
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.is_local_src_dir(directory)

Return true if directory is local directory.
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.is_sequence(seq)
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.is_string(s)
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.mingw32()

Return true when using mingw32 environment.
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.minrelpath(path)

Resolve and ' from path.
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.njoin(*path)

Join two or more pathname components + - convert a /-separated path name to one using the OS's path separator.

- resolve and from path.

Either passing n arguments as in njoin('a','b'), or a sequence of n names as in njoin(['a','b']) is handled, or a mixture of such arguments.
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.quote_args(args)
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.red_text(s)
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.terminal_has_colors()
	numpy.distutils.misc_util.yellow_text(s)
**ccompiler**

**ccompiler_opt**

Provides the `CCompilerOpt` class, used for handling the CPU/hardware optimization, starting from parsing the command arguments, to managing the relation between the CPU baseline and dispatch-able features, also generating the required C headers and ending with compiling the sources with proper compiler’s flags.

**cpuinfo.cpu**

**core.Extension**(name, sources[, ...])

### Parameters

- **exec_command**
  - **log.set_verbosity**(v[, force])

- **system_info.get_info**(name[, notfound_action])
  - **system_info.get_standard_file**(fname)

  Returns a list of files named ‘fname’ from 1) System-wide directory (directory-location of this module) 2) Users HOME directory (os.environ['HOME']) 3) Local directory

### Functions

- **CCompiler_compile**(self, sources[, ...])
  - Compile one or more source files.

- **CCompiler_customize**(self, dist[, need_cxx])
  - Do any platform-specific customization of a compiler instance.

- **CCompiler_customize_cmd**(self, cmd[, ignore])
  - Customize compiler using distutils command.

- **CCompiler_cxx_compiler**(self)
  - Return the C++ compiler.

- **CCompiler_find_executables**(self)
  - Does nothing here, but is called by the get_version method and can be overridden by subclasses.

- **CCompiler_get_version**(self[, force, ok_status])
  - Return compiler version, or None if compiler is not available.

- **CCompiler_object_filenames**(self, ...[, ...])
  - Return the name of the object files for the given source files.

- **CCompiler_show_customization**(self)
  - Print the compiler customizations to stdout.

- **CCompiler_spawn**(self, cmd[, display])
  - Execute a command in a sub-process.

- **gen_lib_options**(compiler, library_dirs, ...)

- **new_compiler**(plat, compiler, verbose, ...)

- **replace_method**(klass, method_name, func)

- **simple_version_match**(pat, ignore, start)
  - Simple matching of version numbers, for use in CCompiler and FCompiler.
distutils.ccompiler.CCompiler_compile(self, sources, output_dir=None, macros=None, 
    include_dirs=None, debug=0, extra_preargs=None, 
    extra_postargs=None, depends=None)

Compile one or more source files.
Please refer to the Python distutils API reference for more details.

Parameters

  sources
    [list of str] A list of filenames

  output_dir
    [str, optional] Path to the output directory.

  macros
    [list of tuples] A list of macro definitions.

  include_dirs
    [list of str, optional] The directories to add to the default include file search path for this compilation only.

  debug
    [bool, optional] Whether or not to output debug symbols in or alongside the object file(s).

  extra_preargs, extra_postargs
    [?] Extra pre- and post-arguments.

  depends
    [list of str, optional] A list of file names that all targets depend on.

Returns

  objects
    [list of str] A list of object file names, one per source file sources.

Raises

  CompileError
    If compilation fails.

distutils.ccompiler.CCompiler_customize(self, dist, need_cxx=0)

Do any platform-specific customization of a compiler instance.

This method calls distutils.sysconfig.customize_compiler for platform-specific customization, as well as optionally remove a flag to suppress spurious warnings in case C++ code is being compiled.

Parameters

  dist
    [object] This parameter is not used for anything.
need_cxx

[bool, optional] Whether or not C++ has to be compiled. If so (True), the
"-Wstrict-prototypes" option is removed to prevent spurious warnings. Default is
False.

Returns

None

Notes

All the default options used by distutils can be extracted with:

```python
from distutils import sysconfig
sysconfig.get_config_vars('CC', 'CXX', 'OPT', 'BASECFLAGS',
'CCSHARED', 'LDSHARED', 'SO')
```

distutils.ccompiler.CCompiler_customize_cmd(self, cmd, ignore=())

Customize compiler using distutils command.

Parameters

cmd


ignore

[sequence of str, optional] List of CCompiler commands (without 'set_') that
should not be altered. Strings that are checked for are: ('include_dirs',
'define', 'undef', 'libraries', 'library_dirs', 'rpath',
'link_objects').

Returns

None

distutils.ccompiler.CCompiler_cxx_compiler(self)

Return the C++ compiler.

Parameters

None

Returns

cxx

[class instance] The C++ compiler, as a CCompiler instance.

distutils.ccompiler.CCompiler_find_executables(self)

Does nothing here, but is called by the get_version method and can be overridden by subclasses. In particular it is
redefined in the FCompiler class where more documentation can be found.

distutils.ccompiler.CCompiler_get_version(self, force=False, ok_status=[0])

Return compiler version, or None if compiler is not available.
Parameters

force
[bool, optional] If True, force a new determination of the version, even if the compiler already has a version attribute. Default is False.

ok_status
[list of int, optional] The list of status values returned by the version look-up process for which a version string is returned. If the status value is not in ok_status, None is returned. Default is [0].

Returns

version

distutils.ccompiler.CCompiler_object_filenames (self, source_filenames, strip_dir=0, output_dir="")
Return the name of the object files for the given source files.

Parameters

source_filenames
[list of str] The list of paths to source files. Paths can be either relative or absolute, this is handled transparently.

strip_dir
[bool, optional] Whether to strip the directory from the returned paths. If True, the file name prepended by output_dir is returned. Default is False.

output_dir
[str, optional] If given, this path is prepended to the returned paths to the object files.

Returns

obj_names
[list of str] The list of paths to the object files corresponding to the source files in source_filenames.

distutils.ccompiler.CCompiler_show_customization (self)
Print the compiler customizations to stdout.

Parameters

None

Returns

None
Notes

Printing is only done if the distutils log threshold is < 2.

```
distutils.ccompiler.CCompiler_spawn (self, cmd, display=None)
```

Execute a command in a sub-process.

Parameters

```cmd```

[Optional] The command to execute.

```display```

[Optional] The text to add to the log file kept by `numpy.distutils`. If not given, `display` is equal to `cmd`.

Returns

None

Raises

`DistutilsExecError`

If the command failed, i.e. the exit status was not 0.

```
distutils.ccompiler.gen_lib_options (compiler, library_dirs, runtime_library_dirs, libraries)
```

```
distutils.ccompiler.new_compiler (plat=None, compiler=None, verbose=None, dry_run=0, force=0)
```

```
distutils.ccompiler.replace_method (klass, method_name, func)
```

```
distutils.ccompiler.simple_version_match (pat='[-.\d]+', ignore='', start='')
```

Simple matching of version numbers, for use in CCompiler and FCompiler.

Parameters

```pat```


```ignore```

[Optional] A regular expression matching patterns to skip. Default is `' '`, in which case nothing is skipped.

```start```

[Optional] A regular expression matching the start of where to start looking for version numbers. Default is `' '`, in which case searching is started at the beginning of the version string given to `matcher`.

Returns
matcher

[callable] A function that is appropriate to use as the .version_match attribute of a CCompiler class. matcher takes a single parameter, a version string.

Provides the CCompilerOpt class, used for handling the CPU/hardware optimization, starting from parsing the command arguments, to managing the relation between the CPU baseline and dispatch-able features, also generating the required C headers and ending with compiling the sources with proper compiler’s flags.

CCompilerOpt doesn’t provide runtime detection for the CPU features, instead only focuses on the compiler side, but it creates abstract C headers that can be used later for the final runtime dispatching process.

Functions

```
new_ccompiler_opt(compiler, dispatch_hpath, …)
```
Create a new instance of ‘CCompilerOpt’ and generate the dispatch header which contains the #definitions and headers of platform-specific instruction-sets for the enabled CPU baseline and dispatch-able features.

```
distutils.ccompiler_opt.new_ccompiler_opt (compiler, dispatch_hpath, **kwargs)
```
Create a new instance of ‘CCompilerOpt’ and generate the dispatch header which contains the #definitions and headers of platform-specific instruction-sets for the enabled CPU baseline and dispatch-able features.

Parameters

- **compiler**
  [CCompiler instance]

- **dispatch_hpath**
  [str] path of the dispatch header

- **kwargs: passed as-is to ‘CCompilerOpt(...)’

Returns

——
new instance of CCompilerOpt

Classes

```
CCompilerOpt(ccompiler[, cpu_baseline, …])
```
A helper class for CCompiler aims to provide extra build options to effectively control of compiler optimizations that are directly related to CPU features.

```
class numpy.distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt (ccompiler, cpu_baseline='min',
  cpu_dispatch='max', cache_path=None)
```
A helper class for CCompiler aims to provide extra build options to effectively control of compiler optimizations that are directly related to CPU features.

Attributes

- **conf_cache_factors**
## Methods

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<td>Force update the cache.</td>
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<td><code>cc_normalize_flags(flags)</code></td>
<td>Remove the conflicts that caused due gathering implied features flags.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>conf_features_partial()</code></td>
<td>Return a dictionary of supported CPU features by the platform, and accumulate the rest of undefined options in conf_features, the returned dict has same rules and notes in class attribute conf_features, also its override any options that been set in 'conf_features'.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>cpu_baseline_flags()</code></td>
<td>Returns a list of final CPU baseline compiler flags</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>cpu_baseline_names()</code></td>
<td>return a list of final CPU baseline feature names</td>
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<td>return a list of final CPU dispatch feature names</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>dist_compile(sources, flags[, ccompiler])</code></td>
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<td><code>dist_error(*args)</code></td>
<td>Raise a compiler error</td>
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<td><code>dist_fatal(*args)</code></td>
<td>Raise a distutils error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dist_info()</code></td>
<td>Return a tuple containing info about (platform, compiler, extra_args), required by the abstract class '_CCompiler' for discovering the platform environment.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>dist_load_module(name, path)</code></td>
<td>Load a module from file, required by the abstract class '_Cache'.</td>
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<td><code>dist_log(*args[, stderr])</code></td>
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<tr>
<td><code>dist_test(source, flags[, macros])</code></td>
<td>Return True if 'CCompiler.compile()' able to compile a source file with certain flags.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>feature_ahead(names)</code></td>
<td>Return list of features in 'names' after remove any implied features and keep the origins.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>feature_c_preprocessor(feature_name[, tabs])</code></td>
<td>Generate C preprocessor definitions and include headers of a CPU feature.</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>feature_detect(names)</code></td>
<td>Return a list of CPU features that required to be detected sorted from the lowest to highest interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>feature_get_til(names, keyisfalse)</code></td>
<td>same as feature_implies_c() but stop collecting implied features when feature's option that provided through parameter 'keyisfalse' is False, also sorting the returned features.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>feature_implies(names[, keep_origins])</code></td>
<td>Return a set of CPU features that implied by 'names'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>feature_implies_c(names)</code></td>
<td>same as feature_implies() but combining 'names'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>feature_is_exist(name)</code></td>
<td>Returns True if a certain feature is exist and covered within _Config.conf_features.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>feature_names([names, force_flags, macros])</code></td>
<td>Returns a set of CPU feature names that supported by platform and the C compiler.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>feature_sorted(names[, reverse])</code></td>
<td>Sort a list of CPU features ordered by the lowest interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>feature_untied(names)</code></td>
<td>same as 'feature_ahead()' but if both features implied each other and keep the highest interest.</td>
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<th>Method</th>
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<td><code>generate_dispatch_header</code> (header_path)</td>
<td>Generate the dispatch header which contains the #definitions and headers for platform-specific instruction-sets for the enabled CPU baseline and dispatch-able features.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>is_cached()</code></td>
<td>Returns True if the class loaded from the cache file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>me(cb)</code></td>
<td>A static method that can be treated as a decorator to dynamically cache certain methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>parse_targets</code> (source)</td>
<td>Fetch and parse configuration statements that required for defining the targeted CPU features, statements should be declared in the top of source in between C comment and start with a special mark <code>@targets</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>try_dispatch</code> (sources[, src_dir, ccompiler])</td>
<td>Compile one or more dispatch-able sources and generates object files, also generates abstract C config headers and macros that used later for the final runtime dispatching process.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Method

```python
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.cache_flush()
```

Force update the cache.

Method

```python
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.cc_normalize_flags(flags)
```

Remove the conflicts that caused due gathering implied features flags.

Parameters

- **flags** list, compiler flags
  - flags should be sorted from the lowest to the highest interest.

Returns

- list, filtered from any conflicts.

Examples

```python
>>> self.cc_normalize_flags(['-march=armv8.2-a+fp16', '-march=armv8.2-→a+dotprod'])
['armv8.2-a+fp16+dotprod']

>>> self.cc_normalize_flags(
    ['-msse', '-msse2', '-msse3', '-mssse3', '-msse4.1', '-msse4.2', '-mavx',
    →'-march=core-avx2']
)
['-march=core-avx2']
```

Method

```python
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.conf_features_partial()
```

Return a dictionary of supported CPU features by the platform, and accumulate the rest of undefined options in `conf_features`, the returned dict has same rules and notes in class attribute `conf_features`, also its override any options that been set in ‘conf_features’.
method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.cpu_baseline_flags()
    Returns a list of final CPU baseline compiler flags

distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.cpu_baseline_names()
    return a list of final CPU baseline feature names

distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.cpu_dispatch_names()
    return a list of final CPU dispatch feature names

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.dist_compile(sources, flags, ccompiler=None, **kwargs)
    Wrap CCompiler.compile()

method
static distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.dist_error(*args)
    Raise a compiler error

method
static distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.dist_fatal(*args)
    Raise a distutils error

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.dist_info()
    Return a tuple containing info about (platform, compiler, extra_args), required by the abstract class '_CCompiler' for discovering the platform environment. This is also used as a cache factor in order to detect any changes happening from outside.

method
static distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.dist_load_module(name, path)
    Load a module from file, required by the abstract class '_Cache'.

method
static distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.dist_log(*args, stderr=False)
    Print a console message

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.dist_test(source, flags, macros=[])  
    Return True if 'CCompiler.compile()' able to compile a source file with certain flags.

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.feature_ahead(names)
    Return list of features in 'names' after remove any implied features and keep the origins.

Parameters

'names': sequence
    sequence of CPU feature names in uppercase.

Returns
list of CPU features sorted as-is ‘names’

Examples

```python
>>> self.feature_ahead(['SSE2', 'SSE3', 'SSE41'])
['SSE41']
# assume AVX2 and FMA3 implies each other and AVX2
# is the highest interest
>>> self.feature_ahead(['SSE2', 'SSE3', 'SSE41', 'AVX2', 'FMA3'])
['AVX2']
# assume AVX2 and FMA3 don't implies each other
>>> self.feature_ahead(['SSE2', 'SSE3', 'SSE41', 'AVX2', 'FMA3'])
['AVX2', 'FMA3']
```

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.feature_c_preprocessor(feature_name, tabs=0)

Generate C preprocessor definitions and include headers of a CPU feature.

Parameters

‘feature_name’: str

CPU feature name in uppercase.

‘tabs’: int

if > 0, align the generated strings to the right depend on number of tabs.

Returns

str, generated C preprocessor

Examples

```python
>>> self.feature_c_preprocessor('SSE3')
/** SSE3 **/
#define NPY_HAVE_SSE3 1
#include <pmmintrin.h>
```

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.feature_detect(names)

Return a list of CPU features that required to be detected sorted from the lowest to highest interest.

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.feature_get_til(names, keyisfalse)

same as feature_implies_c() but stop collecting implied features when feature’s option that provided through parameter ‘keyisfalse’ is False, also sorting the returned features.

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.feature_implies(names, keep_origins=False)

Return a set of CPU features that implied by ‘names’

Parameters
names: str or sequence of str
   CPU feature name(s) in uppercase.

keep_origins: bool
   if False (default) then the returned set will not contain any features from 'names'. This case happens only when two features imply each other.

Examples

```python
>>> self.feature_implies("SSE3")
\{'SSE', 'SSE2'\}
>>> self.feature_implies("SSE2")
\{'SSE'\}
>>> self.feature_implies("SSE2", keep_origins=True)
# 'SSE2' found here since 'SSE' and 'SSE2' imply each other
\{'SSE', 'SSE2'\}
```

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.feature_implies_c(names)
   same as feature_implies() but combining 'names'

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.feature_is_exist(name)
   Returns True if a certain feature is exist and covered within _Config.conf_features.

Parameters

'name': str
   feature name in uppercase.

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.feature_names(names=None, force_flags=None, macros=[])
   Returns a set of CPU feature names that supported by platform and the C compiler.

Parameters

names: sequence or None, optional
   Specify certain CPU features to test it against the C compiler. If None (default), it will test all current supported features. Note: feature names must be in upper-case.

force_flags: list or None, optional
   If None (default), default compiler flags for every CPU feature will be used during the test.

macros
   [list of tuples, optional] A list of C macro definitions.

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.feature_sorted(names, reverse=False)
   Sort a list of CPU features ordered by the lowest interest.

Parameters
'names': sequence
   sequence of supported feature names in uppercase.

'reverse': bool, optional
   If true, the sorted features is reversed. (highest interest)

Returns
   list, sorted CPU features

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.feature_untied(names)
   same as 'feature_ahead()' but if both features implied each other and keep the highest interest.

Parameters
   'names': sequence
      sequence of CPU feature names in uppercase.

Returns
   list of CPU features sorted as-is 'names'

Examples

```python
>>> self.feature_untied(['SSE2', 'SSE3', 'SSE41'])
['SSE2', 'SSE3', 'SSE41']
# assume AVX2 and FMA3 implies each other
>>> self.feature_untied(['SSE2', 'SSE3', 'SSE41', 'FMA3', 'AVX2'])
['SSE2', 'SSE3', 'SSE41', 'AVX2']
```

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.generate_dispatch_header(header_path)
   Generate the dispatch header which contains the #definitions and headers for platform-specific instruction-sets
   for the enabled CPU baseline and dispatch-able features.
   It's highly recommended to take a look at the generated header also the generated source files via try_dispatch() in order to get the full picture.

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.is_cached()
   Returns True if the class loaded from the cache file

method
static distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.me(cb)
   A static method that can be treated as a decorator to dynamically cache certain methods.

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.parse_targets(source)
   Fetch and parse configuration statements that required for defining the targeted CPU features, statements
   should be declared in the top of source in between C comment and start with a special mark @targets.
Configuration statements are sort of keywords representing CPU features names, group of statements and policies, combined together to determine the required optimization.

Parameters

source: str
the path of C source file.

Returns

- bool, True if group has the ‘baseline’ option
- list, list of CPU features
- list, list of extra compiler flags

method
distutils.ccompiler_opt.CCompilerOpt.try_dispatch(sources, src_dir=None, ccompiler=None, **kwargs)

Compile one or more dispatch-able sources and generates object files, also generates abstract C config headers and macros that used later for the final runtime dispatching process.

The mechanism behind it is to takes each source file that specified in ‘sources’ and branching it into several files depend on special configuration statements that must be declared in the top of each source which contains targeted CPU features, then it compiles every branched source with the proper compiler flags.

Parameters

sources
[list] Must be a list of dispatch-able sources file paths, and configuration statements must be declared inside each file.

src_dir
[sta] Path of parent directory for the generated headers and wrapped sources. If None(default) the files will generated in-place.

ccompiler: CCompiler
Distutils CCompiler instance to be used for compilation. If None (default), the provided instance during the initialization will be used instead.

**kwargs
[any] Arguments to pass on to the CCompiler.compile()

Returns

list
[generated object files]

Raises

CompileError
Raises by CCompiler.compile() on compiling failure.
**DistutilsError**

Some errors during checking the sanity of configuration statements.

See also:

*parse_targets*

Parsing the configuration statements of dispatch-able sources.

```python
cache_hash
cc_test_flags
feature_can_autovec
feature_extra_checks
feature_flags
feature_is_supported
feature_test
report
```

distutils.cpuinfo.cpu = <numpy.distutils.cpuinfo.LinuxCPUInfo object>

class numpy.distutils.core.Extension (name, sources, include_dirs=None, define_macros=None,
define_macros=None, library_dirs=None, libraries=None,
runtime_library_dirs=None, extra_objects=None,
extra_compile_args=None, extra_link_args=None,
export_symbols=None, swig_opts=None, depends=None,
language=None, f2py_options=None, module_dirs=None,
extra_f77_compile_args=None,
extra_f90_compile_args=None)

**Parameters**

*name*

[Str] Extension name.

*sources*

[List of str] List of source file locations relative to the top directory of the package.

*extra_compile_args*

[List of str] Extra command line arguments to pass to the compiler.

*extra_f77_compile_args*

[List of str] Extra command line arguments to pass to the fortran77 compiler.

*extra_f90_compile_args*

[List of str] Extra command line arguments to pass to the fortran90 compiler.
Methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>has_cxx_sources</th>
<th>has_f2py_sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

exec_command

Implements exec_command function that is (almost) equivalent to commands.getstatusoutput function but on NT, DOS systems the returned status is actually correct (though, the returned status values may be different by a factor). In addition, exec_command takes keyword arguments for (re-)defining environment variables.

Provides functions:

exec_command — execute command in a specified directory and in the modified environment.

find_executable — locate a command using info from environment variable PATH. Equivalent to posix which command.

Author: Pearu Peterson <pearu@cens.ioc.ee> Created: 11 January 2003

Requires: Python 2.x

Successfully tested on:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>os.name</th>
<th>platform</th>
<th>comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>posix</td>
<td>linux2</td>
<td>Debian (sid) Linux, Python 2.1.3+, 2.2.3+, 2.3.3 PyCrust 0.9.3, Idle 1.0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>posix</td>
<td>linux2</td>
<td>Red Hat 9 Linux, Python 2.1.3, 2.2.2, 2.3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>posix</td>
<td>sunos5</td>
<td>SunOS 5.9, Python 2.2, 2.3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>posix</td>
<td>darwin</td>
<td>Darwin 7.2.0, Python 2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nt</td>
<td>win32</td>
<td>Windows Me Python 2.3(EE), Idle 1.0, PyCrust 0.7.2 Python 2.1.1 Idle 0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nt</td>
<td>win32</td>
<td>Windows 98, Python 2.1.1. Idle 0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nt</td>
<td>win32</td>
<td>Cygwin 98-4.10, Python 2.1.1(MSC) - echo tests fail i.e. redefining environment variables may not work. FIXED: don’t use cygwin echo! Comment: also cmd /c echo will not work but redefining environment variables do work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>posix</td>
<td>cygwin</td>
<td>Cygwin 98-4.10, Python 2.3.3(cygming special)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nt</td>
<td>win32</td>
<td>Windows XP, Python 2.3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Known bugs:

- Tests, that send messages to stderr, fail when executed from MSYS prompt because the messages are lost at some point.
Functions

```
exec_command(command[, execute_in, ...]) Return (status, output) of executed command.
filepath_from_subprocess_output(output) Convert bytes in the encoding used by a subprocess into a filesystem-appropriate str.
find_executable(exe[, path, _cache]) Return full path of a executable or None.
forward_bytes_to_stdout(val) Forward bytes from a subprocess call to the console, without attempting to decode them.
get_pythonexe()
temp_file_name()
```

```
distutils.exec_command.exec_command(command, execute_in="", use_shell=None, use_tee=None, _with_python=1, **env) Return (status, output) of executed command.

Deprecated since version 1.17: Use subprocess.Popen instead

Parameters

  command
  [str] A concatenated string of executable and arguments.

  execute_in
  [str] Before running command cd execute_in and after cd -.

  use_shell
  [{bool, None}, optional] If True, execute sh -c command. Default None (True)

  use_tee
  [{bool, None}, optional] If True use tee. Default None (True)

Returns

  res
  [str] Both stdout and stderr messages.

Notes

  On NT, DOS systems the returned status is correct for external commands. Wild cards will not work for non-posix systems or when use_shell=0.
```

```
distutils.exec_command.filepath_from_subprocess_output(output)
Convert bytes in the encoding used by a subprocess into a filesystem-appropriate str.

Inherited from exec_command, and possibly incorrect.
```

```
distutils.exec_command.find_executable(exe, path=None, _cache={}) Return full path of a executable or None.

Symbolic links are not followed.
```
**distutils.exec_command.**`forward_bytes_to_stdout(val)`  
Forward bytes from a subprocess call to the console, without attempting to decode them.

The assumption is that the subprocess call already returned bytes in a suitable encoding.

**distutils.exec_command.**`get_pythonexe()`  

**distutils.exec_command.**`temp_file_name()`  

**distutils.log.**`set_verbosity(v, force=False)`  

**distutils.system_info.**`get_info(name, notfound_action=0)`  

`notfound_action:`  
0 - do nothing 1 - display warning message 2 - raise error

**distutils.system_info.**`get_standard_file(fname)`  
Returns a list of files named ‘fname’ from 1) System-wide directory (directory-location of this module) 2) Users HOME directory (os.environ[‘HOME’]) 3) Local directory

### 7.2 Configuration class

class numpy.distutils.misc_util.Configuration(package_name=None, parent_name=None,  
top_path=None, package_path=None, **attrs)`

Construct a configuration instance for the given package name. If `parent_name` is not None, then construct the package as a sub-package of the `parent_name` package. If `top_path` and `package_path` are None then they are assumed equal to the path of the file this instance was created in. The setup.py files in the numpy distribution are good examples of how to use the `Configuration` instance.

**todict()**
Return a dictionary compatible with the keyword arguments of distutils setup function.

**Examples**

```python
>>> setup(**config.todict())
```

**get_distribution()**
Return the distutils distribution object for self.

**get_subpackage(subpackage_name, subpackage_path=None, parent_name=None, caller_level=1)**
Return list of subpackage configurations.

**Parameters**

- `subpackage_name`
  [str or None] Name of the subpackage to get the configuration. ‘*’ in subpackage_name is handled as a wildcard.

- `subpackage_path`
  [str] If None, then the path is assumed to be the local path plus the subpackage_name. If a setup.py file is not found in the subpackage_path, then a default configuration is used.
parent_name

[str] Parent name.

**add_subpackage**(subpackage_name, subpackage_path=None, standalone=False)

Add a sub-package to the current Configuration instance.

This is useful in a setup.py script for adding sub-packages to a package.

**Parameters**

*subpackage_name*

[str] name of the subpackage

*subpackage_path*

[str] if given, the subpackage path such as the subpackage is in subpackage_path / subpackage_name. If None, the subpackage is assumed to be located in the local path / subpackage_name.

*standalone*

[bool]

**add_data_files**(files)

Add data files to configuration data_files.

**Parameters**

*files*

[sequence] Argument(s) can be either

- 2-sequence (<datadir prefix>, <path to data file(s)>)
- paths to data files where python datadir prefix defaults to package dir.

**Notes**

The form of each element of the files sequence is very flexible allowing many combinations of where to get the files from the package and where they should ultimately be installed on the system. The most basic usage is for an element of the files argument sequence to be a simple filename. This will cause that file from the local path to be installed to the installation path of the self.name package (package path). The file argument can also be a relative path in which case the entire relative path will be installed into the package directory. Finally, the file can be an absolute path name in which case the file will be found at the absolute path name but installed to the package path.

This basic behavior can be augmented by passing a 2-tuple in as the file argument. The first element of the tuple should specify the relative path (under the package install directory) where the remaining sequence of files should be installed to (it has nothing to do with the file-names in the source distribution). The second element of the tuple is the sequence of files that should be installed. The files in this sequence can be filenames, relative paths, or absolute paths. For absolute paths the file will be installed in the top-level package installation directory (regardless of the first argument). Filenames and relative path names will be installed in the package install directory under the path name given as the first element of the tuple.

Rules for installation paths:

1. file.txt -> (., file.txt) -> parent/file.txt
2. foo/file.txt -> (foo, foo/file.txt) -> parent/foo/file.txt
4. `*.txt` -> parent/a.txt, parent/b.txt
5. `foo/*.*.txt` -> parent/foo/a.txt, parent/foo/b.txt
6. `*/.*.txt` ->('*/*.txt') -> parent/c/a.txt, parent/d/b.txt
7. `(sun, file.txt)` -> parent/sun/file.txt
8. `(sun, bar/file.txt)` -> parent/sun/file.txt
9. `(sun, /foo/bar/file.txt)` -> parent/sun/file.txt
10. `(sun, *.txt)` -> parent/sun/a.txt, parent/sun/b.txt
11. `(sun, bar/*.*.txt)` -> parent/sun/a.txt, parent/sun/b.txt
12. `(sun/*, */*.txt)` -> parent/sun/c/a.txt, parent/d/b.txt

An additional feature is that the path to a data-file can actually be a function that takes no arguments and returns the actual path(s) to the data-files. This is useful when the data files are generated while building the package.

## Examples

Add files to the list of data_files to be included with the package.

```python
>>> self.add_data_files('foo.dat',
...                     ('fun', ['gun.dat', 'nun/pun.dat', '/tmp/sun.dat']),
...                     'bar/cat.dat',
...                     '/full/path/to/can.dat')
```

will install these data files to:

```bash
<package install directory>/
  foo.dat
  fun/
    gun.dat
    nun/
      pun.dat
  sun.dat
  bar/
    car.dat
  can.dat
```

where `<package install directory>` is the package (or sub-package) directory such as `'/usr/lib/python2.4/site-packages/mypackage'` ('C: Python2.4 Lib site-packages mypackage') or `'/usr/lib/python2.4/site-packages/mypackage/mysubpackage'` ('C: Python2.4 Lib site-packages mypackage mysubpackage').

### add_data_dir(data_path)
Recursively add files under data_path to data_files list.

Recursively add files under data_path to the list of data_files to be installed (and distributed). The data_path can be either a relative path-name, or an absolute path-name, or a 2-tuple where the first argument shows where in the install directory the data directory should be installed to.

**Parameters**

- **data_path**
  - [seq or str] Argument can be either
2-sequence (<datadir suffix>, <path to data directory>)
path to data directory where python datadir suffix defaults to package dir.

Notes

Rules for installation paths:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>foo/bar</th>
<th>(foo/bar, foo/bar)</th>
<th>parent/foo/bar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(gun, foo/bar)</td>
<td></td>
<td>parent/gun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foo/*</td>
<td>(foo/a, foo/a), (foo/b, foo/b)</td>
<td>parent/foo/a, parent/foo/b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(gun, foo/*)</td>
<td>(gun, foo/a), (gun, foo/b)</td>
<td>gun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(gun/<em>, foo/</em>)</td>
<td>(parent/gun/a, parent/gun/b)</td>
<td>parent/bar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/foo/bar</td>
<td>(bar, /foo/bar)</td>
<td>parent/gun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(gun, /foo/bar)</td>
<td></td>
<td>parent/gun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(fun/<em>/gun/</em>, sun/foo/bar)</td>
<td></td>
<td>parent/fun/foo/gun/bar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples

For example suppose the source directory contains fun/foo.dat and fun/bar/car.dat:

```python
>>> self.add_data_dir('fun')
>>> self.add_data_dir(('sun', 'fun'))
>>> self.add_data_dir(('gun', '/full/path/to/fun'))
```

Will install data-files to the locations:

```plaintext
<package install directory>/
 fun/
   foo.dat
 bar/
   car.dat
 sun/
   foo.dat
   bar/
   car.dat
 gun/
   foo.dat
   car.dat
```

add_include_dirs(*paths)

Add paths to configuration include directories.

Add the given sequence of paths to the beginning of the include_dirs list. This list will be visible to all extension modules of the current package.

add_headers(*files)

Add installable headers to configuration.

Add the given sequence of files to the beginning of the headers list. By default, headers will be installed under <python-include>/<self.name.replace(\'\.','\'/)>/ directory. If an item of files is a tuple, then its first argument specifies the actual installation location relative to the <python-include> path.

Parameters

files

[<str or seq>] Argument(s) can be either:
• 2-sequence (<includedir suffix>,<path to header file(s)>)
• path(s) to header file(s) where python includedir suffix will default to package name.

**add_extension** *(name, sources, **kw)*

Add extension to configuration.

Create and add an Extension instance to the ext_modules list. This method also takes the following optional keyword arguments that are passed on to the Extension constructor.

**Parameters**

**name**
[str] name of the extension

**sources**
[seq] list of the sources. The list of sources may contain functions (called source generators) which must take an extension instance and a build directory as inputs and return a source file or list of source files or None. If None is returned then no sources are generated. If the Extension instance has no sources after processing all source generators, then no extension module is built.

**include_dirs** :

**define_macros** :

**undef_macros** :

**library_dirs** :

**libraries** :

**runtime_library_dirs** :

**extra_objects** :

**extra_compile_args** :

**extra_link_args** :

**extra_f77_compile_args** :

**extra_f90_compile_args** :

**export_symbols** :

**swig_opts** :

**depends** :

The depends list contains paths to files or directories that the sources of the extension module depend on. If any path in the depends list is newer than the extension module, then the module will be rebuilt.

**language** :

**f2py_options** :

**module_dirs** :

**extra_dirs** :

**extra_info**

[dict or list] dict or list of dict of keywords to be appended to keywords.

7.2. Configuration class
Notes

The self.paths(...) method is applied to all lists that may contain paths.

**add_library** *(name, sources, **build_info)*

Add library to configuration.

**Parameters**

- **name**
  
  [str] Name of the extension.

- **sources**
  
  [sequence] List of the sources. The list of sources may contain functions (called source generators) which must take an extension instance and a build directory as inputs and return a source file or list of source files or None. If None is returned then no sources are generated. If the Extension instance has no sources after processing all source generators, then no extension module is built.

- **build_info**
  
  [dict, optional] The following keys are allowed:
  
  - depends
  - macros
  - include_dirs
  - extra_compiler_args
  - extra_f77_compile_args
  - extra_f90_compile_args
  - f2py_options
  - language

**add_scripts** *(*files)*

Add scripts to configuration.

Add the sequence of files to the beginning of the scripts list. Scripts will be installed under the <prefix>/bin/ directory.

**add_installed_library** *(name, sources, install_dir, build_info=None)*

Similar to add_library, but the specified library is installed.

Most C libraries used with distutils are only used to build python extensions, but libraries built through this method will be installed so that they can be reused by third-party packages.

**Parameters**

- **name**
  
  [str] Name of the installed library.

- **sources**
  
  [sequence] List of the library's source files. See add_library for details.

- **install_dir**
  
  [str] Path to install the library, relative to the current sub-package.
build_info

[dict, optional] The following keys are allowed:

- depends
- macros
- include_dirs
- extra_compiler_args
- extra_f77_compile_args
- extra_f90_compile_args
- f2py_options
- language

Returns

None

See also:

add_library, add_npy_pkg_config, get_info

Notes

The best way to encode the options required to link against the specified C libraries is to use a “libname.ini” file, and use get_info to retrieve the required options (see add_npy_pkg_config for more information).

add_npy_pkg_config (template, install_dir, subst_dict=None)

Generate and install a numpy-pkg config file from a template.

The config file generated from template is installed in the given install directory, using subst_dict for variable substitution.

Parameters

template

[str] The path of the template, relatively to the current package path.

install_dir

[str] Where to install the numpy-pkg config file, relatively to the current package path.

subst_dict

[dict, optional] If given, any string of the form @key@ will be replaced by subst_dict[key] in the template file when installed. The install prefix is always available through the variable @prefix@, since the install prefix is not easy to get reliably from setup.py.

See also:

add_installed_library, get_info
Notes

This works for both standard installs and in-place builds, i.e. the @prefix@ refer to the source directory for in-place builds.

Examples

```python
config.add_npy_pkg_config('foo.ini.in', 'lib', {'foo': bar})
```

Assuming the foo.ini.in file has the following content:

```ini
[meta]
Name=@foo@
Version=1.0
Description=dummy description

[default]
Cflags=I@prefix@/include
Libs=
```

The generated file will have the following content:

```ini
[meta]
Name=bar
Version=1.0
Description=dummy description

[default]
Cflags=Iprefix_dir/include
Libs=
```

and will be installed as foo.ini in the ‘lib’ subpath.

When cross-compiling with numpy distutils, it might be necessary to use modified npy-pkg-config files. Using the default/generated files will link with the host libraries (i.e. libnpymath.a). For cross-compilation you of-course need to link with target libraries, while using the host Python installation.

You can copy out the numpy/core/lib/npy-pkg-config directory, add a pkgdir value to the .ini files and set NPY_PKG_CONFIG_PATH environment variable to point to the directory with the modified npy-pkg-config files.

Example npymath.ini modified for cross-compilation:

```ini
[meta]
Name=npymath
Description=Portable, core math library implementing C99 standard
Version=0.1

[variables]
pkgnname=numpy.core
pkgdir=/build/arm-linux-gnueabi/sysroot/usr/lib/python3.7/site-packages/numpy/
-core
prefix=${pkgdir}
libdir=${prefix}/lib
includedir=${prefix}/include

[default]
```

(continues on next page)
paths(*paths, **kws)
    Apply glob to paths and prepend local_path if needed.
    Applies glob.glob(...) to each path in the sequence (if needed) and pre-pends the local_path if needed. Because this is called on all source lists, this allows wildcard characters to be specified in lists of sources for extension modules and libraries and scripts and allows path-names be relative to the source directory.

get_config_cmd()
    Returns the numpy.distutils config command instance.

get_build_temp_dir()
    Return a path to a temporary directory where temporary files should be placed.

have_f77c()
    Check for availability of Fortran 77 compiler.
    Use it inside source generating function to ensure that setup distribution instance has been initialized.

Notes

True if a Fortran 77 compiler is available (because a simple Fortran 77 code was able to be compiled successfully).

have_f90c()
    Check for availability of Fortran 90 compiler.
    Use it inside source generating function to ensure that setup distribution instance has been initialized.

Notes

True if a Fortran 90 compiler is available (because a simple Fortran 90 code was able to be compiled successfully)

get_version(version_file=None, version_variable=None)
    Try to get version string of a package.
    Return a version string of the current package or None if the version information could not be detected.
**Notes**

This method scans files named __version__.py, <packagename>_version.py, version.py, and __svn_version__.py for string variables version, __version__, and <packagename>_version, until a version number is found.

**make_svn_version_py**(delete=True)

Appends a data function to the data_files list that will generate __svn_version__.py file to the current package directory.

Generate package __svn_version__.py file from SVN revision number, it will be removed after python exits but will be available when stdist, etc commands are executed.

**Notes**

If __svn_version__.py existed before, nothing is done.

This is intended for working with source directories that are in an SVN repository.

**make_config_py**(name='__config__')

Generate package __config__.py file containing system_info information used during building the package.

This file is installed to the package installation directory.

**get_info**(names)

Get resources information.

Return information (from system_info.get_info) for all of the names in the argument list in a single dictionary.

### 7.3 Building Installable C libraries

Conventional C libraries (installed through add_library) are not installed, and are just used during the build (they are statically linked). An installable C library is a pure C library, which does not depend on the python C runtime, and is installed such that it may be used by third-party packages. To build and install the C library, you just use the method add_installed_library instead of add_library, which takes the same arguments except for an additional install_dir argument:

```python
>>> config = np.distutils.misc_util.Configuration(None, '', '.
>>> with open('foo.c', 'w') as f: pass
>>> config.add_installed_library('foo', sources=['foo.c'], install_dir='lib')
```

#### 7.3.1 npy-pkg-config files

To make the necessary build options available to third parties, you could use the npy-pkg-config mechanism implemented in numpy.distutils. This mechanism is based on a .ini file which contains all the options. A .ini file is very similar to .pc files as used by the pkg-config unix utility:

```ini
[meta]
Name: foo
Version: 1.0
Description: foo library
```

(continues on next page)
Generally, the file needs to be generated during the build, since it needs some information known at build time only (e.g. prefix). This is mostly automatic if one uses the `Configuration` method `add_npy_pkg_config`. Assuming we have a template file `foo.ini.in` as follows:

```
[meta]
Name: foo
Version: @version@
Description: foo library

[variables]
prefix = @prefix@
libdir = ${prefix}/lib
includedir = ${prefix}/include

[default]
cflags = -I${includedir}
libs = -L${libdir} -lfoo
```

and the following code in `setup.py`:

```python
>>> config.add_installed_library('foo', sources=['foo.c'], install_dir='lib')
>>> subst = {'version': '1.0'}
>>> config.add_npy_pkg_config('foo.ini.in', 'lib', subst_dict=subst)
```

This will install the file `foo.ini` into the directory `package_dir/lib`, and the `foo.ini` file will be generated from `foo.ini.in`, where each `@version@` will be replaced by `subst_dict['version']`. The dictionary has an additional prefix substitution rule automatically added, which contains the install prefix (since this is not easy to get from `setup.py`). npy-pkg-config files can also be installed at the same location as used for numpy, using the path returned from `get_npy_pkg_dir` function.

### 7.3.2 Reusing a C library from another package

Info are easily retrieved from the `get_info` function in `numpy.distutils.misc_util`:

```python
>>> info = np.distutils.misc_util.get_info('npymath')
>>> config.add_extension('foo', sources=['foo.c'], extra_info=info)
```

An additional list of paths to look for .ini files can be given to `get_info`. 

---

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7.4 Conversion of .src files

NumPy distutils supports automatic conversion of source files named <somefile>.src. This facility can be used to maintain very similar code blocks requiring only simple changes between blocks. During the build phase of setup, if a template file named <somefile>.src is encountered, a new file named <somefile> is constructed from the template and placed in the build directory to be used instead. Two forms of template conversion are supported. The first form occurs for files named <file>.ext.src where ext is a recognized Fortran extension (f, f90, f95, f77, for, ftn, pyf). The second form is used for all other cases. See Conversion of .src files using Templates.
8.1 SciPy structure

Currently SciPy project consists of two packages:

- NumPy — it provides packages like:
  - numpy.distutils - extension to Python distutils
  - numpy.f2py - a tool to bind Fortran/C codes to Python
  - numpy.core - future replacement of Numeric and numarray packages
  - numpy.lib - extra utility functions
  - numpy.testing - numpy-style tools for unit testing
  - etc
- SciPy — a collection of scientific tools for Python.

The aim of this document is to describe how to add new tools to SciPy.

8.2 Requirements for SciPy packages

SciPy consists of Python packages, called SciPy packages, that are available to Python users via the scipy namespace. Each SciPy package may contain other SciPy packages. And so on. Therefore, the SciPy directory tree is a tree of packages with arbitrary depth and width. Any SciPy package may depend on NumPy packages but the dependence on other SciPy packages should be kept minimal or zero.

A SciPy package contains, in addition to its sources, the following files and directories:

- setup.py — building script
- __init__.py — package initializer
- tests/ — directory of unit tests

Their contents are described below.
### 8.3 The setup.py file

In order to add a Python package to SciPy, its build script (setup.py) must meet certain requirements. The most important requirement is that the package define a `configuration(parent_package='', top_path=None)` function which returns a dictionary suitable for passing to `numpy.distutils.core.setup(..)`. To simplify the construction of this dictionary, `numpy.distutils.misc_util` provides the `Configuration` class, described below.

#### 8.3.1 SciPy pure Python package example

Below is an example of a minimal `setup.py` file for a pure SciPy package:

```python
#!/usr/bin/env python3

def configuration(parent_package='', top_path=None):
    from numpy.distutils.misc_util import Configuration
    config = Configuration('mypackage', parent_package, top_path)
    return config

if __name__ == '__main__':
    from numpy.distutils.core import setup
    #setup(**configuration(top_path='').todict())
    setup(configuration)
```

The arguments of the `configuration` function specify the name of parent SciPy package (`parent_package`) and the directory location of the main `setup.py` script (`top_path`). These arguments, along with the name of the current package, should be passed to the `Configuration` constructor.

The `Configuration` constructor has a fourth optional argument, `package_path`, that can be used when package files are located in a different location than the directory of the `setup.py` file.

Remaining `Configuration` arguments are all keyword arguments that will be used to initialize attributes of `Configuration` instance. Usually, these keywords are the same as the ones that `setup(..)` function would expect, for example, `packages`, `ext_modules`, `data_files`, `include_dirs`, `libraries`, `headers`, `scripts`, `package_dir`, etc. However, the direct specification of these keywords is not recommended as the content of these keyword arguments will not be processed or checked for the consistency of SciPy building system.

Finally, `Configuration` has `.todict()` method that returns all the configuration data as a dictionary suitable for passing on to the `setup(..)` function.

#### 8.3.2 Configuration instance attributes

In addition to attributes that can be specified via keyword arguments to `Configuration` constructor, `Configuration` instance (let us denote as `config`) has the following attributes that can be useful in writing setup scripts:

- `config.name` - full name of the current package. The names of parent packages can be extracted as `config.name.split('.')`.
- `config.local_path` - path to the location of current `setup.py` file.
- `config.top_path` - path to the location of main `setup.py` file.
8.3.3 Configuration instance methods

- `config.todict()` — returns configuration dictionary suitable for passing to `numpy.distutils.core.setup()` function.
- `config.paths(*paths)` --- applies ``glob.glob(..) to items of paths if necessary. Fixes paths item that is relative to `config.local_path`.
- `config.get_subpackage(subpackage_name, subpackage_path=None)` — returns a list of subpackage configurations. Subpackage is looked in the current directory under the name `subpackage_name` but the path can be specified also via optional `subpackage_path` argument. If `subpackage_name` is specified as `None` then the subpackage name will be taken the basename of `subpackage_path`. Any * used for subpackage names are expanded as wildcards.
- `config.add_subpackage(subpackage_name, subpackage_path=None)` — add SciPy subpackage configuration to the current one. The meaning and usage of arguments is explained above, see `config.get_subpackage()` method.
- `config.add_data_files(*files)` — prepend files to `data_files` list. If files item is a tuple then its first element defines the suffix of where data files are copied relative to package installation directory and the second element specifies the path to data files. By default data files are copied under package installation directory. For example,

```python
config.add_data_files('foo.dat',
    {'fun',['gun.dat','nun/pun.dat']}/tmp/sun.dat',
    'bar/car.dat'.
    '/full/path/to/can.dat',
)
```

will install data files to the following locations

```
<installation path of config.name package>/
  foo.dat
  fun/
    gun.dat
    pun.dat
    sun.dat
  bar/
    car.dat
  can.dat
```

Path to data files can be a function taking no arguments and returning path(s) to data files – this is a useful when data files are generated while building the package. (XXX: explain the step when this function are called exactly)

- `config.add_data_dir(data_path)` — add directory `data_path` recursively to `data_files`. The whole directory tree starting at `data_path` will be copied under package installation directory. If `data_path` is a tuple then its first element defines the suffix of where data files are copied relative to package installation directory and the second element specifies the path to data directory. By default, data directory are copied under package installation directory under the basename of `data_path`. For example,

```python
config.add_data_dir('fun')  # fun/ contains foo.dat bar/car.dat
config.add_data_dir(('sun', 'fun'))
config.add_data_dir(('gun', '/full/path/to/fun'))
```

will install data files to the following locations

```
<installation path of config.name package>/
  fun/
```

(continues on next page)
foo.dat  
bar/  
   car.dat  
sun/  
   foo.dat  
   bar/  
      car.dat  
gun/  
   foo.dat  
   bar/  
      car.dat

- `config.add_include_dirs(*paths)` — prepend `paths` to `include_dirs` list. This list will be visible to all extension modules of the current package.

- `config.add_headers(*files)` — prepend `files` to `headers` list. By default, headers will be installed under `<prefix>/include/pythonX.X/<config.name.replace('.', '/')>/` directory. If `files` item is a tuple then it's first argument specifies the installation suffix relative to `<prefix>/include/pythonX.X/` path. This is a Python distutils method; its use is discouraged for NumPy and SciPy in favour of `config.add_data_files(*files)`.

- `config.add_scripts(*files)` — prepend `files` to `scripts` list. Scripts will be installed under `<prefix>/bin/` directory.

- `config.add_extension(name, sources, **kw)` — create and add an `Extension` instance to `ext_modules` list. The first argument `name` defines the name of the extension module that will be installed under `config.name` package. The second argument is a list of sources. `add_extension` method takes also keyword arguments that are passed on to the `Extension` constructor. The list of allowed keywords is the following: `include_dirs`, `define_macros`, `undef_macros`, `library_dirs`, `libraries`, `runtime_library_dirs`, `extra_objects`, `extra_compile_args`, `extra_link_args`, `export_symbols`, `swig_opts`, `depends`, `language`, `f2py_options`, `module_dirs`, `extra_info`, `extra_f77_compile_args`, `extra_f90_compile_args`.

Note that `config.paths` method is applied to all lists that may contain paths. `extra_info` is a dictionary or a list of dictionaries that content will be appended to keyword arguments. The list `depends` contains paths to files or directories that the sources of the extension module depend on. If any path in the `depends` list is newer than the extension module, then the module will be rebuilt.

The list of sources may contain functions (‘source generators’) with a pattern `def <funcname>(ext, build_dir): return <source(s) or None>`. If `funcname` returns `None`, no sources are generated. And if the `Extension` instance has no sources after processing all source generators, no extension module will be built. This is the recommended way to conditionally define extension modules. Source generator functions are called by the `build_src` sub-command of `numpy.distutils`.

For example, here is a typical source generator function:

```python
def generate_source(ext, build_dir):
    import os
    from distutils.dep_util import newer
    target = os.path.join(build_dir, 'somesource.c')
    if newer(target, __file__):
        # create target file
        return target
```

The first argument contains the `Extension` instance that can be useful to access its attributes like `depends`, `sources`, etc. lists and modify them during the building process. The second argument gives a path to a build directory that must be used when creating files to a disk.
• `config.add_library(name, sources, **build_info)` — add a library to libraries list. Allowed keywords arguments are `depends`, `macros`, `include_dirs`, `extra_compiler_args`, `f2py_options`, `extra_f77_compile_args`, `extra_f90_compile_args`. See `add_extension()` method for more information on arguments.

• `config.have_f77c()` — return True if Fortran 77 compiler is available (read: a simple Fortran 77 code compiled successfully).

• `config.have_f90c()` — return True if Fortran 90 compiler is available (read: a simple Fortran 90 code compiled successfully).

• `config.get_version()` — return version string of the current package. None if version information could not be detected. This method scans files `__version__.py`, `<packagename>_version.py`, `version.py`, `__svn_version__.py` for string variables `version`, `__version__`, `<packagename>_version`.

• `config.make_svn_version_py()` — appends a data function to `data_files` list that will generate `__svn_version__.py` file to the current package directory. The file will be removed from the source directory when Python exits.

• `config.get_build_temp_dir()` — return a path to a temporary directory. This is the place where one should build temporary files.

• `config.get_distribution()` — return `distutils Distribution` instance.

• `config.get_config_cmd()` — return `numpy.distutils config` command instance.

• `config.get_info(*names)` —

8.3.4 Conversion of .src files using Templates

NumPy distutils supports automatic conversion of source files named `<somefile>.src`. This facility can be used to maintain very similar code blocks requiring only simple changes between blocks. During the build phase of setup, if a template file named `<somefile>.src` is encountered, a new file named `<somefile>` is constructed from the template and placed in the build directory to be used instead. Two forms of template conversion are supported. The first form occurs for files named `<file>.ext.src` where `ext` is a recognized Fortran extension (f, f90, f95, f77, for, ftn, pyf). The second form is used for all other cases.

8.3.5 Fortran files

This template converter will replicate all `function` and `subroutine` blocks in the file with names that contain `'<…>'` according to the rules in `'<…>'`. The number of comma-separated words in `'<…>'` determines the number of times the block is repeated. What these words are indicates what that repeat rule, `'<…>'`, should be replaced with in each block. All of the repeat rules in a block must contain the same number of comma-separated words indicating the number of times that block should be repeated. If the word in the repeat rule needs a comma, leftarrow, or rightarrow, then prepend it with a backslash `\`. If a word in the repeat rule matches `'<index>'` then it will be replaced with the `<index>`-th word in the same repeat specification. There are two forms for the repeat rule: named and short.
Named repeat rule

A named repeat rule is useful when the same set of repeats must be used several times in a block. It is specified using <rule1=item1, item2, item3,..., itemN>, where N is the number of times the block should be repeated. On each repeat of the block, the entire expression, ‘<...>’ will be replaced first with item1, and then with item2, and so forth until N repeats are accomplished. Once a named repeat specification has been introduced, the same repeat rule may be used in the current block by referring only to the name (i.e. <rule1>).

Short repeat rule

A short repeat rule looks like <item1, item2, item3, ..., itemN>. The rule specifies that the entire expression, ‘<...>’ should be replaced first with item1, and then with item2, and so forth until N repeats are accomplished.

Pre-defined names

The following predefined named repeat rules are available:

- <prefix=s,d,c,z>
- <c=s,d,c,z>
- <_t=real, double precision, complex, double complex>
- <ftype=real, double precision, complex, double complex>
- <ctype=float, double, complex_float, complex_double>
- <ftypereal=float, double precision, \0, \1>
- <ctypereal=float, double, \0, \1>

8.3.6 Other files

Non-Fortran files use a separate syntax for defining template blocks that should be repeated using a variable expansion similar to the named repeat rules of the Fortran-specific repeats.

NumPy Distutils preprocesses C source files (extension: .c.src) written in a custom templating language to generate C code. The @ symbol is used to wrap macro-style variables to empower a string substitution mechanism that might describe (for instance) a set of datatypes.

The template language blocks are delimited by /**begin repeat and /**end repeat**/ lines, which may also be nested using consecutively numbered delimiting lines such as /**begin repeat1 and /**end repeat1**/:

1. /**begin repeat on a line by itself marks the beginning of a segment that should be repeated.

2. Named variable expansions are defined using #name=item1, item2, item3, ..., itemN# and placed on successive lines. These variables are replaced in each repeat block with corresponding word. All named variables in the same repeat block must define the same number of words.

3. In specifying the repeat rule for a named variable, item*N is short-hand for item, item, ..., item repeated N times. In addition, parenthesis in combination with *N can be used for grouping several items that should be repeated. Thus, #name=(item1, item2)*4# is equivalent to #name=item1, item1, item2, item1, item2, item2, item2, item1, item2, item1, item2, item1, item2#.

4. */ on a line by itself marks the end of the variable expansion naming. The next line is the first line that will be repeated using the named rules.

5. Inside the block to be repeated, the variables that should be expanded are specified as @name@.
6. /**end repeat**/ on a line by itself marks the previous line as the last line of the block to be repeated.

7. A loop in the NumPy C source code may have a @TYPE@ variable, targeted for string substitution, which is pre-processed to a number of otherwise identical loops with several strings such as INT, LONG, UINT, ULONG. The @TYPE@ style syntax thus reduces code duplication and maintenance burden by mimicking languages that have generic type support.

The above rules may be clearer in the following template source example:

```c
/* TIMEDELTA to non-float types */
/***begin repeat

* 
* #TOTYPE = BYTE, UBYTE, SHORT, USHORT, INT, UINT, LONG, ULONG,
* LONGLONG, ULONGLONG, DATETIME,
* TIMEDELTA#
* #totype = npy_byte, npy_ubyte, npy_short, npy_ushort, npy_int, npy_uint,
* npy_long, npy_ulong, npy_longlong, npy_ulonglong,
* npy_datetime, npy_timedelta#
*/

/***begin repeat1

* 
* #FROMTYPE = TIMEDELTA#
* #fromtype = npy_timedelta#
*/
static void @FROMTYPE@_to_@TOTYPE@(void *input, void *output, npy_intp n,
    void *NPY_UNUSED(aip), void *NPY_UNUSED(aop))
{
    const @fromtype@ *ip = input;
    @totype@ *op = output;

    while (n--)
    
    *op++ = (@totype@)*ip++;
}
/***end repeat1**/

/***end repeat**/
```

The preprocessing of generically-typed C source files (whether in NumPy proper or in any third party package using NumPyDistutils) is performed by `conv_template.py`. The type-specific C files generated (extension: `.c`) by these modules during the build process are ready to be compiled. This form of generic typing is also supported for C header files (preprocessed to produce `.h` files).

### 8.3.7 Useful functions in `numpy.distutils.misc_util`

- `get_numpy_include_dirs()` — return a list of NumPy base include directories. NumPy base include directories contain header files such as `numpy/arrayobject.h`, `numpy/funcobject.h` etc. For installed NumPy the returned list has length 1 but when building NumPy the list may contain more directories, for example, a path to `config.h` file that `numpy/base/setup.py` file generates and is used by `numpy` header files.
- `append_path(prefix, path)` — smart append path to prefix.
- `gpaths(paths, local_path='')` — apply glob to paths and prepend `local_path` if needed.
- `njoin(*path)` — join pathname components + convert `-`-separated path to `os.sep`-separated path and
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

resolve ... from paths. Ex. njoin('a','b','c','..','g') -> os.path.join('a', 'b','g').

- minrelpath(path) — resolves dots in path.
- rel_path(path, parent_path) — return path relative to parent_path.
- def get_cmd(cmdname, _cache={}) — returns numpy.distutils command instance.
- all_strings(lst)
- has_f_sources(sources)
- has_cxx_sources(sources)
- filter_sources(sources) — return c_sources, cxx_sources, f_sources, fmodule_sources
- get_dependencies(sources)
- is_local_src_dir(directory)
- get_ext_source_files(ext)
- get_script_files(scripts)
- get_lib_source_files(lib)
- get_data_files(data)
- dot_join(*args) — join non-zero arguments with a dot.
- get_frame(level=0) — return frame object from call stack with given level.
- cyg2win32(path)
- mingw32() — return True when using mingw32 environment.
- terminal_has_colors(), red_text(s), green_text(s), yellow_text(s), blue_text(s), cyan_text(s)
- get_path(mod_name, parent_path=None) — return path of a module relative to parent_path when given. Handles also __main__ and __builtin__ modules.
- allpath(name) — replaces / with os.sep in name.
- cxx_ext_match, fortran_ext_match, f90_ext_match, f90_module_name_match

8.3.8 numpy.distutils.system_info module

- get_info(name, notfound_action=0)
- combine_paths(*args, **kws)
- show_all()
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

8.3.9 numpy.distutils.cpuinfo module
• cpuinfo

8.3.10 numpy.distutils.log module
• set_verbosity(v)

8.3.11 numpy.distutils.exec_command module
• get_pythonexe()
• find_executable(exe, path=None)
• exec_command( command, execute_in='', use_shell=None, use_tee=None, **env
)

8.4 The __init__.py file
The header of a typical SciPy __init__.py is:
"""
Package docstring, typically with a brief description and function listing.
"""
# import functions into module namespace
from .subpackage import *
...
__all__ = [s for s in dir() if not s.startswith('_')]
from numpy.testing import Tester
test = Tester().test
bench = Tester().bench

8.5 Extra features in NumPy Distutils
8.5.1 Specifying config_fc options for libraries in setup.py script
It is possible to specify config_fc options in setup.py scripts. For example, using
config.add_library(‘library’,
sources=[…], config_fc={‘noopt’:(__file__,1)})
will compile the library sources without optimization flags.
It’s recommended to specify only those config_fc options in such a way that are compiler independent.

8.4. The __init__.py file

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8.5.2 Getting extra Fortran 77 compiler options from source

Some old Fortran codes need special compiler options in order to work correctly. In order to specify compiler options per source file, `numpy.distutils` Fortran compiler looks for the following pattern:

\[
\text{CF77FLAGS}(<\text{fcompiler type}>)=<\text{fcompiler f77flags}>
\]

in the first 20 lines of the source and use the `f77flags` for specified type of the fcompiler (the first character C is optional).

TODO: This feature can be easily extended for Fortran 90 codes as well. Let us know if you would need such a feature.
Beware of the man who won’t be bothered with details.
— William Feather, Sr.

The truth is out there.
— Chris Carter, The X Files

NumPy provides a C-API to enable users to extend the system and get access to the array object for use in other routines. The best way to truly understand the C-API is to read the source code. If you are unfamiliar with (C) source code, however, this can be a daunting experience at first. Be assured that the task becomes easier with practice, and you may be surprised at how simple the C-code can be to understand. Even if you don’t think you can write C-code from scratch, it is much easier to understand and modify already-written source code than create it de novo.

Python extensions are especially straightforward to understand because they all have a very similar structure. Admittedly, NumPy is not a trivial extension to Python, and may take a little more snooping to grasp. This is especially true because of the code-generation techniques, which simplify maintenance of very similar code, but can make the code a little less readable to beginners. Still, with a little persistence, the code can be opened to your understanding. It is my hope, that this guide to the C-API can assist in the process of becoming familiar with the compiled-level work that can be done with NumPy in order to squeeze that last bit of necessary speed out of your code.

### 9.1 Python Types and C-Structures

Several new types are defined in the C-code. Most of these are accessible from Python, but a few are not exposed due to their limited use. Every new Python type has an associated `PyObject*` with an internal structure that includes a pointer to a “method table” that defines how the new object behaves in Python. When you receive a Python object into C code, you always get a pointer to a `PyObject` structure. Because a `PyObject` structure is very generic and defines only `PyObject_HEAD`, by itself it is not very interesting. However, different objects contain more details after the `PyObject_HEAD` (but you have to cast to the correct type to access them — or use accessor functions or macros).
9.1.1 New Python Types Defined

Python types are the functional equivalent in C of classes in Python. By constructing a new Python type you make available a new object for Python. The ndarray object is an example of a new type defined in C. New types are defined in C by two basic steps:

1. creating a C-structure (usually named Py{Name}Object) that is binary-compatible with the PyObject structure itself but holds the additional information needed for that particular object;

2. populating the PyTypeObject table (pointed to by the ob_type member of the PyObject structure) with pointers to functions that implement the desired behavior for the type.

Instead of special method names which define behavior for Python classes, there are “function tables” which point to functions that implement the desired results. Since Python 2.2, the PyTypeObject itself has become dynamic which allows C types that can be “sub-typed” from other C-types in C, and sub-classed in Python. The children types inherit the attributes and methods from their parent(s).

There are two major new types: the ndarray (PyArray_Type) and the ufunc (PyUFunc_Type). Additional types play a supportive role: the PyArrayIter_Type, the PyArrayMultiIter_Type, and the PyArrayDescr_Type. The PyArrayIter_Type is the type for a flat iterator for an ndarray (the object that is returned when getting the flat attribute). The PyArrayMultiIter_Type is the type of the object returned when calling broadcast(). It handles iteration and broadcasting over a collection of nested sequences. Also, the PyArrayDescr_Type is the data-type-descriptor type whose instances describe the data. Finally, there are 21 new scalar-array types which are new Python scalars corresponding to each of the fundamental data types available for arrays. An additional 10 other types are place holders that allow the array scalars to fit into a hierarchy of actual Python types.

PyArray_Type and PyArrayObject

PyTypeObject PyArray_Type

The Python type of the ndarray is PyArray_Type. In C, every ndarray is a pointer to a PyArrayObject structure. The ob_type member of this structure contains a pointer to the PyArray_Type typeobject.

type PyArrayObject

type NPY_AO

The PyArrayObject C-structure contains all of the required information for an array. All instances of an ndarray (and its subclasses) will have this structure. For future compatibility, these structure members should normally be accessed using the provided macros. If you need a shorter name, then you can make use of NPY_AO (deprecated) which is defined to be equivalent to PyArrayObject. Direct access to the struct fields are deprecated. Use the PyArray__(*arr*) form instead. As of NumPy 1.20, the size of this struct is not considered part of the NumPy ABI (see note at the end of the member list).

```c
typedef struct PyArrayObject {
    PyObject_HEAD
    char *data;
    int nd;
    npy_intp *dimensions;
    npy_intp *strides;
    PyObject *base;
    PyArray_Descr *descr;
    int flags;
    PyObject *weakreflist;
    /* version dependend private members */
} PyArrayObject;
```

PyObject_HEAD

This is needed by all Python objects. It consists of (at least) a reference count member (ob_refcnt) and a pointer to the typeobject (ob_type). (Other elements may also be present if Python was compiled with
special options see Include/object.h in the Python source tree for more information). The ob_type member points to a Python type object.

char *data
Accessible via PyArray_DATA, this data member is a pointer to the first element of the array. This pointer can (and normally should) be recast to the data type of the array.

int nd
An integer providing the number of dimensions for this array. When nd is 0, the array is sometimes called a rank-0 array. Such arrays have undefined dimensions and strides and cannot be accessed. Macro PyArray_NDIM defined in ndarraytypes.h points to this data member. NPY_MAXDIMS is the largest number of dimensions for any array.

npy_intp dimensions
An array of integers providing the shape in each dimension as long as nd ≥ 1. The integer is always large enough to hold a pointer on the platform, so the dimension size is only limited by memory. PyArray_DIMS is the macro associated with this data member.

npy_intp *strides
An array of integers providing for each dimension the number of bytes that must be skipped to get to the next element in that dimension. Associated with macro PyArray_STRIDES.

PyObject *base
Pointed to by PyArray_BASE, this member is used to hold a pointer to another Python object that is related to this array. There are two use cases:

- If this array does not own its own memory, then base points to the Python object that owns it (perhaps another array object)
- If this array has the (deprecated) NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY or NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag set, then this array is a working copy of a “misbehaved” array.

When PyArray.ResolveWritebackIfCopy is called, the array pointed to by base will be updated with the contents of this array.

PyArray_Descr *descr
A pointer to a data-type descriptor object (see below). The data-type descriptor object is an instance of a new built-in type which allows a generic description of memory. There is a descriptor structure for each data type supported. This descriptor structure contains useful information about the type as well as a pointer to a table of function pointers to implement specific functionality. As the name suggests, it is associated with the macro PyArray_DESCR.

int flags
Pointed to by the macro PyArray_FLAGS, this data member represents the flags indicating how the memory pointed to by data is to be interpreted. Possible flags are NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS, NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS, NPY_ARRAY_OWNDATA, NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED, NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE, NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY, and NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY.

PyObject *weakreflist
This member allows array objects to have weak references (using the weakref module).

---

**Note:** Further members are considered private and version dependend. If the size of the struct is important for your code, special care must be taken. A possible use-case when this is relevant is subclassing in C. If your code relies on sizeof(PyArrayObject) to be constant, you must add the following check at import time:
if (sizeof(PyArrayObject) < PyArray_Type.tp_basicsize) {
    PyErr_SetString(PyExc_ImportError,     
        "Binary incompatibility with NumPy, must recompile/update X.");
    return NULL;
}

To ensure that your code does not have to be compiled for a specific NumPy version, you may add a constant, leaving room for changes in NumPy. A solution guaranteed to be compatible with any future NumPy version requires the use of a runtime calculate offset and allocation size.

\section*{PyArrayDescr_Type and PyArray_Descr}

\textbf{PyTypeObject PyArrayDescr_Type}

The \texttt{PyArrayDescr_Type} is the built-in type of the data-type-descriptor objects used to describe how the bytes comprising the array are to be interpreted. There are 21 statically-defined \texttt{PyArray_Descr} objects for the built-in data-types. While these participate in reference counting, their reference count should never reach zero. There is also a dynamic table of user-defined \texttt{PyArray_Descr} objects that is also maintained. Once a data-type-descriptor object is "registered" it should never be deallocated either. The function \texttt{PyArray_DescrFromType(\ldots)} can be used to retrieve a \texttt{PyArray_Descr} object from an enumerated type-number (either built-in or user-defined).

\textbf{type PyArray_Descr}

The \texttt{PyArray_Descr} structure lies at the heart of the \texttt{PyArrayDescr_Type}. While it is described here for completeness, it should be considered internal to NumPy and manipulated via \texttt{PyArrayDescr_*} or \texttt{PyDataType_*} functions and macros. The size of this structure is subject to change across versions of NumPy. To ensure compatibility:

- Never declare a non-pointer instance of the struct
- Never perform pointer arithmatic
- Never use \texttt{sizof(PyArray_Descr)}

It has the following structure:

\begin{verbatim}
typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    PyTypeObject *typeobj;
    char kind;
    char type;
    char byteorder;
    char flags;
    int type_num;
    int elsize;
    int alignment;
    PyArray_ArrayDescr *subarray;
    PyObject *fields;
    PyObject *names;
    PyArray_ArrFuncs *f;
    PyObject *metadata;
    NpyAuxData *c_metadata;
    npy_hash_t hash;
} PyArray_Descr;
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{PyTypeObject *typeobj}

Pointer to a typeobject that is the corresponding Python type for the elements of this array. For the builtin
types, this points to the corresponding array scalar. For user-defined types, this should point to a user-defined type object. This type object can either inherit from array scalars or not. If it does not inherit from array scalars, then the NPY_USE_GETITEM and NPY_USE_SETITEM flags should be set in the flags member.

char kind
A character code indicating the kind of array (using the array interface type string notation). A 'b' represents Boolean, a 'i' represents signed integer, a 'u' represents unsigned integer, 'f' represents floating point, 'c' represents complex floating point, 'S' represents 8-bit zero-terminated bytes, 'U' represents 32-bit/character unicode string, and 'V' represents arbitrary.

char type
A traditional character code indicating the data type.

char byteorder
A character indicating the byte-order: '>' (big-endian), '<' (little-endian), '=' (native), '|' (irrelevant, ignore). All built-in data types have byteorder '='.

char flags
A data-type bit-flag that determines if the data-type exhibits object-array like behavior. Each bit in this member is a flag which are named as:

NPY_ITEM_REFCOUNT
Indicates that items of this data-type must be reference counted (using Py_INCREF and Py_DECREF).

NPY_ITEM_HASOBJECT
Same as NPY_ITEM_REFCOUNT.

NPY_LIST_PICKLE
Indicates arrays of this data-type must be converted to a list before pickling.

NPY_ITEM_IS_POINTER
Indicates the item is a pointer to some other data-type

NPY_NEEDS_INIT
Indicates memory for this data-type must be initialized (set to 0) on creation.

NPY_NEEDS_PYAPI
Indicates this data-type requires the Python C-API during access (so don’t give up the GIL if array access is going to be needed).

NPY_USE_GETITEM
On array access use the f->getitem function pointer instead of the standard conversion to an array scalar. Must use if you don’t define an array scalar to go along with the data-type.

NPY_USE_SETITEM
When creating a 0-d array from an array scalar use f->setitem instead of the standard copy from an array scalar. Must use if you don’t define an array scalar to go along with the data-type.

NPY_FROM_FIELDS
The bits that are inherited for the parent data-type if these bits are set in any field of the data-type. Currently (NPY_NEEDS_INIT | NPY_LIST_PICKLE | NPY_ITEM_REFCOUNT | NPY_NEEDS_PYAPI).

NPY_OBJECT_DTYPE_FLAGS
Bits set for the object data-type: (NPY_LIST_PICKLE | NPY_USE_GETITEM | NPY_ITEM_IS_POINTER | NPY_ITEM_REFCOUNT | NPY_NEEDS_INIT | NPY_NEEDS_PYAPI).

int PyDataType_FLAGCHK (PyArray_Descr *dtype, int flags)
Return true if all the given flags are set for the data-type object.
int PyDataType_REFCHK (PyArray_Descr *dtype)
   Equivalent to PyDataType_FLAGCHK (dtype, NPY_ITEM_REFCOUNT).

int type_num
   A number that uniquely identifies the data type. For new data-types, this number is assigned when the data-
type is registered.

int elsize
   For data types that are always the same size (such as long), this holds the size of the data type. For flexible
data types where different arrays can have a different elementsize, this should be 0.

int alignment
   A number providing alignment information for this data type. Specifically, it shows how far from the
   start of a 2-element structure (whose first element is a char ), the compiler places an item of this type:
   offsetof(struct {char c; type v;}, v)

PyArray_ArrayDescr *subarray
   If this is non- NULL, then this data-type descriptor is a C-style contiguous array of another data-type de-
   scriptor. In other-words, each element that this descriptor describes is actually an array of some other base
descriptor. This is most useful as the data-type descriptor for a field in another data-type descriptor. The
   fields member should be NULL if this is non- NULL (the fields member of the base descriptor can be non-
   NULL however).

type PyArray_ArrayDescr

typedef struct {
   PyArray_Descr *base;
   PyObject *shape;
} PyArray_ArrayDescr;

PyArray_Descr *base
   The data-type-descriptor object of the base-type.

PyObject *shape
   The shape (always C-style contiguous) of the sub-array as a Python tuple.

PyObject *fields
   If this is non-NULL, then this data-type-descriptor has fields described by a Python dictionary whose keys
   are names (and also titles if given) and whose values are tuples that describe the fields. Recall that a data-
type-descriptor always describes a fixed-length set of bytes. A field is a named sub-region of that total,
   fixed-length collection. A field is described by a tuple composed of another data- type-descriptor and a byte
   offset. Optionally, the tuple may contain a title which is normally a Python string. These tuples are placed in
   this dictionary keyed by name (and also title if given).

PyObject *names
   An ordered tuple of field names. It is NULL if no field is defined.

PyArray_ArrFuncs *f
   A pointer to a structure containing functions that the type needs to implement internal features. These func-
tions are not the same thing as the universal functions (ufuncs) described later. Their signatures can vary
arbitrarily.

PyObject *metadata
   Metadata about this dtype.

NpyAuxData *c_metadata
   Metadata specific to the C implementation of the particular dtype. Added for NumPy 1.7.0.

type npy_hash_t
npy_hash_t *hash
Currently unused. Reserved for future use in caching hash values.

type PyArray_ArrFuncs
Functions implementing internal features. Not all of these function pointers must be defined for a given type.
The required members are nonzero, copyswap, copyswapn, setitem, getitem, and cast. These are assumed to be non-
NULL and NULL entries will cause a program crash. The other functions may be NULL which will just mean reduced functionality for that data-type. (Also, the nonzero function will be filled in with a default function if it is NULL when you register a user-defined data-type).

typedef struct {
    PyArray_VectorUnaryFunc *cast[NPY_N TYPES];
    PyArray_GetItemFunc *getitem;
    PyArray_SetItemFunc *setitem;
    PyArray_Cop ySwapN Func *copyswapn;
    PyArray_CopySwapFunc *copyswap;
    PyArray_CompareFunc *compare;
    PyArray_ArgFunc *argmax;
    PyArray_DotFunc *dotfunc;
    PyArray_ScanFunc *scanfunc;
    PyArray_FromStrFunc *fromstr;
    PyArray_NonzeroFunc *nonzero;
    PyArray_FillFunc *fill;
    PyArray_FillWithScalarFunc *fillwithscalar;
    PyArray_SortFunc *sort[NPY_NSORT S];
    PyArray_ArgSortFunc *argsort[NPY_NSORT S];
    PyObject *castdict;
    PyArray_ScalarKindFunc *scalarkind;
    int **cancastscalarkindto;
    int *cancastt o;
    PyArray_FastClipFunc *fastclip; /* deprecated */
    PyArray_FastPutmaskFunc *fastputmask; /* deprecated */
    PyArray_FastTakeFunc *fasttake; /* deprecated */
    PyArray_ArgFunc *argmin;
} PyArray_ArrFuncs;

The concept of a behaved segment is used in the description of the function pointers. A behaved segment is one that is aligned and in native machine byte-order for the data-type. The nonzero, copyswap, copyswapn, getitem, and setitem functions can (and must) deal with mis-behaved arrays. The other functions require behaved memory segments.

void cast (void *from, void *to, npy_intp n, void *fromarr, void *toarr)
An array of function pointers to cast from the current type to all of the other builtin types. Each function casts a contiguous, aligned, and notswapped buffer pointed at by from to a contiguous, aligned, and notswapped buffer pointed at by to The number of items to cast is given by n, and the arguments fromarr and toarr are interpreted as PyArrayObjects for flexible arrays to get itemsize information.

PyObject *getitem (void *data, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that returns a standard Python object from a single element of the array object arr pointed to by data. This function must be able to deal with “misbehaved”(misaligned and/or swapped) arrays correctly.

int setitem (PyObject *item, void *data, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that sets the Python object item into the array, arr, at the position pointed to by data. This function deals with “misbehaved” arrays. If successful, a zero is returned, otherwise, a negative one is returned (and a Python error set).

void copyswap (void *dest, npy_intp dstride, void *src, npy_intp sstride, npy_intp n, int swap, void *arr)
void **copyswap (void *dest, void *src, int swap, void *arr)
These members are both pointers to functions to copy data from src to dest and swap if indicated. The value of arr is only used for flexible (NPY_STRING, NPY_UNICODE, and NPY_VOID) arrays (and is obtained from arr->descr->elsize). The second function copies a single value, while the first loops over n values with the provided strides. These functions can deal with misbehaved src data. If src is NULL then no copy is performed. If swap is 0, then no byteswapping occurs. It is assumed that dest and src do not overlap. If they overlap, then use memmove(...) first followed by copyswap(n) with NULL valued src.

int compare (const void *d1, const void *d2, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that compares two elements of the array, arr, pointed to by d1 and d2. This function requires behaved (aligned and not swapped) arrays. The return value is 1 if *d1 > *d2, 0 if *d1 == *d2, and -1 if *d1 < *d2. The array object arr is used to retrieve itemsize and field information for flexible arrays.

int argmax (void *data, npy_intp n, npy_intp *max_ind, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that retrieves the index of the largest of n elements in arr beginning at the element pointed to by data. This function requires that the memory segment be contiguous and behaved. The return value is always 0. The index of the largest element is returned in max_ind.

void *dotfunc (void *ip1, npy_intp is1, void *ip2, npy_intp is2, void *op, npy_intp n, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that multiplies two n-length sequences together, adds them, and places the result in element pointed to by op of arr. The start of the two sequences are pointed to by ip1 and ip2. To get to the next element in each sequence requires a jump of is1 and is2 bytes, respectively. This function requires behaved (though not necessarily contiguous) memory.

int scanfunc (FILE *fd, void *ip, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that scans (scanf style) one element of the corresponding type from the file descriptor fd into the array memory pointed to by ip. The array is assumed to be behaved. The last argument arr is the array to be scanned into. Returns number of receiving arguments successfully assigned (which may be zero in case a matching failure occurred before the first receiving argument was assigned), or EOF if input failure occurs before the first receiving argument was assigned. This function should be called without holding the Python GIL, and has to grab it for error reporting.

int fromstr (char *str, void *ip, char **endptr, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that converts the string pointed to by str to one element of the corresponding type and places it in the memory location pointed to by ip. After the conversion is completed, *endptr points to the rest of the string. The last argument arr is the array into which ip points (needed for variable-size data- types). Returns 0 on success or -1 on failure. Requires a behaved array. This function should be called without holding the Python GIL, and has to grab it for error reporting.

npy_bool nonzero (void *data, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that returns TRUE if the item of arr pointed to by data is nonzero. This function can deal with misbehaved arrays.

void fill (void *data, npy_intp length, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that fills a contiguous array of given length with data. The first two elements of the array must already be filled- in. From these two values, a delta will be computed and the values from item 3 to the end will be computed by repeatedly adding this computed delta. The data buffer must be well-behaved.

void fillwithscalar (void *buffer, npy_intp length, void *value, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that fills a contiguous buffer of the given length with a single scalar value whose address is given. The final argument is the array which is needed to get the itemsize for variable-length arrays.

int sort (void *start, npy_intp length, void *arr)
An array of function pointers to a particular sorting algorithms. A particular sorting algorithm is obtained using a key (so far NPY_QUICKSORT, NPY_HEAPSORT, and NPY_MERGESORT are defined). These sorts are done in-place assuming contiguous and aligned data.
int `argsort` (void *start, `npy_intp` *result, `npy_intp` length, void *arr)
An array of function pointers to sorting algorithms for this data type. The same sorting algorithms as for sort are available. The indices producing the sort are returned in result (which must be initialized with indices 0 to length-1 inclusive).

PyObject *`castdict`
Either NULL or a dictionary containing low-level casting functions for user-defined data-types. Each function is wrapped in a `PyCapsule`* and keyed by the data-type number.

`NPY_SCALARKIND` `scalarkind` (PyArrayObject *arr)
A function to determine how scalars of this type should be interpreted. The argument is NULL or a 0-dimensional array containing the data (if that is needed to determine the kind of scalar). The return value must be of type `NPY_SCALARKIND`.

int **`cancastscalarkindt`o
Either NULL or an array of `NPY_NSCALARKINDS` pointers. These pointers should each be either NULL or a pointer to an array of integers (terminated by `NPY_NOTYPE`) indicating data-types that a scalar of this data-type of the specified kind can be cast to safely (this usually means without losing precision).

int *`cancastto`
Either NULL or an array of integers (terminated by `NPY_NOTYPE`) indicated data-types that this data-type can be cast to safely (this usually means without losing precision).

void `fastclip` (void *in, `npy_intp` n_in, void *min, void *max, void *out)
Deprecated since version 1.17: The use of this function will give a deprecation warning when np.clip. Instead of this function, the datatype must instead use PyUFunc_RegisterLoopForDescr to attach a custom loop to np.core.umath.clip, np.minimum, and np.maximum.

Deprecated since version 1.19: Setting this function is deprecated and should always be NULL, if set, it will be ignored.

A function that reads n_in items from in, and writes to out the read value if it is within the limits pointed to by min and max, or the corresponding limit if outside. The memory segments must be contiguous and behaved, and either min or max may be NULL, but not both.

void `fastputmask` (void *in, void *mask, `npy_intp` n_in, void *values, `npy_intp` nv)
Deprecated since version 1.19: Setting this function is deprecated and should always be NULL, if set, it will be ignored.

A function that takes a pointer in to an array of n_in items, a pointer mask to an array of n_in boolean values, and a pointer vals to an array of nv items. Items from vals are copied into in wherever the value in mask is non-zero, tiling vals as needed if nv < n_in. All arrays must be contiguous and behaved.

void `fasttake` (void *dest, void *src, `npy_intp` *indarray, `npy_intp` nindarray, `npy_intp` n_outer, `npy_intp` m_middle, `npy_intp` nelem, `NPY_CLIPMODE` clipmode)
Deprecated since version 1.19: Setting this function is deprecated and should always be NULL, if set, it will be ignored.

A function that takes a pointer src to a C contiguous, behaved segment, interpreted as a 3-dimensional array of shape (n_outer, nindarray, nelem), a pointer indarray to a contiguous, behaved segment of m_middle integer indices, and a pointer dest to a C contiguous, behaved segment, interpreted as a 3-dimensional array of shape (n_outer, m_middle, nelem). The indices in indarray are used to index src along the second dimension, and copy the corresponding chunks of nelem items into dest. clipmode (which can take on the values `NPY_RAISE`, `NPY_WRAP` or `NPY_CLIP`) determines how will indices smaller than 0 or larger than nindarray will be handled.

int `argmin` (void *data, `npy_intp` n, `npy_intp` *min_ind, void *arr)
A pointer to a function that retrieves the index of the smallest of n elements in arr beginning at the element pointed to by data. This function requires that the memory segment be contiguous and behaved. The return value is always 0. The index of the smallest element is returned in min_ind.
The `PyArray_Type` typeobject implements many of the features of Python objects including the `tp_as_number`, `tp_as_sequence`, `tp_as_mapping`, and `tp_as_buffer` interfaces. The rich comparison is also used along with new-style attribute lookup for member (`tp_members`) and properties (`tp_getset`). The `PyArray_Type` can also be sub-typed.

**Tip:** The `tp_as_number` methods use a generic approach to call whatever function has been registered for handling the operation. When the `_multiarray_umath` module is imported, it sets the numeric operations for all arrays to the corresponding ufuncs. This choice can be changed with `PyUFunc_ReplaceLoopBySignature`. The `tp_str` and `tp_repr` methods can also be altered using `PyArray_SetStringFunction`.

### PyUFunc_Type and PyUFuncObject

**PyTypeObject** `PyUFunc_Type`

The ufunc object is implemented by creation of the `PyUFunc_Type`. It is a very simple type that implements only basic getattribute behavior, printing behavior, and has call behavior which allows these objects to act like functions. The basic idea behind the ufunc is to hold a reference to fast 1-dimensional (vector) loops for each data type that supports the operation. These one-dimensional loops all have the same signature and are the key to creating a new ufunc. They are called by the generic looping code as appropriate to implement the N-dimensional function. There are also some generic 1-d loops defined for floating and complex floating arrays that allow you to define a ufunc using a single scalar function (e.g. `atanh`).

**type PyUFuncObject**

The core of the ufunc is the `PyUFuncObject` which contains all the information needed to call the underlying C-code loops that perform the actual work. While it is described here for completeness, it should be considered internal to NumPy and manipulated via `PyUFunc_*` functions. The size of this structure is subject to change across versions of NumPy. To ensure compatibility:

- Never declare a non-pointer instance of the struct
- Never perform pointer arithmetic
- Never use `sizeof(PyUFuncObject)`

It has the following structure:

```c
typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    int nin;
    int nout;
    int nargs;
    int identity;
    PyUFuncGenericFunction *functions;
    void **data;
    int ntypes;
    int reserved1;
    const char *name;
    char *types;
    const char *doc;
    void *ptr;
    PyObject *obj;
    PyObject *userloops;
    int core_enabled;
    int core_num_dim_ix;
    int *core_num_dims;
    int *core_dim_ixs;
}(continues on next page)
```
```c
int *core_offsets;
char *core_signature;
PyUFunc_TypeResolutionFunc *type_resolving_f;
PyUFunc_LegacyInnerLoopSelectionFunc *legacy_inner_loop_selector;
PyUFunc_MaskedInnerLoopSelectionFunc *masked_inner_loop_selector;
npy_uint32 *op_flags;
npy_uint32 *iter_flags;
/* new in API version 0x0000000D */
npy_intp *core_dim_sizes;
npy_uint32 *core_dim_flags;
PyObject *identity_value;
} PyUFuncObject;
```

**nin**  
The number of input arguments.

**nout**  
The number of output arguments.

**nargs**  
The total number of arguments (nin + nout). This must be less than `NPY_MAXARGS`.

**identity**  
Either `PyUFunc_One`, `PyUFunc_Zero`, `PyUFunc_MinusOne`, `PyUFunc_None`, `PyUFunc_ReorderableNone`, or `PyUFunc_IdentityValue` to indicate the identity for this operation. It is only used for a reduce-like call on an empty array.

**functions**, (`char**args, npy_intp*dims, npy_intp*steps, void*extradata`)  
An array of function pointers — one for each data type supported by the ufunc. This is the vector loop that is called to implement the underlying function `dims` [0] times. The first argument, `args`, is an array of `nargs` pointers to behave memory. Pointers to the data for the input arguments are first, followed by the pointers to the data for the output arguments. How many bytes must be skipped to get to the next element in the sequence is specified by the corresponding entry in the `steps` array. The last argument allows the loop to receive extra information. This is commonly used so that a single, generic vector loop can be used for multiple functions. In this case, the actual scalar function to call is passed in as `extradata`. The size of this function pointer array is `n-types`.

**data**  
Extra data to be passed to the 1-d vector loops or `NULL` if no extra-data is needed. This C-array must be the same size (i.e. `n-types`) as the functions array. `NULL` is used if extra_data is not needed. Several C-API calls for UFuncs are just 1-d vector loops that make use of this extra data to receive a pointer to the actual function to call.

**ntypes**  
The number of supported data types for the ufunc. This number specifies how many different 1-d loops (of the built-in data types) are available.

**reserved1**  
Unused.

**name**  
A string name for the ufunc. This is used dynamically to build the `__doc__` attribute of ufuncs.

**types**  
An array of `nargs` x `ntypes` 8-bit type_numbers which contains the type signature for the function for each of the supported (built-in) data types. For each of the `ntypes` functions, the corresponding set of type numbers in this array shows how the `args` argument should be interpreted in the 1-d vector loop. These type numbers do not have to be the same type and mixed-type ufuncs are supported.

### 9.1. Python Types and C-Structures

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char *doc
Document for the ufunc. Should not contain the function signature as this is generated dynamically when
__doc__ is retrieved.

void *ptr
Any dynamically allocated memory. Currently, this is used for dynamic ufuncs created from a python function
to store room for the types, data, and name members.

PyObject *obj
For ufuncs dynamically created from python functions, this member holds a reference to the underlying Python
function.

PyObject *userloops
A dictionary of user-defined 1-d vector loops (stored as CObject ptrs) for user-defined types. A loop may be
registered by the user for any user-defined type. It is retrieved by type number. User defined type numbers
are always larger than NPY_USERDEF.

int core_enabled
0 for scalar ufuncs; 1 for generalized ufuncs

int core_num_dim_ix
Number of distinct core dimension names in the signature

int *core_num_dims
Number of core dimensions of each argument

int *core_dim_ixs
Dimension indices in a flattened form; indices of argument k are stored in
core_dim_ixs[core_offsets[k] : core_offsets[k] + core_numdims[k]]

int *core_offsets
Position of 1st core dimension of each argument in core_dim_ixs, equivalent to cum-
sum(core_num_dims)

char *core_signature
Core signature string

PyUFunc_TypeResolutionFunc *type Resolver
A function which resolves the types and fills an array with the dtypes for the inputs and outputs

PyUFunc_LegacyInnerLoopSelectionFunc *legacy_inner_loop_selector
A function which returns an inner loop. The legacy in the name arises because for NumPy 1.6 a better
variant had been planned. This variant has not yet come about.

void *reserved2
For a possible future loop selector with a different signature.

PyUFunc_MaskedInnerLoopSelectionFunc *masked_inner_loop_selector
Function which returns a masked inner loop for the ufunc

npy_uint32 op_flags
Override the default operand flags for each ufunc operand.

npy_uint32 iter_flags
Override the default nditer flags for the ufunc.

Added in API version 0x0000000D

npy_intp *core_dim_sizes
For each distinct core dimension, the possible frozen size if UFUNC_CORE_DIM_SIZE_INFERRED is 0

npy_uint32 *core_dim_flags
For each distinct core dimension, a set of UFUNC_CORE_DIM* flags
**UFUNC_CORE_DIM_CAN_IGNORE**
if the dim name ends in ?

**UFUNC_CORE_DIM_SIZE_INFERRED**
if the dim size will be determined from the operands and not from a frozen signature

*PyObject *identity_value*
Identity for reduction, when *PyUFuncObject.identity* is equal to *PyUFunc_IdentityValue*.

### PyArrayIter_Type and PyArrayIterObject

**PyTypeObject PyArrayIter_Type**

This is an iterator object that makes it easy to loop over an N-dimensional array. It is the object returned from the flat attribute of an ndarray. It is also used extensively throughout the implementation internals to loop over an N-dimensional array. The *tp_as_mapping* interface is implemented so that the iterator object can be indexed (using 1-d indexing), and a few methods are implemented through the *tp_methods* table. This object implements the next method and can be used anywhere an iterator can be used in Python.

**type PyArrayIterObject**

The C-structure corresponding to an object of *PyArrayIter_Type* is the *PyArrayIterObject*. The *PyArrayIterObject* is used to keep track of a pointer into an N-dimensional array. It contains associated information used to quickly march through the array. The pointer can be adjusted in three basic ways: 1) advance to the “next” position in the array in a C-style contiguous fashion, 2) advance to an arbitrary N-dimensional coordinate in the array, and 3) advance to an arbitrary one-dimensional index into the array. The members of the *PyArrayIterObject* structure are used in these calculations. Iterator objects keep their own dimension and strides information about an array. This can be adjusted as needed for “broadcasting,” or to loop over only specific dimensions.

```c
typedef struct {
   PyObject_HEAD
   int nd_m1;
  .npy_intp index;
   .npy_intp size;
   .npy_intp coordinates[NPY_MAXDIMS];
   .npy_intp dims_m1[NPY_MAXDIMS];
   .npy_intp strides[NPY_MAXDIMS];
   .npy_intp backstrides[NPY_MAXDIMS];
   .npy_intp factors[NPY_MAXDIMS];
   PyArrayObject *ao;
   char *dataptr;
   .npy_bool contiguous;
} PyArrayIterObject;
```

**int nd_m1**

$N - 1$ where $N$ is the number of dimensions in the underlying array.

**.npy_intp index**

The current 1-d index into the array.

**.npy_intp size**

The total size of the underlying array.

**.npy_intp *coordinates**

An $N$-dimensional index into the array.

**.npy_intp *dims_m1**

The size of the array minus 1 in each dimension.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

(numpy_intp *) *strides
The strides of the array. How many bytes needed to jump to the next element in each dimension.

(numpy_intp *) *backstrides
How many bytes needed to jump from the end of a dimension back to its beginning. Note that
backstrides[k] == strides[k] * dims_m1[k], but it is stored here as an optimization.

(numpy_intp *) *factors
This array is used in computing an N-d index from a 1-d index. It contains needed products of the dimensions.

PyArrayObject *ao
A pointer to the underlying ndarray this iterator was created to represent.

char *dataptr
This member points to an element in the ndarray indicated by the index.

(numpy_bool) contiguous
This flag is true if the underlying array is NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS. It is used to simplify calculations
when possible.

How to use an array iterator on a C-level is explained more fully in later sections. Typically, you do not need to concern
yourself with the internal structure of the iterator object, and merely interact with it through the use of the macros
PyArray_ITER_NEXT (it), PyArray_ITER_GOTO (it, dest), or PyArray_ITER_GOTO1D (it, index). All of
these macros require the argument it to be a PyArrayIterObject*.

PyArrayMultiIter_Type and PyArrayMultiIterObject

PyTypeObject PyArrayMultiIter_Type
This type provides an iterator that encapsulates the concept of broadcasting. It allows N arrays to be broadcast
together so that the loop progresses in C-style contiguous fashion over the broadcasted array. The corresponding
C-structure is the PyArrayMultiIterObject whose memory layout must begin any object, obj, passed in to
the PyArray_Broadcast (obj) function. Broadcasting is performed by adjusting array iterators so that each
iterator represents the broadcasted shape and size, but has its strides adjusted so that the correct element from the
array is used at each iteration.

type PyArrayMultiIterObject

typedef struct {
   PyObject_HEAD
   int numiter;
   numpy_intp size;
   numpy_intp index;
   int nd;
   numpy_intp dimensions[NPY_MAXDIMS];
   PyArrayIterObject *iters[NPY_MAXDIMS];
} PyArrayMultiIterObject;

int numiter
The number of arrays that need to be broadcast to the same shape.

(numpy_intp) size
The total broadcasted size.

(numpy_intp) index
The current (1-d) index into the broadcasted result.

int nd
The number of dimensions in the broadcasted result.
**npy_intp** *dimensions*

The shape of the broadcasted result (only nd slots are used).

**PyArrayIterObject** **__iter__**

An array of iterator objects that holds the iterators for the arrays to be broadcast together. On return, the iterators are adjusted for broadcasting.

### PyArrayNeighborhoodIter_Type and PyArrayNeighborhoodIterObject

**PyTypeObject** **PyArrayNeighborhoodIter_Type**

This is an iterator object that makes it easy to loop over an N-dimensional neighborhood.

**type** **PyArrayNeighborhoodIterObject**

The C-structure corresponding to an object of **PyArrayNeighborhoodIter_Type** is the **PyArrayNeighborhoodIterObject**.

```c
typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    int nd_m1;
    npy_intp index, size;
    npy_intp coordinates[NPY_MAXDIMS]
    npy_intp dims_m1[NPY_MAXDIMS];
    npy_intp strides[NPY_MAXDIMS];
    npy_intp backstrides[NPY_MAXDIMS];
    npy_intp factors[NPY_MAXDIMS];
    PyArrayObject *ao;
    char *dataptr;
    npy_bool contiguous;
    npy_intp bounds[NPY_MAXDIMS][2];
    npy_intp limits[NPY_MAXDIMS][2];
    npy_intp limits_sizes[NPY_MAXDIMS];
    npy_iter_get_dataptr_t translate;
    npy_intp nd;
    npy_intp dimensions[NPY_MAXDIMS];
    PyArrayIterObject * _internal_iter;
    char * constant;
    int mode;
} PyArrayNeighborhoodIterObject;
```

### PyArrayFlags_Type and PyArrayFlagsObject

**PyTypeObject** **PyArrayFlags_Type**

When the flags attribute is retrieved from Python, a special builtin object of this type is constructed. This special type makes it easier to work with the different flags by accessing them as attributes or by accessing them as if the object were a dictionary with the flag names as entries.

**type** **PyArrayFlagsObject**

```c
typedef struct PyArrayFlagsObject {
    PyObject_HEAD
    PyObject *arr;
    int flags;
} PyArrayFlagsObject;
```
ScalarArrayTypes

There is a Python type for each of the different built-in data types that can be present in the array. Most of these are simple wrappers around the corresponding data type in C. The C-names for these types are `Py{TYPE}ArrType_Type` where `{TYPE}` can be


These type names are part of the C-API and can therefore be created in extension C-code. There is also a `PyIntPtrArrType_Type` and a `PyUIntpArrType_Type` that are simple substitutes for one of the integer types that can hold a pointer on the platform. The structure of these scalar objects is not exposed to C-code. The function `PyArray_ScalarAsCtype(...)` can be used to extract the C-type value from the array scalar and the function `PyArray_Scalar(…)` can be used to construct an array scalar from a C-value.

9.1.2 Other C-Structures

A few new C-structures were found to be useful in the development of NumPy. These C-structures are used in at least one C-API call and are therefore documented here. The main reason these structures were defined is to make it easy to use the Python ParseTuple C-API to convert from Python objects to a useful C-Object.

PyArray_Dims

type `PyArray_Dims`

This structure is very useful when shape and/or strides information is supposed to be interpreted. The structure is:

```c
typedef struct {
    npy_intp *ptr;
    int len;
} PyArray_Dims;
```

The members of this structure are

- `npy_intp *ptr`: A pointer to a list of `npy_intp` integers which usually represent array shape or array strides.
- `int len`: The length of the list of integers. It is assumed safe to access `ptr [0]` to `ptr [len-1]`.

PyArray_Chunk

type `PyArray_Chunk`

This is equivalent to the buffer object structure in Python up to the `ptr` member. On 32-bit platforms (i.e. if `NPY_SIZEOF_INT == NPY_SIZEOF_INTP`), the `len` member also matches an equivalent member of the buffer object. It is useful to represent a generic single-segment chunk of memory.

```c
typedef struct {
    PyObject_HEAD
    PyObject *base;
    void *ptr;
    npy_intp len;
    int flags;
} PyArray_Chunk;
```

The members are
PyObject *base
The Python object this chunk of memory comes from. Needed so that memory can be accounted for properly.

void *ptr
A pointer to the start of the single-segment chunk of memory.

npy_intp len
The length of the segment in bytes.

int flags
Any data flags (e.g. NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE) that should be used to interpret the memory.

PyArrayInterface

See also:

The Array Interface

The PyArrayInterface structure is defined so that NumPy and other extension modules can use the rapid array interface protocol. The __array_struct__ method of an object that supports the rapid array interface protocol should return a PyCapsule that contains a pointer to a PyArrayInterface structure with the relevant details of the array. After the new array is created, the attribute should be DECREF’d which will free the PyArrayInterface structure. Remember to INCREF the object (whose __array_struct__ attribute was retrieved) and point the base member of the new PyArrayObject to this same object. In this way the memory for the array will be managed correctly.

typedef struct {
    int two;
    int nd;
    char typekind;
    int itemsize;
    int flags;
    npy_intp *shape;
    npy_intp *strides;
    void *data;
    PyObject *descr;
} PyArrayInterface;

int two
the integer 2 as a sanity check.

int nd
the number of dimensions in the array.

char typekind

int itemsize
The number of bytes each item in the array requires.

int flags
Any of the bits NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS (1), NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS (2), NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED (0x100), NPY_ARRAY_NOTSWAPPED (0x200), or NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE (0x400) to indicate something about the data. The NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED, NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS, and NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS flags can actually be determined from the other parameters. The flag NPY_ARR_HAS_DESCR (0x800) can also be set to indicate to objects
consuming the version 3 array interface that the descr member of the structure is present (it will be ignored by objects consuming version 2 of the array interface).

```c
npy_intp *shape
```

An array containing the size of the array in each dimension.

```c
npy_intp *strides
```

An array containing the number of bytes to jump to get to the next element in each dimension.

```c
void *data
```

A pointer to the first element of the array.

```c
PyObject *descr
```

A Python object describing the data-type in more detail (same as the descr key in `__array_interface__`). This can be NULL if typekind and itemsize provide enough information. This field is also ignored unless NPY_ARR_HAS_DESCR flag is on in flags.

### Internally used structures

Internally, the code uses some additional Python objects primarily for memory management. These types are not accessible directly from Python, and are not exposed to the C-API. They are included here only for completeness and assistance in understanding the code.

**type PyUFuncLoopObject**

A loose wrapper for a C-structure that contains the information needed for looping. This is useful if you are trying to understand the ufunc looping code. The PyUFuncLoopObject is the associated C-structure. It is defined in the ufuncobject.h header.

**type PyUFuncReduceObject**

A loose wrapper for the C-structure that contains the information needed for reduce-like methods of ufuncs. This is useful if you are trying to understand the reduce, accumulate, and reduce-at code. The PyUFuncReduceObject is the associated C-structure. It is defined in the ufuncobject.h header.

**type PyUFunc_Loop1d**

A simple linked-list of C-structures containing the information needed to define a 1-d loop for a ufunc for every defined signature of a user-defined data-type.

**PyTypeObject PyArrayMapIter_Type**

Advanced indexing is handled with this Python type. It is simply a loose wrapper around the C-structure containing the variables needed for advanced array indexing. The associated C-structure, PyArrayMapIterObject, is useful if you are trying to understand the advanced-index mapping code. It is defined in the arrayobject.h header. This type is not exposed to Python and could be replaced with a C-structure. As a Python type it takes advantage of reference-counted memory management.

### 9.2 System configuration

When NumPy is built, information about system configuration is recorded, and is made available for extension modules using NumPy's C API. These are mostly defined in numpyconfig.h (included in ndarrayobject.h). The public symbols are prefixed by NPY_* . NumPy also offers some functions for querying information about the platform in use.

For private use, NumPy also constructs a config.h in the NumPy include directory, which is not exported by NumPy (that is a python extension which use the numpy C API will not see those symbols), to avoid namespace pollution.
9.2.1 Data type sizes

The `NPY_SIZEOF_{CTYPE}` constants are defined so that `sizeof` information is available to the pre-processor.

- `NPY_SIZEOF_SHORT` 
  `sizeof(short)`
- `NPY_SIZEOF_INT` 
  `sizeof(int)`
- `NPY_SIZEOF_LONG` 
  `sizeof(long)`
- `NPY_SIZEOF_LONGLONG` 
  `sizeof(longlong)` where `longlong` is defined appropriately on the platform.
- `NPY_SIZEOF_PY_LONG_LONG`
- `NPY_SIZEOF_FLOAT` 
  `sizeof(float)`
- `NPY_SIZEOF_DOUBLE` 
  `sizeof(double)`
- `NPY_SIZEOF_LONG_DOUBLE` 
  `sizeof(longdouble)`
- `NPY_SIZEOF_PY_INTPTR_T`
- `NPY_SIZEOF_INTP` 
  Size of a pointer on this platform (`sizeof(void *)`)

9.2.2 Platform information

- `NPY_CPU_X86`
- `NPY_CPU_AMD64`
- `NPY_CPU_IA64`
- `NPY_CPU_PPC`
- `NPY_CPU_PPC64`
- `NPY_CPU_SPARC`
- `NPY_CPU_SPARC64`
- `NPY_CPU_S390`
- `NPY_CPU_PARISC` 
  New in version 1.3.0.
  CPU architecture of the platform; only one of the above is defined.
  Defined in `numpy/npy_cpu.h`
- `NPY_LITTLE_ENDIAN`
- `NPY_BIG_ENDIAN`
**NPY_BYTE_ORDER**

New in version 1.3.0.

Portable alternatives to the endian.h macros of GNU Libc. If big endian, `NPY_BYTE_ORDER == NPY_BIG_ENDIAN`, and similarly for little endian architectures.

Defined in `numpy/npy_endian.h`.

`int PyArray_GetEndianness()`  
New in version 1.3.0.

Returns the endianness of the current platform. One of `NPY_CPU_BIG`, `NPY_CPU_LITTLE`, or `NPY_CPU_UNKNOWN_ENDIAN`.

- `NPY_CPU_BIG`
- `NPY_CPU_LITTLE`
- `NPY_CPU_UNKNOWN_ENDIAN`

### 9.2.3 Compiler directives

- `NPY_LIKELY`
- `NPY_UNLIKELY`
- `NPY_UNUSED`

### 9.2.4 Interrupt Handling

- `NPY_INTERRUPT_H`
- `NPY_SIGSETJMP`
- `NPY_SIGLONGJMP`
- `NPY_SIGJMP_BUF`
- `NPY_SIGINT_ON`
- `NPY_SIGINT_OFF`

### 9.3 Data Type API

The standard array can have 24 different data types (and has some support for adding your own types). These data types all have an enumerated type, an enumerated type-character, and a corresponding array scalar Python type object (placed in a hierarchy). There are also standard C typedefs to make it easier to manipulate elements of the given data type. For the numeric types, there are also bit-width equivalent C typedefs and named typenumbers that make it easier to select the precision desired.

---

**Warning:** The names for the types in C code follows C naming conventions more closely. The Python names for these types follow Python conventions. Thus, `NPY_FLOAT` picks up a 32-bit float in C, but `numpy.float_` in Python corresponds to a 64-bit double. The bit-width names can be used in both Python and C for clarity.
9.3.1 Enumerated Types

There is a list of enumerated types defined providing the basic 24 data types plus some useful generic names. Whenever the code requires a type number, one of these enumerated types is requested. The types are all called \texttt{NPY\_\{NAME\}}:

- \texttt{NPY\_BOOL}
  - The enumeration value for the boolean type, stored as one byte. It may only be set to the values 0 and 1.

- \texttt{NPY\_BYTE}

- \texttt{NPY\_INT8}
  - The enumeration value for an 8-bit/1-byte signed integer.

- \texttt{NPY\_SHORT}

- \texttt{NPY\_INT16}
  - The enumeration value for a 16-bit/2-byte signed integer.

- \texttt{NPY\_INT}

- \texttt{NPY\_INT32}
  - The enumeration value for a 32-bit/4-byte signed integer.

- \texttt{NPY\_LONG}
  - Equivalent to either \texttt{NPY\_INT} or \texttt{NPY\_LONGLONG}, depending on the platform.

- \texttt{NPY\_LONGLONG}

- \texttt{NPY\_INT64}
  - The enumeration value for a 64-bit/8-byte signed integer.

- \texttt{NPY\_UBYTE}

- \texttt{NPY\_UINT8}
  - The enumeration value for an 8-bit/1-byte unsigned integer.

- \texttt{NPY\_USHORT}

- \texttt{NPY\_UINT16}
  - The enumeration value for a 16-bit/2-byte unsigned integer.

- \texttt{NPY\_UINT}

- \texttt{NPY\_UINT32}
  - The enumeration value for a 32-bit/4-byte unsigned integer.

- \texttt{NPY\_ULONG}
  - Equivalent to either \texttt{NPY\_UINT} or \texttt{NPY\_ULONGLONG}, depending on the platform.

- \texttt{NPY\_ULONGLONG}

- \texttt{NPY\_UINT64}
  - The enumeration value for a 64-bit/8-byte unsigned integer.

- \texttt{NPY\_HALF}

- \texttt{NPY\_FLOAT16}
  - The enumeration value for a 16-bit/2-byte IEEE 754-2008 compatible floating point type.

- \texttt{NPY\_FLOAT}

- \texttt{NPY\_FLOAT32}
  - The enumeration value for a 32-bit/4-byte IEEE 745 compatible floating point type.
enumerator **NPY_DOUBLE**

The enumeration value for a 64-bit/8-byte IEEE 754 compatible floating point type.

enumerator **NPY_FLOAT64**

The enumeration value for a 64-bit/8-byte IEEE 754 compatible floating point type.

enumerator **NPY_LONGDOUBLE**

The enumeration value for a platform-specific floating point type which is at least as large as NPY_DOUBLE, but larger on many platforms.

enumerator **NPY_CFLOAT**

The enumeration value for a 64-bit/8-byte complex type made up of two NPY_FLOAT values.

enumerator **NPY_CDOUBLE**

The enumeration value for a 128-bit/16-byte complex type made up of two NPY_DOUBLE values.

enumerator **NPY_COMPLEX64**

The enumeration value for a 128-bit/16-byte complex type made up of two NPY_DOUBLE values.

enumerator **NPY_CLONGDOUBLE**

The enumeration value for a platform-specific complex floating point type which is made up of two NPY_LONGDOUBLE values.

enumerator **NPY_DATETIME**

The enumeration value for a data type which holds dates or datetimes with a precision based on selectable date or time units.

enumerator **NPY_TIMEDELTA**

The enumeration value for a data type which holds lengths of times in integers of selectable date or time units.

enumerator **NPY_STRING**

The enumeration value for ASCII strings of a selectable size. The strings have a fixed maximum size within a given array.

enumerator **NPY_UNICODE**

The enumeration value for UCS4 strings of a selectable size. The strings have a fixed maximum size within a given array.

enumerator **NPY_OBJECT**

The enumeration value for references to arbitrary Python objects.

enumerator **NPY_VOID**

Primarily used to hold struct dtypes, but can contain arbitrary binary data.

Some useful aliases of the above types are

enumerator **NPY_INTP**

The enumeration value for a signed integer type which is the same size as a (void *) pointer. This is the type used by all arrays of indices.

enumerator **NPY_UINTP**

The enumeration value for an unsigned integer type which is the same size as a (void *) pointer.

enumerator **NPY_MASK**

The enumeration value of the type used for masks, such as with the NPY_ITER_ARRAYMASK iterator flag. This is equivalent to NPY_UINT8.

enumerator **NPY_DEFAULT_TYPE**

The default type to use when no dtype is explicitly specified, for example when calling np.zeros(shape). This is equivalent to NPY_DOUBLE.

Other useful related constants are
**NPY_NTYPES**
The total number of built-in NumPy types. The enumeration covers the range from 0 to NPY_NTYPES-1.

**NPY_NOTYPE**
A signal value guaranteed not to be a valid type enumeration number.

**NPY_USERDEF**
The start of type numbers used for Custom Data types.

The various character codes indicating certain types are also part of an enumerated list. References to type characters (should they be needed at all) should always use these enumerations. The form of them is \texttt{NPY\_\{NAME\}LTR} where \{NAME\} can be

\begin{verbatim}
    BOOL, BYTE, UBYTE, SHORT, USHORT, INT, UINT, LONG, ULONG, LONGLONG, ULONGLONG, HALF, FLOAT, DOUBLE, LONGDOUBLE, CFLOAT, CDOUBLE, CLONGDOUBLE, DATETIME, TIMEDELTA, OBJECT, STRING, VOID
    UNTYPE, UINTP
    GENBOOL, SIGNED, UNSIGNED, FLOATING, COMPLEX
\end{verbatim}

The latter group of \{NAME\}s corresponds to letters used in the array interface typestring specification.

### 9.3.2 Defines

**Max and min values for integers**

**NPY\_MAX\_INT{bits}, NPY\_MAX\_UINT{bits}, NPY\_MIN\_INT{bits}**

These are defined for \{bits\} = 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, and 256 and provide the maximum (minimum) value of the corresponding (unsigned) integer type. Note: the actual integer type may not be available on all platforms (i.e. 128-bit and 256-bit integers are rare).

**NPY\_MIN\_{type}**

This is defined for \{type\} = BYTE, SHORT, INT, LONG, LONGLONG, INTP

**NPY\_MAX\_{type}**

This is defined for all defined for \{type\} = BYTE, UBYTE, SHORT, USHORT, INT, UINT, LONG, ULONG, LONGLONG, ULONGLONG, INTP, UINTP

**Number of bits in data types**

All \texttt{NPY\_SIZEOF\_\{CTYPE\}} constants have corresponding \texttt{NPY\_BITSOF\_\{CTYPE\}} constants defined. The \texttt{NPY\_BITSOF\_\{CTYPE\}} constants provide the number of bits in the data type. Specifically, the available \{CTYPE\}s are

\begin{verbatim}
    BOOL, CHAR, SHORT, INT, LONG, LONGLONG, FLOAT, DOUBLE, LONGDOUBLE
\end{verbatim}
Bit-width references to enumerated typenums

All of the numeric data types (integer, floating point, and complex) have constants that are defined to be a specific enumerated type number. Exactly which enumerated type a bit-width type refers to is platform dependent. In particular, the constants available are `PyArray_{NAME}{BITS}` where `{NAME}` is `INT`, `UINT`, `FLOAT`, `COMPLEX` and `{BITS}` can be 8, 16, 32, 64, 80, 96, 128, 160, 192, 256, and 512. Obviously not all bit-widths are available on all platforms for all the kinds of numeric types. Commonly 8-, 16-, 32-, 64-bit integers; 32-, 64-bit floats; and 64-, 128-bit complex types are available.

Integer that can hold a pointer

The constants `NPY_INTP` and `NPY_UINTP` refer to an enumerated integer type that is large enough to hold a pointer on the platform. Index arrays should always be converted to `NPY_INTP`, because the dimension of the array is of type `npy_intp`.

9.3.3 C-type names

There are standard variable types for each of the numeric data types and the bool data type. Some of these are already available in the C-specification. You can create variables in extension code with these types.

**Boolean**

```c
type npy_bool
    unsigned char; The constants NPY_FALSE and NPY_TRUE are also defined.
```

**(Un)Signed Integer**

Unsigned versions of the integers can be defined by pre-pending a ‘u’ to the front of the integer name.

```c
type npy_byte
    char

type npy_ubyte
    unsigned char

type npy_short
    short

type npy_ushort
    unsigned short

type npy_int
    int

type npy_uint
    unsigned int

type npy_int16
    16-bit integer

type npy_uint16
    16-bit unsigned integer

type npy_int32
    32-bit integer
```
type `npy_uint32`
   32-bit unsigned integer

type `npy_int64`
   64-bit integer

type `npy_uint64`
   64-bit unsigned integer

type `npy_long`
   long int

type `npy_ulong`
   unsigned long int

type `npy_longlong`
   long long int

type `npy_ulonglong`
   unsigned long long int

type `npy_intp`
   Py_intptr_t (an integer that is the size of a pointer on the platform).

type `npy_uintp`
   unsigned Py_intptr_t (an integer that is the size of a pointer on the platform).

(Complex) Floating point

type `npy_half`
   16-bit float

type `npy_float`
   32-bit float

type `npy_cfloat`
   32-bit complex float

type `npy_double`
   64-bit double

type `npy_cdouble`
   64-bit complex double

type `npy_longdouble`
   long double

type `npy_clongdouble`
   long complex double

complex types are structures with `.real` and `.imag` members (in that order).
Bit-width names

There are also typedefs for signed integers, unsigned integers, floating point, and complex floating point types of specific bit-widths. The available type names are

\[\text{npy\_int}\{\text{bits}\}, \text{npy\_uint}\{\text{bits}\}, \text{npy\_float}\{\text{bits}\}, \text{and npy\_complex}\{\text{bits}\}\]

where \{bits\} is the number of bits in the type and can be 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, and 256 for integer types; 16, 32, 64, 80, 96, 128, and 256 for floating-point types; and 32, 64, 128, 160, 192, and 512 for complex-valued types. Which bit-widths are available is platform dependent. The bolded bit-widths are usually available on all platforms.

9.3.4 Printf Formatting

For help in printing, the following strings are defined as the correct format specifier in printf and related commands.

\text{NPY\_LONGLONG\_FMT}
\text{NPY\_ULONGLONG\_FMT}
\text{NPY\_INTP\_FMT}
\text{NPY\_UINTP\_FMT}
\text{NPY\_LONGDOUBLE\_FMT}

9.4 Array API

The test of a first-rate intelligence is the ability to hold two opposed ideas in the mind at the same time, and still retain the ability to function.
— F. Scott Fitzgerald

For a successful technology, reality must take precedence over public relations, for Nature cannot be fooled.
— Richard P. Feynman

9.4.1 Array structure and data access

These macros access the \text{PyArrayObject} structure members and are defined in \text{ndarraytypes.h}. The input argument, \text{arr}, can be any \text{PyObject} * that is directly interpretable as a \text{PyArrayObject} * (any instance of the \text{PyArray\_Type} and its sub-types).

\begin{verbatim}
int PyArray\_NDIM (PyArrayObject *arr)
    The number of dimensions in the array.

int PyArray\_FLAGS (PyArrayObject *arr)
    Returns an integer representing the array-flags.

int PyArray\_TYPE (PyArrayObject *arr)
    Return the (builtin) typenumber for the elements of this array.
\end{verbatim}
int **PyArray_SETITEM (PyArrayObject *arr, void *itemptr, PyObject *obj)
    Convert obj and place it in the ndarray, arr, at the place pointed to by itemptr. Return -1 if an error occurs or 0 on success.

void PyArray_ENABLEFLAGS (PyArrayObject *arr, int flags)
    New in version 1.7.
    Enables the specified array flags. This function does no validation, and assumes that you know what you’re doing.

void PyArray_CLEARFLAGS (PyArrayObject *arr, int flags)
    New in version 1.7.
    Clears the specified array flags. This function does no validation, and assumes that you know what you’re doing.

void *PyArray_DATA (PyArrayObject *arr)

char *PyArray_BYTES (PyArrayObject *arr)
    These two macros are similar and obtain the pointer to the data-buffer for the array. The first macro can (and should be) assigned to a particular pointer where the second is for generic processing. If you have not guaranteed a contiguous and/or aligned array then be sure you understand how to access the data in the array to avoid memory and/or alignment problems.

npy_intp *PyArray_DIMS (PyArrayObject *arr)
    Returns a pointer to the dimensions/shape of the array. The number of elements matches the number of dimensions of the array. Can return NULL for 0-dimensional arrays.

npy_intp *PyArray_SHAPE (PyArrayObject *arr)
    New in version 1.7.
    A synonym for PyArray_DIMS, named to be consistent with the shape usage within Python.

npy_intp *PyArray_STRIDES (PyArrayObject *arr)
    Returns a pointer to the strides of the array. The number of elements matches the number of dimensions of the array.

npy_intp PyArray_DIM (PyArrayObject *arr, int n)
    Return the shape in the n-th dimension.

npy_intp PyArray_STRIPED (PyArrayObject *arr, int n)
    Return the stride in the n-th dimension.

npy_intp PyArray_ITEMSIZE (PyArrayObject *arr)
    Return the itemsize for the elements of this array.
    Note that, in the old API that was deprecated in version 1.7, this function had the return type int.

npy_intp PyArray_SIZE (PyArrayObject *arr)
    Returns the total size (in number of elements) of the array.

npy_intp PyArray_Size (PyArrayObject *obj)
    Returns 0 if obj is not a sub-class of ndarray. Otherwise, returns the total number of elements in the array. Safer version of PyArray_SIZE (obj).

npy_intp PyArray_NBYTES (PyArrayObject *arr)
    Returns the total number of bytes consumed by the array.

PyObject *PyArray_BASE (PyArrayObject *arr)
    This returns the base object of the array. In most cases, this means the object which owns the memory the array is pointing at.
    If you are constructing an array using the C API, and specifying your own memory, you should use the function PyArray_SetBaseObject to set the base to an object which owns the memory.
If the (deprecated) `NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY` or the `NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY` flags are set, it has a different meaning, namely base is the array into which the current array will be copied upon copy resolution. This overloading of the base property for two functions is likely to change in a future version of NumPy.

```
PyArray_Descr *PyArray_DESCR (PyArrayObject *arr)

Returns a borrowed reference to the dtype property of the array.
```

```
PyArray_Descr *PyArray_DTYPE (PyArrayObject *arr)

New in version 1.7.

A synonym for PyArray_DESCR, named to be consistent with the ‘dtype’ usage within Python.
```

```
PyObject *PyArray_GETITEM (PyArrayObject *arr, void *itemptr)

Get a Python object of a builtin type from the ndarray, arr, at the location pointed to by itemptr. Return NULL on failure.

numpy.ndarray.item is identical to PyArray_GETITEM.
```

Data access

These functions and macros provide easy access to elements of the ndarray from C. These work for all arrays. You may need to take care when accessing the data in the array, however, if it is not in machine byte-order, misaligned, or not writeable. In other words, be sure to respect the state of the flags unless you know what you are doing, or have previously guaranteed an array that is writeable, aligned, and in machine byte-order using `PyArray_FromAny`. If you wish to handle all types of arrays, the copyswap function for each type is useful for handling misbehaved arrays. Some platforms (e.g. Solaris) do not like misaligned data and will crash if you de-reference a misaligned pointer. Other platforms (e.g. x86 Linux) will just work more slowly with misaligned data.

```
void *PyArray_GetPtr (PyArrayObject *aobj, npy_intp *ind)

Return a pointer to the data of the ndarray, aobj, at the N-dimensional index given by the c-array, ind, (which must be at least aobj->nd in size). You may want to typecast the returned pointer to the data type of the ndarray.
```

```
void *PyArray_GETP1 (PyArrayObject *obj, npy_intp i)

```

```
void *PyArray_GETP2 (PyArrayObject *obj, npy_intp i, npy_intp j)

```

```
void *PyArray_GETP3 (PyArrayObject *obj, npy_intp i, npy_intp j, npy_intp k)

```

```
void *PyArray_GETP4 (PyArrayObject *obj, npy_intp i, npy_intp j, npy_intp k, npy_intp l)

```

Quick, inline access to the element at the given coordinates in the ndarray, obj, which must have respectively 1, 2, 3, or 4 dimensions (this is not checked). The corresponding i, j, k, and l coordinates can be any integer but will be interpreted as npy_intp. You may want to typecast the returned pointer to the data type of the ndarray.

9.4.2 Creating arrays

From scratch

```
PyObject *PyArray_NewFromDescr (PyTypeObject *subtype, PyArray_Descr *descr, int nd, npy_intp const *dims, npy_intp const *strides, void *data, int flags, PyObject *obj)

This function steals a reference to descr. The easiest way to get one is using `PyArray_DescrFromType`.

This is the main array creation function. Most new arrays are created with this flexible function.

The returned object is an object of Python-type subtype, which must be a subtype of PyArray_Type. The array has nd dimensions, described by dims. The data-type descriptor of the new array is descr.
```
If `subtype` is of an array subclass instead of the base `&PyArray_Type`, then `obj` is the object to pass to the `__array_finalize__` method of the subclass.

If `data` is NULL, then new uninitialized memory will be allocated and `flags` can be non-zero to indicate a Fortran-style contiguous array. Use `PyArray_FILLWBYTE` to initialize the memory.

If `data` is not NULL, then it is assumed to point to the memory to be used for the array and the `flags` argument is used as the new flags for the array (except the state of `NPY_ARRAY_OWNDATA, NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY` and `NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY` flags of the new array will be reset).

In addition, if `data` is non-NULL, then `strides` can also be provided. If `strides` is NULL, then the array strides are computed as C-style contiguous (default) or Fortran-style contiguous (`flags` is nonzero for `data = NULL` or `flags & NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS` is nonzero non-NULL `data`). Any provided `dims` and `strides` are copied into newly allocated dimension and strides arrays for the new array object.

`PyArray_CheckStrides` can help verify non-NULL stride information.

If `data` is provided, it must stay alive for the life of the array. One way to manage this is through `PyArray_SetBaseObject`.

```python
PyObject *PyArray_NewLikeArray(PyArrayObject *prototype, NPY_ORDER order, PyArray_Descr *descr, int subok)
```

New in version 1.6.

This function steals a reference to `descr` if it is not NULL. This array creation routine allows for the convenient creation of a new array matching an existing array's shapes and memory layout, possibly changing the layout and/or data type.

When `order` is `NPY_ANYORDER`, the result order is `NPY_FORTRANORDER` if `prototype` is a fortran array, `NPY_CORDER` otherwise. When `order` is `NPY_KEEPORDER`, the result order matches that of `prototype`, even when the axes of `prototype` aren’t in C or Fortran order.

If `descr` is NULL, the data type of `prototype` is used.

If `subok` is 1, the newly created array will use the sub-type of `prototype` to create the new array, otherwise it will create a base-class array.

```python
PyObject *PyArray_New(PyTypeObject *subtype, int nd, npy_intp const *dims, int type_num, npy_intp const *strides, void *data, int itemsize, int flags, PyObject *obj)
```

This is similar to `PyArray_NewFromDescr` (...) except you specify the data-type descriptor with `type_num` and `itemsize`, where `type_num` corresponds to a builtin (or user-defined) type. If the type always has the same number of bytes, then `itemsize` is ignored. Otherwise, `itemsize` specifies the particular size of this array.

**Warning:** If data is passed to `PyArray_NewFromDescr` or `PyArray_New`, this memory must not be deallocated until the new array is deleted. If this data came from another Python object, this can be accomplished using `Py_INCREF` on that object and setting the base member of the new array to point to that object. If strides are passed in they must be consistent with the dimensions, the `itemsize`, and the data of the array.

```python
PyObject *PyArray_SimpleNew (int nd, npy_intp const *dims, int typenum)
```

Create a new uninitialized array of type, `typenum`, whose size in each of `nd` dimensions is given by the integer array, `dims`. The memory for the array is uninitialized (unless typenum is `NPY_OBJECT` in which case each element in the array is set to NULL). The `typenum` argument allows specification of any of the builtin data-types such as `NPY_FLOAT` or `NPY_LONG`. The memory for the array can be set to zero if desired using `PyArray_FILLWBYTE` (return_object, 0). This function cannot be used to create a flexible-type array (no `itemsize` given).

```python
PyObject *PyArray_SimpleNewFromData (int nd, npy_intp const *dims, int typenum, void *data)
```

Create an array wrapper around `data` pointed to by the given pointer. The array flags will have a default that the data area is well-behaved and C-style contiguous. The shape of the array is given by the `dims` c-array of length `nd`.

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The data-type of the array is indicated by typenum. If data comes from another reference-counted Python object, the reference count on this object should be increased after the pointer is passed in, and the base member of the returned ndarray should point to the Python object that owns the data. This will ensure that the provided memory is not freed while the returned array is in existence. To free memory as soon as the ndarray is deallocated, set the OWNDATA flag on the returned ndarray.

PyObject *PyArray_SimpleNewFromDescr (int nd, npy_int const *dims, PyArray_Descr *descr)
This function steals a reference to descr.
Create a new array with the provided data-type descriptor, descr, of the shape determined by nd and dims.

void PyArray_FILLWBYTE (PyObject *obj, int val)
Fill the array pointed to by obj—which must be a (subclass of) ndarray—with the contents of val (evaluated as a byte). This macro calls memset, so obj must be contiguous.

PyObject *PyArray_Zeros (int nd, npy_intp const *dims, PyArray_Descr *dtype, int fortran)
Construct a new nd-dimensional array with shape given by dims and data type given by dtype. If fortran is non-zero, then a Fortran-order array is created, otherwise a C-order array is created. Fill the memory with zeros (or the 0 object if dtype corresponds to NPY_OBJECT).

PyObject *PyArray_ZEROS (int nd, npy_intp const *dims, int type_num, int fortran)
Macro form of PyArray_Zeros which takes a type-number instead of a data-type object.

PyObject *PyArray_Empty (int nd, npy_intp const *dims, PyArray_Descr *dtype, int fortran)
Construct a new nd-dimensional array with shape given by dims and data type given by dtype. If fortran is non-zero, then a Fortran-order array is created, otherwise a C-order array is created. The array is uninitialized unless the data type corresponds to NPY_OBJECT in which case the array is filled with Py_None.

PyObject *PyArray_EMPTY (int nd, npy_intp const *dims, int typenum, int fortran)
Macro form of PyArray_Empty which takes a type-number, typenum, instead of a data-type object.

PyObject *PyArray_Arange (double start, double stop, double step, int typenum)
Construct a new 1-dimensional array of data-type, typenum, that ranges from start to stop (exclusive) in increments of step. Equivalent to arange (start, stop, step, dtype).

PyObject *PyArray_ArangeObj (PyObject *start, PyObject *stop, PyObject *step, PyArray_Descr *descr)
Construct a new 1-dimensional array of data-type determined by descr, that ranges from start to stop (exclusive) in increments of step. Equivalent to arange (start, stop, step, typenum).

int PyArray_SetBaseObject (PyArrayObject *arr, PyObject *obj)
New in version 1.7.
This function steals a reference to obj and sets it as the base property of arr.
If you construct an array by passing in your own memory buffer as a parameter, you need to set the array’s base property to ensure the lifetime of the memory buffer is appropriate.
The return value is 0 on success, -1 on failure.
If the object provided is an array, this function traverses the chain of base pointers so that each array points to the owner of the memory directly. Once the base is set, it may not be changed to another value.
From other objects

PyObject *PyArray_FromAny (PyObject *op, PyArray_Descr *dtype, int min_depth, int max_depth, int requirements, PyObject *context)

This is the main function used to obtain an array from any nested sequence, or object that exposes the array interface, op. The parameters allow specification of the required dtype, the minimum (min_depth) and maximum (max_depth) number of dimensions acceptable, and other requirements for the array. This function steals a reference to the dtype argument, which needs to be a PyArray_Descr structure indicating the desired data-type (including required byteorder). The dtype argument may be NULL, indicating that any data-type (and byteorder) is acceptable. Unless NPY_ARRAY_FORCECAST is present in flags, this call will generate an error if the data type cannot be safely obtained from the object. If you want to use NULL for the dtype and ensure the array is not swapped then use PyArray_CheckFromAny. A value of 0 for either of the depth parameters causes the parameter to be ignored. Any of the following array flags can be added (e.g. using |) to get the requirements argument. If your code can handle general (e.g. strided, byte-swapped, or unaligned arrays) then requirements may be 0. Also, if op is not already an array (or does not expose the array interface), then a new array will be created (and filled from op using the sequence protocol). The new array will have NPY_ARRAY_DEFAULT as its flags member. The context argument is unused.

NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS
Make sure the returned array is C-style contiguous

NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS
Make sure the returned array is Fortran-style contiguous.

NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED
Make sure the returned array is aligned on proper boundaries for its data type. An aligned array has the data pointer and every strides factor as a multiple of the alignment factor for the data-type descriptor.

NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE
Make sure the returned array can be written to.

NPY_ARRAY_ENSURECOPY
Make sure a copy is made of op. If this flag is not present, data is not copied if it can be avoided.

NPY_ARRAY_ENSUREARRAY
Make sure the result is a base-class ndarray. By default, if op is an instance of a subclass of ndarray, an instance of that same subclass is returned. If this flag is set, an ndarray object will be returned instead.

NPY_ARRAY_FORCECAST
Force a cast to the output type even if it cannot be done safely. Without this flag, a data cast will occur only if it can be done safely, otherwise an error is raised.

NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY
If op is already an array, but does not satisfy the requirements, then a copy is made (which will satisfy the requirements). If this flag is present and a copy (of an object that is already an array) must be made, then the corresponding NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag is set in the returned copy and op is made to be read-only. You must be sure to call PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy to copy the contents back into op and the op array will be made writeable again. If op is not writeable to begin with, or if it is not already an array, then an error is raised.

NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY
Deprecated. Use NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY, which is similar. This flag “automatically” copies the data back when the returned array is deallocated, which is not supported in all python implementations.

NPY_ARRAY_BEHAVED

NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS | NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE

NPY_ARRAY_CARRAY

NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS | NPY_ARRAY_BEHAVED
NPY_ARRAY_CARRAY\_RO
  NPY\_ARRAY\_C\_CONTIGUOUS\|NPY\_ARRAY\_ALIGNED

NPY\_ARRAY\_FARRAY
  NPY\_ARRAY\_F\_CONTIGUOUS\|NPY\_ARRAY\_BEHAVED

NPY\_ARRAY\_FARRAY\_RO
  NPY\_ARRAY\_F\_CONTIGUOUS\|NPY\_ARRAY\_ALIGNED

NPY\_ARRAY\_DEFAULT
  NPY\_ARRAY\_CARRAY

NPY\_ARRAY\_IN\_ARRAY
  NPY\_ARRAY\_C\_CONTIGUOUS\|NPY\_ARRAY\_ALIGNED

NPY\_ARRAY\_IN\_FARRAY
  NPY\_ARRAY\_F\_CONTIGUOUS\|NPY\_ARRAY\_ALIGNED

NPY\_OUT\_ARRAY
  NPY\_ARRAY\_C\_CONTIGUOUS\|NPY\_ARRAY\_WRITEABLE\|NPY\_ARRAY\_ALIGNED

NPY\_ARRAY\_OUT\_ARRAY
  NPY\_ARRAY\_C\_CONTIGUOUS\|NPY\_ARRAY\_ALIGNED\|NPY\_ARRAY\_WRITEABLE

NPY\_ARRAY\_OUT\_FARRAY
  NPY\_ARRAY\_F\_CONTIGUOUS\|NPY\_ARRAY\_WRITEABLE\|NPY\_ARRAY\_ALIGNED

int PyArray\_GetArrayParams\_FromObject (PyObject *op, PyArray\_Descr *requested\_dtype, npy\_bool writeable, PyArray\_Descr **out\_dtype, int *out\_ndim, npy\_intp *out\_dims, PyArrayObject **out\_arr, PyObject *context)

Deprecated since version NumPy: 1.19

Unless NumPy is made aware of an issue with this, this function is scheduled for rapid removal without replacement.

Changed in version NumPy: 1.19

context is never used. Its use results in an error.

New in version 1.6.

PyObject *PyArray\_CheckFromAny (PyObject *op, PyArray\_Descr *dtype, int min\_depth, int max\_depth, int requirements, PyObject *context)

Nearly identical to PyArray\_FromAny (...) except requirements can contain NPY\_ARRAY\_NOTSWAPPED (over-riding the specification in dtype) and NPY\_ARRAY\_ELEMENTSTRIDES which indicates that the array should be aligned in the sense that the strides are multiples of the element size.

In versions 1.6 and earlier of NumPy, the following flags did not have the _ARRAY_ macro namespace in them. That form of the constant names is deprecated in 1.7.

NPY\_ARRAY\_NOTSWAPPED

Make sure the returned array has a data-type descriptor that is in machine byte-order, over-riding any specification in the dtype argument. Normally, the byte-order requirement is determined by the dtype argument. If this flag is set and the dtype argument does not indicate a machine byte-order descriptor (or is NULL and the object is already an array with a data-type descriptor that is not in machine byte- order), then a new data-type descriptor is created and used with its byte-order field set to native.
NPY_ARRAY_BEHAVED_NS

| NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED | NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE | NPY_ARRAY_NOTSWAPPED |

NPY_ARRAY_ELEMENTSTRIDES

Make sure the returned array has strides that are multiples of the element size.

PyObject *PyArray_FromArray (PyArrayObject *op, PyArray_Descr *newtype, int requirements)

This function returns an ndarray object from a Python object that exposes the __array_struct__ attribute and follows the array interface protocol. If the object does not contain this attribute then a borrowed reference to Py_NotImplemented is returned.

PyObject *PyArray_FromStructInterface (PyObject *op)

Returns an ndarray object from a Python object that exposes the __array_interface__ attribute following the array interface protocol. If the object does not contain this attribute then a borrowed reference to Py_NotImplemented is returned.

PyObject *PyArray_FromInterface (PyObject *op)

Returns an ndarray object from a Python object that exposes the __array_interface__ attribute following the array interface protocol. If the object does not contain this attribute then a borrowed reference to Py_NotImplemented is returned.

PyObject *PyArray_FromArrayAttr (PyObject *op, PyArray_Descr *dtype, PyObject *context)

Return an ndarray object from a Python object that exposes the __array__ method. The __array__ method can take 0, or 1 argument ([dtype]). context is unused.

PyObject *PyArray_ContiguousFromAny (PyObject *op, int typenum, int min_depth, int max_depth)

This function returns a (C-style) contiguous and behaved function array from any nested sequence or array interface exporting object, op, of (non-flexible) type given by the enumerated typenum, of minimum depth min_depth, and of maximum depth max_depth. Equivalent to a call to PyArray_FromAny with requirements set to NPY_ARRAY_DEFAULT and the type num member of the type argument set to typenum.

PyObject *PyArray_ContiguousFromObject (PyObject *op, int typenum, int min_depth, int max_depth)

This function returns a well-behaved C-style contiguous array from any nested sequence or array-interface exporting object. The minimum number of dimensions the array can have is given by min_depth while the maximum is max_depth. This is equivalent to call PyArray_FromAny with requirements NPY_ARRAY_DEFAULT and NPY_ARRAY_ENSUREARRAY.

PyObject *PyArray_FromObject (PyObject *op, int typenum, int min_depth, int max_depth)

Return an aligned and in native-byteorder array from any nested sequence or array-interface exporting object, op, of a type given by the enumerated typenum. The minimum number of dimensions the array can have is given by min_depth while the maximum is max_depth. This is equivalent to a call to PyArray_FromAny with requirements set to BEHAVED.

PyObject *PyArray_EnsureArray (PyObject *op)

This function steals a reference to op and makes sure that op is a base-class ndarray. It special cases array scalars, but otherwise calls PyArray_FromAny (op, NULL, 0, 0, NPY_ARRAY_ENSUREARRAY, NULL).

 PyObject *PyArray_FromString (char *string, npy_intp slen, PyArray_Descr *dtype, npy_intp num, char *sep)

Construct a one-dimensional ndarray of a single type from a binary or (ASCII) text string of length slen. The data-type of the array to-be-created is given by dtype. If num is -1, then copy the entire string and return an appropriately sized array, otherwise, num is the number of items to copy from the string. If sep is NULL (or ""), then interpret the string as bytes of binary data, otherwise convert the sub-strings separated by sep to items of data-type dtype. Some data-types may not be readable in text mode and an error will be raised if that occurs. All errors return NULL.

PyObject *PyArray_FromFile (FILE *fp, PyArray_Descr *dtype, npy_intp num, char *sep)

Construct a one-dimensional ndarray of a single type from a binary or text file. The open file pointer is fp, the data-type of the array to be created is given by dtype. This must match the data in the file. If num is -1, then read until the end of the file and return an appropriately sized array, otherwise, num is the number of items to read.
sep is NULL (or ""), then read from the file in binary mode, otherwise read from the file in text mode with sep providing the item separator. Some array types cannot be read in text mode in which case an error is raised.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_FromBuffer (PyObject *buf, PyArray_Descr *dtype,.npy_intp count, npy_intp offset)
```
Construct a one-dimensional ndarray of a single type from an object, buf, that exports the (single-segment) buffer protocol (or has an attribute __buffer__ that returns an object that exports the buffer protocol). A writeable buffer will be tried first followed by a read-only buffer. The NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE flag of the returned array will reflect which one was successful. The data is assumed to start at offset bytes from the start of the memory location for the object. The type of the data in the buffer will be interpreted depending on the data-type descriptor, dtype. If count is negative then it will be determined from the size of the buffer and the requested itemsize, otherwise, count represents how many elements should be converted from the buffer.

```c
int PyArray_CopyInto (PyArrayObject *dest, PyArrayObject *src)
```
Copy from the source array, src, into the destination array, dest, performing a data-type conversion if necessary. If an error occurs return -1 (otherwise 0). The shape of src must be broadcastable to the shape of dest. The data areas of dest and src must not overlap.

```c
int PyArray_MoveInto (PyArrayObject *dest, PyArrayObject *src)
```
Move data from the source array, src, into the destination array, dest, performing a data-type conversion if necessary. If an error occurs return -1 (otherwise 0). The shape of src must be broadcastable to the shape of dest. The data areas of dest and src may overlap.

```c
PyArrayObject *PyArray_GETCONTIGUOUS (PyObject *op)
```
If op is already (C-style) contiguous and well-behaved then just return a reference, otherwise return a (contiguous and well-behaved) copy of the array. The parameter op must be a (sub-class of an) ndarray and no checking for that is done.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_GET_C_CONTIGUOUS (PyObject *obj)
```
Convert obj to an ndarray. The argument can be any nested sequence or object that exports the array interface. This is a macro form of PyArray_FromAny using NULL, 0, 0, 0 for the other arguments. Your code must be able to handle any data-type descriptor and any combination of data-flags to use this macro.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_FROM_O (PyObject *obj)
```
Similar to PyArray_FROM_O except it can take an argument of requirements indicating properties the resulting array must have. Available requirements that can be enforced are NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS, NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS, NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED, NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE, NPY_ARRAY_NOTSWAPPED, NPY_ARRAY_ENSURECOPY, NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY, NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY, and NPY_ARRAY_ENSUREARRAY. Standard combinations of flags can also be used:

```c
PyObject *PyArray_FROM_O (PyObject *obj, int requirements)
```
Similar to PyArray_FROM_O except it can take an argument of typenum specifying the type-number the returned array.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_FROM_OT (PyObject *obj, int typenum)
```
Similar to PyArray_FROM_O except it can take an argument of typenum specifying the type-number the returned array.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_FROM_OTF (PyObject *obj, int typenum, int requirements)
```
Combination of PyArray_FROM_OT and PyArray_FROM_OT allowing both a typenum and a flags argument to be provided.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_FROMANY (PyObject *obj, int typenum, int min, int max, int requirements)
```
Similar to PyArray_FromAny except the data-type is specified using a typenum. PyArray_DescrFromType (typenum) is passed directly to PyArray_FromAny. This macro also adds NPY_ARRAY_DEFAULT to requirements if NPY_ARRAY_ENSURECOPY is passed in as requirements.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_CheckAxis (PyObject *obj, int *axis, int requirements)
```
Encapsulate the functionality of functions and methods that take the axis= keyword and work properly with None as the axis argument. The input array is obj, while *axis is a converted integer (so that >=MAXDIMS is the None value), and requirements gives the needed properties of obj. The output is a converted version of the input so that requirements are met and if needed a flattening has occurred. On output negative values of *axis are converted and the new value is checked to ensure consistency with the shape of obj.
9.4.3 Dealing with types

General check of Python Type

int PyArray_Check (PyObject *op)
    Evaluates true if op is a Python object whose type is a sub-type of PyArray_Type.

int PyArray_CheckExact (PyObject *op)
    Evaluates true if op is a Python object with type PyArray_Type.

int PyArray_HasArrayInterface (PyObject *op, PyObject *out)
    If op implements any part of the array interface, then out will contain a new reference to the newly created ndarray using the interface or out will contain NULL if an error during conversion occurs. Otherwise, out will contain a borrowed reference to Py_NotImplemented and no error condition is set.

int PyArray_HasArrayInterfaceType (PyObject *op, PyArray_Descr *dtype, PyObject *context, PyObject *out)
    If op implements any part of the array interface, then out will contain a new reference to the newly created ndarray using the interface or out will contain NULL if an error during conversion occurs. Otherwise, out will contain a borrowed reference to Py_NotImplemented and no error condition is set. This version allows setting of the dtype in the part of the array interface that looks for the __array__ attribute. context is unused.

int PyArray_IsZeroDim (PyObject *op)
    Evaluates true if op is an instance of (a subclass of) PyArray_Type and has 0 dimensions.

PyArray_IsScalar (op, cls)
    Evaluates true if op is an instance of PyclsArrType_Type.

int PyArray_CheckScalar (PyObject *op)
    Evaluates true if op is either an array scalar (an instance of a sub-type of PyGenericArr_Type), or an instance of (a sub-class of) PyArray_Type whose dimensionality is 0.

int PyArray_IsPythonNumber (PyObject *op)
    Evaluates true if op is an instance of a builtin numeric type (int, float, complex, long, bool)

int PyArray_IsPythonScalar (PyObject *op)
    Evaluates true if op is a builtin python scalar object (int, float, complex, bytes, str, long, bool).

int PyArray_IsAnyScalar (PyObject *op)
    Evaluates true if op is either a Python scalar object (see PyArray_IsPythonScalar) or an array scalar (an instance of a sub-type of PyGenericArr_Type).

int PyArray_CheckAnyScalar (PyObject *op)
    Evaluates true if op is a Python scalar object (see PyArray_IsPythonScalar), an array scalar (an instance of a sub-type of PyGenericArr_Type) or an instance of a sub-type of PyArray_Type whose dimensionality is 0.

Data-type checking

For the typenum macros, the argument is an integer representing an enumerated array data type. For the array type checking macros the argument must be a PyObject* that can be directly interpreted as a PyArrayObject*.

int PyTypeNum_ISUNSIGNED (int num)

int PyDataType_ISUNSIGNED (PyArray_Descr *descr)
int PyArray_ISUNSIGNED (PyArrayObject *obj)
    Type represents an unsigned integer.

int PyTypeNum_ISSIGNED (int num)

int PyDataType_ISSIGNED (PyArray_Descr *descr)

int PyArray_ISSIGNED (PyArrayObject *obj)
    Type represents a signed integer.

int PyTypeNum_ISINTEGER (int num)

int PyDataType_ISINTEGER (PyArray_Descr *descr)

int PyArray_ISINTEGER (PyArrayObject *obj)
    Type represents any integer.

int PyTypeNum_ISFLOAT (int num)

int PyDataType_ISFLOAT (PyArray_Descr *descr)

int PyArray_ISFLOAT (PyArrayObject *obj)
    Type represents any floating point number.

int PyTypeNum_ISCOMPLEX (int num)

int PyDataType_ISCOMPLEX (PyArray_Descr *descr)

int PyArray_ISCOMPLEX (PyArrayObject *obj)
    Type represents any complex floating point number.

int PyTypeNum_ISNUMBER (int num)

int PyDataType_ISNUMBER (PyArray_Descr *descr)

int PyArray_ISNUMBER (PyArrayObject *obj)
    Type represents any integer, floating point, or complex floating point number.

int PyTypeNum_ISSTRING (int num)

int PyDataType_ISSTRING (PyArray_Descr *descr)

int PyArray_ISSTRING (PyArrayObject *obj)
    Type represents a string data type.

int PyTypeNum_ISPYTHON (int num)

int PyDataType_ISPYTHON (PyArray_Descr *descr)
int PyArray_ISPYTHON (PyArrayObject *obj)
Type represents an enumerated type corresponding to one of the standard Python scalar (bool, int, float, or complex).

int PyTypeNum_ISFLEXIBLE (int num)

int PyDataType_ISFLEXIBLE (PyArray_Descr *descr)
int PyArray_ISFLEXIBLE (PyArrayObject *obj)
Type represents one of the flexible array types (NPY_STRING, NPY_UNICODE, or NPY_VOID).

int PyDataType_ISUNSIZED (PyArray_Descr *descr)
Type has no size information attached, and can be resized. Should only be called on flexible dtypes. Types that are attached to an array will always be sized, hence the array form of this macro not existing.

   Changed in version 1.18.
   For structured datatypes with no fields this function now returns False.

int PyTypeNum_ISUSERDEF (int num)

int PyDataType_ISUSERDEF (PyArray_Descr *descr)

int PyArray_ISUSERDEF (PyArrayObject *obj)
Type represents a user-defined type.

int PyTypeNum_ISEXTEENDED (int num)

int PyDataType_ISEXTEENDED (PyArray_Descr *descr)
int PyArray_ISEXTEENDED (PyArrayObject *obj)
Type is either flexible or user-defined.

int PyTypeNum_ISOBJECT (int num)

int PyDataType_ISOBJECT (PyArray_Descr *descr)

int PyArray_ISOBJECT (PyArrayObject *obj)
Type represents object data type.

int PyTypeNum_ISBOOL (int num)

int PyDataType_ISBOOL (PyArray_Descr *descr)
int PyArray_ISBOOL (PyArrayObject *obj)
Type represents Boolean data type.

int PyData &#8203;Type_HASFIELD (PyArray_Descr *descr)
int PyArray_HASFIELD (PyArrayObject *obj)
Type has fields associated with it.
int PyArray_ISNOTSWAPPED (PyArrayObject *m)
    Evaluates true if the data area of the ndarray m is in machine byte-order according to the array’s data-type descriptor.

int PyArray_ISBYTESWAPPED (PyArrayObject *m)
    Evaluates true if the data area of the ndarray m is not in machine byte-order according to the array’s data-type descriptor.

npy_bool PyArray_EquivTypes (PyArray_Descr *type1, PyArray_Descr *type2)
    Return NPY_TRUE if type1 and type2 actually represent equivalent types for this platform (the fortran member of each type is ignored). For example, on 32-bit platforms, NPY_LONG and NPY_INT are equivalent. Otherwise return NPY_FALSE.

npy_bool PyArray_EquivArrTypes (PyObject *a1, PyArrayObject *a2)
    Return NPY_TRUE if a1 and a2 are arrays with equivalent types for this platform.

npy_bool PyArray_EquivTypenums (int typenum1, int typenum2)
    Special case of PyArray_EquivTypes (...) that does not accept flexible data types but may be easier to call.

int PyArray_EquivByteorders (int b1, int b2)
    True if byteorder characters b1 and b2 (NPY_LITTLE, NPY_BIG, NPY_NATIVE, NPY_IGNORE) are either equal or equivalent as to their specification of a native byte order. Thus, on a little-endian machine NPY_LITTLE and NPY_NATIVE are equivalent where they are not equivalent on a big-endian machine.

Converting data types

PyObject *PyArray_Cast (PyArrayObject *arr, int typenum)
    Mainly for backwards compatibility to the Numeric C-API and for simple casts to non-flexible types. Return a new array object with the elements of arr cast to the data-type typenum which must be one of the enumerated types and not a flexible type.

PyObject *PyArray_CastToType (PyArrayObject *arr, PyArray_Descr *type, int fortran)
    Return a new array of the type specified, casting the elements of arr as appropriate. The fortran argument specifies the ordering of the output array.

int PyArray_CastTo (PyArrayObject *out, PyArrayObject *in)
    As of 1.6, this function simply calls PyArray_CopyInto, which handles the casting.
    Cast the elements of the array in into the array out. The output array should be writeable, have an integer-multiple of the number of elements in the input array (more than one copy can be placed in out), and have a data type that is one of the builtin types. Returns 0 on success and -1 if an error occurs.

PyObject_VectorUnaryFunc *PyArray_GetCastFunc (PyArray_Descr *from, int totype)
    Return the low-level casting function to cast from the given descriptor to the builtin type number. If no casting function exists return NULL and set an error. Using this function instead of direct access to from ->f->cast will allow support of any user-defined casting functions added to a descriptors casting dictionary.

int PyArray_CanCastSafely (int fromtype, int totype)
    Returns non-zero if an array of data type fromtype can be cast to an array of data type totype without losing information. An exception is that 64-bit integers are allowed to be cast to 64-bit floating point values even though this can lose precision on large integers so as not to proliferate the use of long doubles without explicit requests. Flexible array types are not checked according to their lengths with this function.

int PyArray_CanCastTo (PyArray_Descr *fromtype, PyArray_Descr *totype)
    PyArray_CanCastTypeTo supersedes this function in NumPy 1.6 and later.
    Equivalent to PyArray_CanCastTypeTo(fromtype, totype, NPY_SAFE_CASTING).

int PyArray_CanCastTypeTo (PyArray_Descr *fromtype, PyArray_Descr *totype, NPY_CASTING casting)
    New in version 1.6.
Returns non-zero if an array of data type `fromtype` (which can include flexible types) can be cast safely to an array of data type `totype` (which can include flexible types) according to the casting rule `casting`. For simple types with `NPY_SAFE_CASTING`, this is basically a wrapper around `PyArray_CanCastSafely`, but for flexible types such as strings or unicode, it produces results taking into account their sizes. Integer and float types can only be cast to a string or unicode type using `NPY_SAFE_CASTING` if the string or unicode type is big enough to hold the max value of the integer/float type being cast from.

```c
int PyArray_CanCastArrayTo (PyArrayObject *arr, PyArray_Descr *totype, NPY_CASTING casting)
New in version 1.6.
```

Returns non-zero if `arr` can be cast to `totype` according to the casting rule given in `casting`. If `arr` is an array scalar, its value is taken into account, and non-zero is also returned when the value will not overflow or be truncated to an integer when converting to a smaller type.

This is almost the same as the result of `PyArray_CanCastTypeTo(PyArray_MinScalarType(arr), totype, casting)`, but it also handles a special case arising because the set of uint values is not a subset of the int values for types with the same number of bits.

```c
PyArray_Descr *PyArray_MinScalarType (PyArrayObject *arr)
New in version 1.6.
```

If `arr` is an array, returns its data type descriptor, but if `arr` is an array scalar (has 0 dimensions), it finds the data type of smallest size to which the value may be converted without overflow or truncation to an integer.

This function will not demote complex to float or anything to boolean, but will demote a signed integer to an unsigned integer when the scalar value is positive.

```c
PyArray_Descr *PyArray_PromoteTypes (PyArray_Descr *type1, PyArray_Descr *type2)
New in version 1.6.
```

Finds the data type of smallest size and kind to which `type1` and `type2` may be safely converted. This function is symmetric and associative. A string or unicode result will be the proper size for storing the max value of the input types converted to a string or unicode.

```c
PyArray_Descr *PyArray_ResultType (npy_intp narrs, PyArrayObject **arrs, npy_intp ndtypes, PyArray_Descr **dtypes)
New in version 1.6.
```

This applies type promotion to all the inputs, using the NumPy rules for combining scalars and arrays, to determine the output type of a set of operands. This is the same result type that ufuncs produce. The specific algorithm used is as follows.

Categories are determined by first checking which of boolean, integer (int/uint), or floating point (float/complex) the maximum kind of all the arrays and the scalars are.

If there are only scalars or the maximum category of the scalars is higher than the maximum category of the arrays, the data types are combined with `PyArray_PromoteTypes` to produce the return value.

Otherwise, `PyArray_MinScalarType` is called on each array, and the resulting data types are all combined with `PyArray_PromoteTypes` to produce the return value.

The set of int values is not a subset of the uint values for types with the same number of bits, something not reflected in `PyArray_MinScalarType`, but handled as a special case in `PyArray_ResultType`.

```c
int PyArray_ObjectType (PyObject *op, int mintype)
This function is superseded by `PyArray_MinScalarType` and/or `PyArray_ResultType`.
```

This function is useful for determining a common type that two or more arrays can be converted to. It only works for non-flexible array types as no itemsize information is passed. The `mintype` argument represents the minimum type acceptable, and `op` represents the object that will be converted to an array. The return value is the enumerated typenumber that represents the data-type that `op` should have.
void PyArray_ArrayType (PyObject *op, PyArray_Descr *mintype, PyArray_Descr *outtype)

This function is superseded by PyArray_ResultType. This function works similarly to PyArray_ObjectType (…) except it handles flexible arrays. The mintype argument can have an itemsize member and the outtype argument will have an itemsize member at least as big but perhaps bigger depending on the object op.

PyArrayObject **PyArray_ConvertToCommonType (PyObject *op, int *n)

The functionality this provides is largely superseded by iterator NpyIter introduced in 1.6, with flag NPY_ITER_COMMON_DTYPE or with the same dtype parameter for all operands. Convert a sequence of Python objects contained in op to an array of ndarrays each having the same data type. The type is selected in the same way as PyArray_ResultType. The length of the sequence is returned in n, and an n -length array of PyArrayObject pointers is the return value (or NULL if an error occurs). The returned array must be freed by the caller of this routine (using PyDataMem_FREE ) and all the array objects in it DECFREE'd or a memory-leak will occur. The example template-code below shows a typically usage:

Changed in version 1.18.0: A mix of scalars and zero-dimensional arrays now produces a type capable of holding the scalar value. Previously priority was given to the dtype of the arrays.

```c
mps = PyArray_ConvertToCommonType(obj, &n);
if (mps==NULL) return NULL;
{code}
<before return>
for (i=0; i<n; i++) Py_DECREF(mps[i]);
PyDataMem_FREE(mps);
{return}
```

char *PyArray_Zero (PyArrayObject *arr)
A pointer to newly created memory of size arr ->itemsize that holds the representation of 0 for that type. The returned pointer, ret, must be freed using PyDataMem_FREE (ret) when it is not needed anymore.

char *PyArray_One (PyArrayObject *arr)
A pointer to newly created memory of size arr ->itemsize that holds the representation of 1 for that type. The returned pointer, ret, must be freed using PyDataMem_FREE (ret) when it is not needed anymore.

int PyArray_ValidType (int typenum)
Returns NPY_TRUE if typenum represents a valid type-number (builtin or user-defined or character code). Otherwise, this function returns NPY_FALSE.

**New data types**

void PyArray_InitArrFuncs (PyArray_ArrFuncs *f)
Initialize all function pointers and members to NULL.

int PyArray_RegisterDataType (PyArray_Descr *dtype)
Register a data-type as a new user-defined data type for arrays. The type must have most of its entries filled in. This is not always checked and errors can produce segfaults. In particular, the typeobj member of the dtype structure must be filled with a Python type that has a fixed-size element-size that corresponds to the elsize member of dtype. Also the f member must have the required functions: nonzero, copyswap, copyswapn, getitem, setitem, and cast (some of the cast functions may be NULL if no support is desired). To avoid confusion, you should choose a unique character typecode but this is not enforced and not relied on internally.

A user-defined type number is returned that uniquely identifies the type. A pointer to the new structure can then be obtained from PyArray_DescrFromType using the returned type number. A -1 is returned if an error occurs. If this dtype has already been registered (checked only by the address of the pointer), then return the previously-assigned type-number.
int `PyArray_RegisterCastFunc` *(PyArray_Descr * descr, int totype, PyArray_VectorUnaryFunc *castfunc)*

Register a low-level casting function, `castfunc`, to convert from the data-type, `descr`, to the given data-type number, `totype`. Any old casting function is over-written. A 0 is returned on success or a -1 on failure.

int `PyArray_RegisterCanCast` *(PyArray_Descr * descr, int totype, NPY_SCALAR_KIND scalar)*

Register the data-type number, `totype`, as castable from data-type object, `descr`, of the given `scalar` kind. Use `scalar = NPY_NOSCALAR` to register that an array of data-type `descr` can be cast safely to a data-type whose type_number is `totype`.

### Special functions for NPY_OBJECT

int `PyArray_INCREF` *(PyArrayObject * op)*

Used for an array, `op`, that contains any Python objects. It increments the reference count of every object in the array according to the data-type of `op`. A -1 is returned if an error occurs, otherwise 0 is returned.

void `PyArray_Item_INCREF` *(char *ptr, PyArray_Descr *dtype)*

A function to INCREF all the objects at the location `ptr` according to the data-type `dtype`. If `ptr` is the start of a structured type with an object at any offset, then this will (recursively) increment the reference count of all object-like items in the structured type.

int `PyArray_XDECREF` *(PyArrayObject * op)*

Used for an array, `op`, that contains any Python objects. It decrements the reference count of every object in the array according to the data-type of `op`. Normal return value is 0. A -1 is returned if an error occurs.

void `PyArray_Item_XDECREF` *(char *ptr, PyArray_Descr *dtype)*

A function to XDECREF all the object-like items at the location `ptr` as recorded in the data-type, `dtype`. This works recursively so that if `dtype` itself has fields with data-types that contain object-like items, all the object-like fields will be XDECREF’d.

void `PyArray_FillObjectArray` *(PyArrayObject *arr, PyObject *obj)*

Fill a newly created array with a single value `obj` at all locations in the structure with object data-types. No checking is performed but `arr` must be of data-type NPY_OBJECT and be single-segment and uninitialized (no previous objects in position). Use `PyArray_XDECREF` (*arr*) if you need to decrement all the items in the object array prior to calling this function.

int `PyArray_SetUpdateIfCopyBase` *(PyArrayObject * arr, PyArrayObject *base)*

Precondition: `arr` is a copy of `base` (though possibly with different strides, ordering, etc.) Set the UPDATEIFCOPY flag and `arr->base` so that when `arr` is destructed, it will copy any changes back to `base`. DEPRECATED, use `PyArray_SetWritebackIfCopyBase`.

Returns 0 for success, -1 for failure.

int `PyArray_SetWritebackIfCopyBase` *(PyArrayObject *arr, PyArrayObject *base)*

Precondition: `arr` is a copy of `base` (though possibly with different strides, ordering, etc.) Sets the NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag and `arr->base`, and set base to READONLY. Call `PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy` before calling `Py_DECREF` in order copy any changes back to `base` and reset the READONLY flag.

Returns 0 for success, -1 for failure.
9.4.4 Array flags

The flags attribute of the PyArrayObject structure contains important information about the memory used by the array (pointed to by the data member). This flag information must be kept accurate or strange results and even segfaults may result.

There are 6 (binary) flags that describe the memory area used by the data buffer. These constants are defined in arrayobject.h and determine the bit-position of the flag. Python exposes a nice attribute-based interface as well as a dictionary-like interface for getting (and, if appropriate, setting) these flags.

Memory areas of all kinds can be pointed to by an ndarray, necessitating these flags. If you get an arbitrary PyArrayObject in C-code, you need to be aware of the flags that are set. If you need to guarantee a certain kind of array (like NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS and NPY_ARRAY_BEHAVED), then pass these requirements into the PyArray_FromAny function.

Basic Array Flags

An ndarray can have a data segment that is not a simple contiguous chunk of well-behaved memory you can manipulate. It may not be aligned with word boundaries (very important on some platforms). It might have its data in a different byte-order than the machine recognizes. It might not be writable. It might be in Fortran-contiguous order. The array flags are used to indicate what can be said about data associated with an array.

In versions 1.6 and earlier of NumPy, the following flags did not have the _ARRAY_ macro namespace in them. That form of the constant names is deprecated in 1.7.

NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS
   The data area is in C-style contiguous order (last index varies the fastest).

NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS
   The data area is in Fortran-style contiguous order (first index varies the fastest).

Note: Arrays can be both C-style and Fortran-style contiguous simultaneously. This is clear for 1-dimensional arrays, but can also be true for higher dimensional arrays.

Even for contiguous arrays a stride for a given dimension arr.strides[dim] may be arbitrary if arr.shape[dim] == 1 or the array has no elements. It does not generally hold that self.strides[-1] == self.itemsize for C-style contiguous arrays or self.strides[0] == self.itemsize for Fortran-style contiguous arrays is true. The correct way to access the itemsize of an array from the C API is PyArray_ITEMSIZE(arr).

See also:
Internal memory layout of an ndarray

NPY_ARRAY_OWNDATA
   The data area is owned by this array.

NPY_ARRAYAligned
   The data area and all array elements are aligned appropriately.

NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE
   The data area can be written to.

   Notice that the above 3 flags are defined so that a new, well-behaved array has these flags defined as true.

NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY
   The data area represents a (well-behaved) copy whose information should be transferred back to the original when PyArray.ResolveWritebackIfCopy is called.
This is a special flag that is set if this array represents a copy made because a user required certain flags in `PyArray_FromAny` and a copy had to be made of some other array (and the user asked for this flag to be set in such a situation). The base attribute then points to the “misbehaved” array (which is set read_only). The `PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy` will copy its contents back to the “misbehaved” array (casting if necessary) and will reset the “misbehaved” array to `NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE`. If the “misbehaved” array was not `NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE` to begin with then `PyArray_FromAny` would have returned an error because `NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY` would not have been possible.

**NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY**

A deprecated version of `NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY` which depends upon dealloc to trigger the write-back. For backwards compatibility, `PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy` is called at dealloc but relying on that behavior is deprecated and not supported in PyPy.

`PyArray_UpdateFlags` (obj, flags) will update the obj->flags for flags which can be any of `NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS`, `NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS`, `NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED`, or `NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE`.

### Combinations of array flags

- **NPY_ARRAY_BEHAVED**
  
  `NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED | NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE`

- **NPY_ARRAY_CARRAY**
  
  `NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS | NPY_ARRAY_BEHAVED`

- **NPY_ARRAY_CARRAY_RO**
  
  `NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS | NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED`

- **NPY_ARRAY_FARRAY**
  
  `NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS | NPY_ARRAY_BEHAVED`

- **NPY_ARRAY_FARRAY_RO**
  
  `NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS | NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED`

- **NPY_ARRAY_DEFAULT**
  
  `NPY_ARRAY_CARRAY`

- **NPY_ARRAY_UPDATE_ALL**
  
  `NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS | NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS | NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED`

### Flag-like constants

These constants are used in `PyArray_FromAny` (and its macro forms) to specify desired properties of the new array.

- **NPY_ARRAY_FORCECAST**
  
  Cast to the desired type, even if it can’t be done without losing information.

- **NPY_ARRAY_ENSURECOPY**
  
  Make sure the resulting array is a copy of the original.

- **NPY_ARRAY_ENSUREARRAY**
  
  Make sure the resulting object is an actual ndarray, and not a sub-class.
Flag checking

For all of these macros `arr` must be an instance of a (subclass of) `PyArray_Type`.

```c
int PyArray_CHKFLAGS (PyObject *arr, int flags)
    The first parameter, `arr`, must be an ndarray or subclass. The parameter, `flags`, should be an integer consisting of bitwise combinations of the possible flags an array can have:
    NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS, NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS, NPY_ARRAY_OWNDATA,
    NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED, NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE, NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY,
    NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY.
```

```c
int PyArray_IS_C_CONTIGUOUS (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if `arr` is C-style contiguous.
```

```c
int PyArray_IS_F_CONTIGUOUS (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if `arr` is Fortran-style contiguous.
```

```c
int PyArray_ISFORTRAN (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if `arr` is Fortran-style contiguous and not C-style contiguous. `PyArray_IS_F_CONTIGUOUS` is the correct way to test for Fortran-style contiguity.
```

```c
int PyArray_ISWRITEABLE (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if the data area of `arr` can be written to
```

```c
int PyArray_ISALIGNED (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if the data area of `arr` is properly aligned on the machine.
```

```c
int PyArray_ISBEHAVED (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if the data area of `arr` is aligned and writeable and in machine byte-order according to its descriptor.
```

```c
int PyArray_ISBEHAVED_RO (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if the data area of `arr` is aligned and in machine byte-order.
```

```c
int PyArray_ISCARRAY (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if the data area of `arr` is C-style contiguous, and `PyArray_ISBEHAVED (arr)` is true.
```

```c
int PyArray_ISFARRAY (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if the data area of `arr` is Fortran-style contiguous and `PyArray_ISBEHAVED (arr)` is true.
```

```c
int PyArray_ISCARRAY_RO (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if the data area of `arr` is C-style contiguous, aligned, and in machine byte-order.
```

```c
int PyArray_ISFARRAY_RO (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if the data area of `arr` is Fortran-style contiguous, aligned, and in machine byte-order.
```

```c
int PyArray_ISONESEGMENT (PyObject *arr)
    Evaluates true if the data area of `arr` consists of a single (C-style or Fortran-style) contiguous segment.
```

```c
void PyArray_UpdateFlags (PyArrayObject *arr, int flagmask)
    The NPY_ARRAY_C_CONTIGUOUS, NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED, and NPY_ARRAY_F_CONTIGUOUS array flags can be “calculated” from the array object itself. This routine updates one or more of these flags of `arr` as specified in `flagmask` by performing the required calculation.
```

**Warning:** It is important to keep the flags updated (using `PyArray_UpdateFlags` can help) whenever a manipulation with an array is performed that might cause them to change. Later calculations in NumPy that rely on the state of these flags do not repeat the calculation to update them.
9.4.5 Array method alternative API

Conversion

PyObject *PyArray_GetField (PyArrayObject *self, PyArray_Descr *dtype, int offset)
Equivalent to ndarray.getfield (self, dtype, offset). This function steals a reference to PyArray_Descr and returns a new array of the given dtype using the data in the current array at a specified offset in bytes. The offset plus the itemsize of the new array type must be less than self->descr->elsize or an error is raised. The same shape and strides as the original array are used. Therefore, this function has the effect of returning a field from a structured array. But, it can also be used to select specific bytes or groups of bytes from any array type.

int PyArray_SetField (PyArrayObject *self, PyArray_Descr *dtype, int offset, PyObject *val)
Equivalent to ndarray.setfield (self, val, dtype, offset). Set the field starting at offset in bytes and of the given dtype to val. The offset plus dtype->elsize must be less than self->descr->elsize or an error is raised. Otherwise, the val argument is converted to an array and copied into the field pointed to. If necessary, the elements of val are repeated to fill the destination array. But, the number of elements in the destination must be an integer multiple of the number of elements in val.

PyObject *PyArray_Byteswap (PyArrayObject *self, npy_bool inplace)
Equivalent to ndarray.byteswap (self, inplace). Return an array whose data area is byteswapped. If inplace is non-zero, then do the byteswap inplace and return a reference to self. Otherwise, create a byteswapped copy and leave self unchanged.

PyObject *PyArray_NewCopy (PyArrayObject *old, NPY_ORDER order)
Equivalent to ndarray.copy (self, fortran). Make a copy of the old array. The returned array is always aligned and writeable with data interpreted the same as the old array. If order is NPY_CORDER, then a C-style contiguous array is returned. If order is NPY_FORTRANORDER, then a Fortran-style contiguous array is returned. If order is NPY_ANYORDER, then the array returned is Fortran-style contiguous only if the old one is; otherwise, it is C-style contiguous.

PyObject *PyArray_ToList (PyArrayObject *self)
Equivalent to ndarray.tolist (self). Return a nested Python list from self.

PyObject *PyArray_ToString (PyArrayObject *self, NPY_ORDER order)
Equivalent to ndarray.tobytes (self, order). Return the bytes of this array in a Python string.

PyObject *PyArray_ToFile (PyArrayObject *self, FILE *fp, char *sep, char *format)
Write the contents of self to the file pointer fp in C-style contiguous fashion. Write the data as binary bytes if sep is the string “\n” or NULL. Otherwise, write the contents of self as text using the sep string as the item separator. Each item will be printed to the file. If the format string is not NULL or “\n”, then it is a Python print statement format string showing how the items are to be written.

int PyArray_Dump (PyObject *self, PyObject *file, int protocol)
Pickle the object in self to the given file (either a string or a Python file object). If file is a Python string it is considered to be the name of a file which is then opened in binary mode. The given protocol is used (if protocol is negative, or the highest available is used). This is a simple wrapper around cPickle.dump (self, file, protocol).

PyObject *PyArray_Dumps (PyObject *self, int protocol)
Pickle the object in self to a Python string and return it. Use the Pickle protocol provided (or the highest available if protocol is negative).

int PyArray_FillWithScalar (PyArrayObject *arr, PyObject *obj)
Fill the array, arr, with the given scalar object, obj. The object is first converted to the data type of arr, and then copied into every location. A -1 is returned if an error occurs, otherwise 0 is returned.

PyObject *PyArray_View (PyArrayObject *self, PyArray_Descr *dtype, PyTypeObject *ptype)
Equivalent to ndarray.view (self, dtype). Return a new view of the array self as possibly a different data-type, dtype, and different array subclass ptype.
If `dtype` is NULL, then the returned array will have the same data type as `self`. The new data-type must be consistent with the size of `self`. Either the item sizes must be identical, or `self` must be single-segment and the total number of bytes must be the same. In the latter case the dimensions of the returned array will be altered in the last (or first for Fortran-style contiguous arrays) dimension. The data area of the returned array and `self` is exactly the same.

**Shape Manipulation**

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Newshape (PyArrayObject *self, PyArray_Dims *newshape, NPY_ORDER order)
```

Result will be a new array (pointing to the same memory location as `self` if possible), but having a shape given by `newshape`. If the new shape is not compatible with the strides of `self`, then a copy of the array with the new specified shape will be returned.

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Resize (PyArrayObject *self, PyArray_Dims *newshape, int refcheck, NPY_ORDER fortran)
```

Equivalent to `ndarray.resize` (`self`, `newshape`, `refcheck` = `refcheck`, `order` = `fortran`). This function only works on single-segment arrays. It changes the shape of `self` inplace and will reallocate the memory for `self` if `newshape` has a different total number of elements then the old shape. If reallocation is necessary, then `self` must own its data, have `self` -> `base` = NULL, have `self` -> `weakrefs` = NULL, and (unless refcheck is 0) not be referenced by any other array. The fortran argument can be `NPY_ANYORDER`, `NPY_CORDER`, or `NPY_FORTRANORDER`. It currently has no effect. Eventually it could be used to determine how the resize operation should view the data when constructing a differently-dimensional array. Returns None on success and NULL on error.

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Squeeze (PyArrayObject *self)
```

Equivalent to `ndarray.squeeze` (`self`). Return a new view of `self` with all of the dimensions of length 1 removed from the shape.

**Warning:** matrix objects are always 2-dimensional. Therefore, `PyArray_Squeeze` has no effect on arrays of matrix sub-class.

```python
PyObject *PyArray_SwapAxes (PyArrayObject *self, int a1, int a2)
```

Equivalent to `ndarray.swapaxes` (`self`, `a1`, `a2`). The returned array is a new view of the data in `self` with the given axes, `a1` and `a2`, swapped.

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Flatten (PyArrayObject *self, NPY_ORDER order)
```

Equivalent to `ndarray.flatten` (`self`, `order`). Return a 1-d copy of the array. If `order` is `NPY_FORTRANORDER` the elements are scanned out in Fortran order (first-dimension varies the fastest). If `order` is `NPY_CORDER`, the elements of `self` are scanned in C-order (last dimension varies the fastest). If `order` `NPY_ANYORDER`, then the result of `PyArray_ISFORTRAN` (`self`) is used to determine which order to flatten.

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Ravel (PyArrayObject *self, NPY_ORDER order)
```

Equivalent to `self.ravel(order)`. Same basic functionality as `PyArray_Flatten` (`self`, `order`) except if `order` is 0 and `self` is C-style contiguous, the shape is altered but no copy is performed.
Item selection and manipulation

PyObject *PyArray_TakeFrom (PyArrayObject *self, PyObject *indices, int axis, PyArrayObject *ret, NPY_CLIPMODE clipmode)
   Equivalent to ndarray.take (self, indices, axis, ret, clipmode) except axis = None in Python is obtained by setting axis = NPY_MAXDIMS in C. Extract the items from self indicated by the integer-valued indices along the given axis. The clipmode argument can be NPY_RAISE, NPY_WRAP, or NPY_CLIP to indicate what to do with out-of-bound indices. The ret argument can specify an output array rather than having one created internally.

PyObject *PyArray_PutTo (PyArrayObject *self, PyObject *values, PyObject *indices, NPY_CLIPMODE clipmode)
   Equivalent to self.put(values, indices, clipmode). Put values into self at the corresponding (flattened) indices. If values is too small it will be repeated as necessary.

PyObject *PyArray_PutMask (PyArrayObject *self, PyObject *values, PyObject *mask)
   Place the values in self wherever corresponding positions (using a flattened context) in mask are true. The mask and self arrays must have the same total number of elements. If values is too small, it will be repeated as necessary.

PyObject *PyArray_Repeat (PyArrayObject *self, PyObject *op, int axis)
   Equivalent to ndarray.repeat (self, op, axis). Copy the elements of self, op times along the given axis. Either op is a scalar integer or a sequence of length self->dimensions[axis] indicating how many times to repeat each item along the axis.

PyObject *PyArray_Choose (PyArrayObject *self, PyObject *op, PyArrayObject *ret, NPY_CLIPMODE clipmode)
   Equivalent to ndarray.choose (self, op, ret, clipmode). Create a new array by selecting elements from the sequence of arrays in op based on the integer values in self. The arrays must all be broadcastable to the same shape and the entries in self should be between 0 and len(op). The output is placed in ret unless it is NULL in which case a new output is created. The clipmode argument determines behavior for when entries in self are not between 0 and len(op).

   NPY_RAISE
      raise a ValueError;

   NPY_WRAP
      wrap values < 0 by adding len(op) and values >=len(op) by subtracting len(op) until they are in range;

   NPY_CLIP
      all values are clipped to the region [0, len(op)].

PyObject *PyArray_Sort (PyArrayObject *self, int axis, NPY_SORTKIND kind)
   Equivalent to ndarray.sort (self, axis, kind). Return an array with the items of self sorted along axis. The array is sorted using the algorithm denoted by kind, which is an integer/enum pointing to the type of sorting algorithms used.

PyObject *PyArray_ArgSort (PyArrayObject *self, int axis)
   Equivalent to ndarray.argsort (self, axis). Return an array of indices such that selection of these indices along the given axis would return a sorted version of self. If self->descr is a data-type with fields defined, then self->descr->names is used to determine the sort order. A comparison where the first field is equal will use the second field and so on. To alter the sort order of a structured array, create a new data-type with a different order of names and construct a view of the array with that new data-type.

PyObject *PyArray_LexSort (PyObject *sort_keys, int axis)
   Given a sequence of arrays (sort_keys) of the same shape, return an array of indices (similar to PyArray_ArgSort (...)) that would sort the arrays lexicographically. A lexicographic sort specifies that when two keys are found to be equal, the order is based on comparison of subsequent keys. A merge sort (which leaves equal entries unmoved) is required to be defined for the types. The sort is accomplished by sorting the indices first using the first sort_key and then using the second sort_key and so forth. This is equivalent to the lexsort(sort_keys,
axis) Python command. Because of the way the merge-sort works, be sure to understand the order the sort_keys must be in (reversed from the order you would use when comparing two elements).

If these arrays are all collected in a structured array, then PyArray_Sort (...) can also be used to sort the array directly.

PyObject *PyArray_SearchSorted (PyArrayObject *self, PyObject *values, NPY_SEARCHSIDE side, PyObject *perm)

Equivalent to ndarray.searchsorted (self, values, side, perm). Assuming self is a 1-d array in ascending order, then the output is an array of indices the same shape as values such that, if the elements in values were inserted before the indices, the order of self would be preserved. No checking is done on whether or not self is in ascending order.

The side argument indicates whether the index returned should be that of the first suitable location (if NPY_SEARCHLEFT) or of the last (if NPY_SEARCHRIGHT).

The sorter argument, if not NULL, must be a 1D array of integer indices the same length as self, that sorts it into ascending order. This is typically the result of a call to PyArray_ArgSort (...). Binary search is used to find the required insertion points.

int PyArray_Partition (PyArrayObject *self, PyArrayObject *ktharray, int axis, NPY_SELECTKIND which)

Equivalent to ndarray.partition (self, ktharray, axis, kind). Partitions the array so that the values of the element indexed by ktharray are in the positions they would be if the array is fully sorted and places all elements smaller than the kth before and all elements equal or greater after the kth element. The ordering of all elements within the partitions is undefined. If self->descr is a data-type with fields defined, then self->descr->names is used to determine the sort order. A comparison where the first field is equal will use the second field and so on. To alter the sort order of a structured array, create a new data-type with a different order of names and construct a view of the array with that new data-type. Returns zero on success and -1 on failure.

PyObject *PyArray_ArgPartition (PyArrayObject *op, PyArrayObject *ktharray, int axis, NPY_SELECTKIND which)

Equivalent to ndarray.argpartition (self, ktharray, axis, kind). Return an array of indices such that selection of these indices along the given axis would return a partitioned version of self.

PyObject *PyArray_Diagonal (PyArrayObject *self, int offset, int axis1, int axis2)

Equivalent to ndarray.diagonal (self, offset, axis1, axis2). Return the offset diagonals of the 2-d arrays defined by axis1 and axis2.

npy_intp PyArray_CountNonzero (PyArrayObject *self)

New in version 1.6.

Counts the number of non-zero elements in the array object self.

PyObject *PyArray_Nonzero (PyArrayObject *self)

Equivalent to ndarray.nonzero (self). Returns a tuple of index arrays that select elements of self that are nonzero. If (nd= PyArray_NDIM (self))==1, then a single index array is returned. The index arrays have data type NPY_INTP. If a tuple is returned (nd ≠ 1), then its length is nd.

PyObject *PyArray_Compress (PyArrayObject *self, PyObject *condition, int axis, PyArrayObject *out)

Equivalent to ndarray.compress (self, condition, axis). Return the elements along axis corresponding to elements of condition that are true.
Calculation

**Tip:** Pass in `NPY_MAXDIMS` for `axis` in order to achieve the same effect that is obtained by passing `axis=None` in Python (treating the array as a 1-d array).

**Note:** The `out` argument specifies where to place the result. If `out` is NULL, then the output array is created, otherwise the output is placed in out which must be the correct size and type. A new reference to the output array is always returned even when `out` is not NULL. The caller of the routine has the responsibility to **Py_DECREF** `out` if not NULL or a memory-leak will occur.

```python
PyObject *PyArray_ArgMax (PyArrayObject *self, int axis, PyArrayObject *out)
    Equivalent to `ndarray.argmax` (`self`, `axis`). Return the index of the largest element of `self` along `axis`.
```

```python
PyObject *PyArray_ArgMin (PyArrayObject *self, int axis, PyArrayObject *out)
    Equivalent to `ndarray.argmin` (`self`, `axis`). Return the index of the smallest element of `self` along `axis`.
```

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Max (PyArrayObject *self, int axis, PyArrayObject *out)
    Equivalent to `ndarray.max` (`self`, `axis`). Returns the largest element of `self` along the given `axis`. When the result is a single element, returns a numpy scalar instead of an ndarray.
```

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Min (PyArrayObject *self, int axis, PyArrayObject *out)
    Equivalent to `ndarray.min` (`self`, `axis`). Return the smallest element of `self` along the given `axis`. When the result is a single element, returns a numpy scalar instead of an ndarray.
```

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Ptp (PyArrayObject *self, int axis, PyArrayObject *out)
    Equivalent to `ndarray.ptp` (`self`, `axis`). Return the difference between the largest element of `self` along `axis` and the smallest element of `self` along `axis`. When the result is a single element, returns a numpy scalar instead of an ndarray.
```

**Note:** The `rtype` argument specifies the data-type the reduction should take place over. This is important if the data-type of the array is not “large” enough to handle the output. By default, all integer data-types are made at least as large as `NPY_LONG` for the “add” and “multiply” ufuncs (which form the basis for mean, sum, cumsum, prod, and cumprod functions).

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Mean (PyArrayObject *self, int axis, int rtype, PyArrayObject *out)
    Equivalent to `ndarray.mean` (`self`, `axis`, `rtype`). Returns the mean of the elements along the given `axis`, using the enumerated type `rtype` as the data type to sum in. Default sum behavior is obtained using `NPY_NOTYPE` for `rtype`.
```

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Trace (PyArrayObject *self, int offset, int axis1, int axis2, int rtype, PyArrayObject *out)
    Equivalent to `ndarray.trace` (`self`, `offset`, `axis1`, `axis2`, `rtype`). Return the sum (using `rtype` as the data type of summation) over the `offset` diagonal elements of the 2-d arrays defined by `axis1` and `axis2` variables. A positive offset chooses diagonals above the main diagonal. A negative offset selects diagonals below the main diagonal.
```

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Clip (PyArrayObject *self, PyObject *min, PyObject *max)
    Equivalent to `ndarray.clip` (`self`, `min`, `max`). Clip an array, `self`, so that values larger than `max` are fixed to `max` and values less than `min` are fixed to `min`.
```

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Conjugate (PyArrayObject *self)
    Equivalent to `ndarray.conjugate` (`self`). Return the complex conjugate of `self`. If `self` is not of complex data type, then return `self` with a reference.
```

```python
PyObject *PyArray_Round (PyArrayObject *self, int decimals, PyArrayObject *out)
    Equivalent to `ndarray.round` (`self`, `decimals`, `out`). Returns the array with elements rounded to the nearest
```
decimal place. The decimal place is defined as the $10^{-\text{decimals}}$ digit so that negative decimals cause rounding to the nearest 10's, 100's, etc. If out is NULL, then the output array is created, otherwise the output is placed in out which must be the correct size and type.

PyObject *\texttt{PyArrayStd}(PyArrayObject *self, int axis, int rtype, PyArrayObject *out)

Equivalent to \texttt{ndarray.std}(self, axis, rtype). Return the standard deviation using data along axis converted to data type rtype.

PyObject *\texttt{PyArraySum}(PyArrayObject *self, int axis, int rtype, PyArrayObject *out)

Equivalent to \texttt{ndarray.sum}(self, axis, rtype). Return 1-d vector sums of elements in self along axis. Perform the sum after converting data to data type rtype.

PyObject *\texttt{PyArrayCumSum}(PyArrayObject *self, int axis, int rtype, PyArrayObject *out)

Equivalent to \texttt{ndarray.cumsum}(self, axis, rtype). Return cumulative 1-d sums of elements in self along axis. Perform the sum after converting data to data type rtype.

PyObject *\texttt{PyArrayProd}(PyArrayObject *self, int axis, int rtype, PyArrayObject *out)

Equivalent to \texttt{ndarray.prod}(self, axis, rtype). Return 1-d products of elements in self along axis. Perform the product after converting data to data type rtype.

PyObject *\texttt{PyArrayCumProd}(PyArrayObject *self, int axis, int rtype, PyArrayObject *out)

Equivalent to \texttt{ndarray.cumprod}(self, axis, rtype). Return 1-d cumulative products of elements in self along axis. Perform the product after converting data to data type rtype.

PyObject *\texttt{PyArrayAll}(PyArrayObject *self, int axis, PyArrayObject *out)

Equivalent to \texttt{ndarray.all}(self, axis). Return an array with True elements for every 1-d sub-array of self defined by axis in which all the elements are True.

PyObject *\texttt{PyArrayAny}(PyArrayObject *self, int axis, PyArrayObject *out)

Equivalent to \texttt{ndarray.any}(self, axis). Return an array with True elements for every 1-d sub-array of self defined by axis in which any of the elements are True.

9.4.6 Functions

Array Functions

int \texttt{PyArrayAsCArray}(PyObject **op, void *ptr, npy_intp *dims, int nd, int typenum, int itemsize)

Sometimes it is useful to access a multidimensional array as a C-style multi-dimensional array so that algorithms can be implemented using C's a[i][j][k] syntax. This routine returns a pointer, ptr, that simulates this kind of C-style array, for 1-, 2-, and 3-d ndarrays.

Parameters

- op – The address to any Python object. This Python object will be replaced with an equivalent well-behaved, C-style contiguous, ndarray of the given data type specified by the last two arguments. Be sure that stealing a reference in this way to the input object is justified.

- ptr – The address to a (ctype* for 1-d, ctype** for 2-d or ctype*** for 3-d) variable where ctype is the equivalent C-type for the data type. On return, ptr will be addressable as a 1-d, 2-d, or 3-d array.

- dims – An output array that contains the shape of the array object. This array gives boundaries on any looping that will take place.

- nd – The dimensionality of the array (1, 2, or 3).

- typenum – The expected data type of the array.
- **itemsize** – This argument is only needed when *typenum* represents a flexible array. Otherwise it should be 0.

**Note:** The simulation of a C-style array is not complete for 2-d and 3-d arrays. For example, the simulated arrays of pointers cannot be passed to subroutines expecting specific, statically-defined 2-d and 3-d arrays. To pass to functions requiring those kind of inputs, you must statically define the required array and copy data.

```c
int PyArray_Free (PyObject *op, void *ptr)
```

Must be called with the same objects and memory locations returned from `PyArray_AsCArray(...). This function cleans up memory that otherwise would get leaked.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_Concatenate (PyObject *obj, int axis)
```

Join the sequence of objects in *obj* together along *axis* into a single array. If the dimensions or types are not compatible an error is raised.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_InnerProduct (PyObject *obj1, PyObject *obj2)
```

Compute a product-sum over the last dimensions of *obj1* and *obj2*. Neither array is conjugated.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_MatrixProduct (PyObject *obj1, PyObject *obj)
```

Compute a product-sum over the last dimension of *obj1* and the second-to-last dimension of *obj2*. For 2-d arrays this is a matrix-product. Neither array is conjugated.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_MatrixProduct2 (PyObject *obj1, PyObject *obj, PyArrayObject *out)
```

Same as `PyArray_MatrixProduct`, but store the result in *out*. The output array must have the correct shape, type, and be C-contiguous, or an exception is raised.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_EinsteinSum (char *subscripts, npy_intp nop, PyArrayObject **op_in, PyArray_Descr *dtype, NPY_ORDER order, NPY_CASTING casting, PyArrayObject *out)
```

New in version 1.6.

Applies the Einstein summation convention to the array operands provided, returning a new array or placing the result in *out*. The string in *subscripts* is a comma separated list of index letters. The number of operands is in *nop*, and *op_in* is an array containing those operands. The data type of the output can be forced with *dtype*, the output order can be forced with *order* (*NPY_KEEPORDER* is recommended), and when *dtype* is specified, *casting* indicates how permissive the data conversion should be.

See the *einsum* function for more details.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_CopyAndTranspose (PyObject *op)
```

A specialized copy and transpose function that works only for 2-d arrays. The returned array is a transposed copy of *op*.

```c
PyObject *PyArray_Correlate (PyObject *op1, PyObject *op2, int mode)
```

Compute the 1-d correlation of the 1-d arrays *op1* and *op2*. The correlation is computed at each output point by multiplying *op1* by a shifted version of *op2* and summing the result. As a result of the shift, needed values outside of the defined range of *op1* and *op2* are interpreted as zero. The mode determines how many shifts to return: 0 - return only shifts that did not need to assume zero- values; 1 - return an object that is the same size as *op1*, 2 - return all possible shifts (any overlap at all is accepted).
**Notes**

This does not compute the usual correlation: if op2 is larger than op1, the arguments are swapped, and the conjugate is never taken for complex arrays. See PyArray_Correlate2 for the usual signal processing correlation.

*PyObject* `PyArray_Correlate2 (PyObject *op1, PyObject *op2, int mode)`

Updated version of PyArray_Correlate, which uses the usual definition of correlation for 1d arrays. The correlation is computed at each output point by multiplying op1 by a shifted version of op2 and summing the result. As a result of the shift, needed values outside of the defined range of op1 and op2 are interpreted as zero. The mode determines how many shifts to return: 0 - return only shifts that did not need to assume zero- values; 1 - return an object that is the same size as op1, 2 - return all possible shifts (any overlap at all is accepted).

**Notes**

Compute z as follows:

\[ z[k] = \text{sum}_n \text{op1}[n] \ast \text{conj(op2}[n+k]) \]

*PyObject* `PyArray_Where (PyObject *condition, PyObject *x, PyObject *y)`

If both x and y are NULL, then return PyArray_Nonzero (condition). Otherwise, both x and y must be given and the object returned is shaped like condition and has elements of x and y where condition is respectively True or False.

**Other functions**

*npy_bool* `PyArray_CheckStrides` (int elsize, int nd, *npy_intp* nbytes, *npy_intp* const *dims, *npy_intp* const *newstrides)`

Determine if newstrides is a strides array consistent with the memory of an nd -dimensional array with shape dims and element-size, elsize. The newstrides array is checked to see if jumping by the provided number of bytes in each direction will ever mean jumping more than nbytes which is the assumed size of the available memory segment. If nbytes is 0, then an equivalent nbytes is computed assuming nd, dims, and elsize refer to a single-segment array. Return NPY_TRUE if newstrides is acceptable, otherwise return NPY_FALSE.

*npy_intp* `PyArray_MultiplyList (npy_intp const *seq, int n)`

int `PyArray_MultiplyIntList (int const *seq, int n)`

Both of these routines multiply an n -length array, seq, of integers and return the result. No overflow checking is performed.

int `PyArray_CompareLists (npy_intp const *l1, npy_intp const *l2, int n)`

Given two n -length arrays of integers, l1, and l2, return 1 if the lists are identical; otherwise, return 0.

**9.4.7 Auxiliary Data With Object Semantics**

New in version 1.7.0.

*type* `NpyAuxData`

When working with more complex dtypes which are composed of other dtypes, such as the struct dtype, creating inner loops that manipulate the dtypes requires carrying along additional data. NumPy supports this idea through a struct NpyAuxData, mandating a few conventions so that it is possible to do this.
Defining an `NpyAuxData` is similar to defining a class in C++, but the object semantics have to be tracked manually since the API is in C. Here's an example for a function which doubles up an element using an element copier function as a primitive.

```c
typedef struct {
    NpyAuxData base;
    ElementCopier_Func *func;
    NpyAuxData *funcdata;
} eldoubler_aux_data;

void free_element_doubler_aux_data(NpyAuxData *data)
{
    eldoubler_aux_data *d = (eldoubler_aux_data *)data;
    /* Free the memory owned by this auxdata */
    NPY_AUXDATA_FREE(d->funcdata);
    PyArray_free(d);
}

NpyAuxData *clone_element_doubler_aux_data(NpyAuxData *data)
{
    eldoubler_aux_data *ret = PyArray_malloc(sizeof(eldoubler_aux_data));
    if (ret == NULL) {
        return NULL;
    }
    /* Raw copy of all data */
    memcpy(ret, data, sizeof(eldoubler_aux_data));
    /* Fix up the owned auxdata so we have our own copy */
    ret->funcdata = NPY_AUXDATA_CLONE(ret->funcdata);
    if (ret->funcdata == NULL) {
        PyArray_free(ret);
        return NULL;
    }
    return (NpyAuxData *)ret;
}

NpyAuxData *create_element_doubler_aux_data
    (ElementCopier_Func *func,
     NpyAuxData *funcdata)
{
    eldoubler_aux_data *ret = PyArray_malloc(sizeof(eldoubler_aux_data));
    if (ret == NULL) {
        PyErr_NoMemory();
        return NULL;
    }
    memset(&ret, 0, sizeof(eldoubler_aux_data));
    ret->base->free = &free_element_doubler_aux_data;
    ret->base->clone = &clone_element_doubler_aux_data;
    ret->func = func;
    ret->funcdata = funcdata;
    return (NpyAuxData *)ret;
}
```

**type NpyAuxData_FreeFunc**

The function pointer type for NpyAuxData free functions.
type NpyAuxData_CloneFunc
The function pointer type for NpyAuxData clone functions. These functions should never set the Python exception
on error, because they may be called from a multi-threaded context.

void NPY_AUXDATA_FREE (NpyAuxData *auxdata)
A macro which calls the auxdata’s free function appropriately, does nothing if auxdata is NULL.

NpyAuxData *NPY_AUXDATA_CLONE (NpyAuxData *auxdata)
A macro which calls the auxdata’s clone function appropriately, returning a deep copy of the auxiliary data.

9.4.8 Array Iterators

As of NumPy 1.6.0, these array iterators are superseded by the new array iterator, NpyIter.

An array iterator is a simple way to access the elements of an N-dimensional array quickly and efficiently. Section 2
provides more description and examples of this useful approach to looping over an array.

PyObject *PyArray_IterNew (PyObject *arr)
Return an array iterator object from the array, arr. This is equivalent to arr. flat. The array iterator object makes
it easy to loop over an N-dimensional non-contiguous array in C-style contiguous fashion.

PyObject *PyArray_IterAllButAxis (PyObject *arr, int *axis)
Return an array iterator that will iterate over all axes but the one provided in *axis. The returned iterator cannot be
used with PyArray_ITER_GOTO1D. This iterator could be used to write something similar to what ufuncs do
wherein the loop over the largest axis is done by a separate sub-routine. If *axis is negative then *axis will be set
to the axis having the smallest stride and that axis will be used.

PyObject *PyArray_BroadcastToShape (PyObject *arr, npy_intp const *dimensions, int nd)
Return an array iterator that is broadcast to iterate as an array of the shape provided by dimensions and nd.

int PyArrayIter_Check (PyObject *op)
Evaluates true if op is an array iterator (or instance of a subclass of the array iterator type).

void PyArray_ITER_RESET (PyObject *iterator)
Reset an iterator to the beginning of the array.

void PyArray_ITER_NEXT (PyObject *iterator)
Increment the index and the dataptr members of the iterator to point to the next element of the array. If the
array is not (C-style) contiguous, also increment the N-dimensional coordinates array.

void *PyArray_ITER_DATA (PyObject *iterator)
A pointer to the current element of the array.

void PyArray_ITER_GOTO (PyObject *iterator, npy_intp *destination)
Set the iterator index, dataptr, and coordinates members to the location in the array indicated by the N-dimensional
c-array, destination, which must have size at least iterator->nd_m1+1.

void PyArray_ITER_GOTO1D (PyObject *iterator, npy_intp index)
Set the iterator index and dataptr to the location in the array indicated by the integer index which points to an
element in the C-styled flattened array.

int PyArray_ITER_NOTDONE (PyObject *iterator)
Evaluates TRUE as long as the iterator has not looped through all of the elements, otherwise it evaluates FALSE.
9.4.9 Broadcasting (multi-iterators)

**PyObject** *PyArray_MultiIterNew* (int num, ...)

A simplified interface to broadcasting. This function takes the number of arrays to broadcast and then `num` extra (*PyObject* *) arguments. These arguments are converted to arrays and iterators are created. *PyArray_Broadcast* is then called on the resulting multi-iterator object. The resulting, broadcasted multi-iterator object is then returned. A broadcasted operation can then be performed using a single loop and using *PyArray_MultiIter_NEXT* (..)

void *PyArray_MultiIter_DATA* (PyObject *multi, int i)

Return the data-pointer of the `i`th iterator in a multi-iterator object.

void *PyArray_MultiIter_NEXTi* (PyObject *multi, int i)

Advance the pointer of only the `i`th iterator.

void *PyArray_MultiIter_GOTO* (PyObject *multi, npy_intp *destination)

Advance each iterator in a multi-iterator object, `multi`, to the given `N`-dimensional `destination` where `N` is the number of dimensions in the broadcasted array.

void *PyArray_MultiIter_GOTO1D* (PyObject *multi, npy_intp index)

Advance each iterator in a multi-iterator object, `multi`, to the corresponding location of the `index` into the flattened broadcasted array.

int *PyArray_MultiIter_NOTDONE* (PyObject *multi)

Evaluates TRUE as long as the multi-iterator has not looped through all of the elements (of the broadcasted result), otherwise it evaluates FALSE.

int *PyArray_Broadcast* (PyArrayMultiIterObject *mit)

This function encapsulates the broadcasting rules. The `mit` container should already contain iterators for all the arrays that need to be broadcast. On return, these iterators will be adjusted so that iteration over each simultaneously will accomplish the broadcasting. A negative number is returned if an error occurs.

int *PyArray_RemoveSmallest* (PyArrayMultiIterObject *mit)

This function takes a multi-iterator object that has been previously “broadcasted,” finds the dimension with the smallest “sum of strides” in the broadcasted result and adapts all the iterators so as not to iterate over that dimension (by effectively making them of length-1 in that dimension). The corresponding dimension is returned unless `mit`->nd is 0, then -1 is returned. This function is useful for constructing ufunc-like routines that broadcast their inputs correctly and then call a strided 1-d version of the routine as the inner-loop. This 1-d version is usually optimized for speed and for this reason the loop should be performed over the axis that won’t require large stride jumps.

9.4.10 Neighborhood iterator

New in version 1.4.0.

Neighborhood iterators are subclasses of the iterator object, and can be used to iterate over a neighborhood of a point. For example, you may want to iterate over every voxel of a 3d image, and for every such voxel, iterate over an hypercube. Neighborhood iterator automatically handle boundaries, thus making this kind of code much easier to write than manual boundaries handling, at the cost of a slight overhead.

**PyObject** *PyArray_NeighborhoodIterNew* (PyArrayIterObject *iter, npy_intp bounds, int mode, PyArrayObject *fill_value)

This function creates a new neighborhood iterator from an existing iterator. The neighborhood will be computed
relatively to the position currently pointed by `iter`, the bounds define the shape of the neighborhood iterator, and the mode argument the boundaries handling mode.

The `bounds` argument is expected to be a `(2 * iter->ao->nd)` arrays, such as the range bound`[2*i]->bounds[2*i+1]` defines the range where to walk for dimension i (both bounds are included in the walked coordinates). The bounds should be ordered for each dimension (bounds[2*i] <= bounds[2*i+1]).

The mode should be one of:

- **NPY_NEIGHBORHOOD_ITER_ZERO_PADDING**
  - Zero padding. Outside bounds values will be 0.

- **NPY_NEIGHBORHOOD_ITER_ONE_PADDING**
  - One padding, Outside bounds values will be 1.

- **NPY_NEIGHBORHOOD_ITER_CONSTANT_PADDING**
  - Constant padding. Outside bounds values will be the same as the first item in fill_value.

- **NPY_NEIGHBORHOOD_ITER_MIRROR_PADDING**
  - Mirror padding. Outside bounds values will be as if the array items were mirrored. For example, for the array `[1, 2, 3, 4], x[-2]` will be 2, `x[-2]` will be 1, `x[4]` will be 4, `x[5]` will be 1, etc…

- **NPY_NEIGHBORHOOD_ITER_CIRCULAR_PADDING**
  - Circular padding. Outside bounds values will be as if the array was repeated. For example, for the array `[1, 2, 3, 4], x[-2]` will be 3, `x[-2]` will be 4, `x[4]` will be 1, `x[5]` will be 2, etc…

If the mode is constant filling (`NPY_NEIGHBORHOOD_ITER_CONSTANT_PADDING`), fill_value should point to an array object which holds the filling value (the first item will be the filling value if the array contains more than one item). For other cases, fill_value may be NULL.

- The iterator holds a reference to `iter`
- Return NULL on failure (in which case the reference count of `iter` is not changed)
- `iter` itself can be a Neighborhood iterator: this can be useful for e.g automatic boundaries handling
- the object returned by this function should be safe to use as a normal iterator
- If the position of `iter` is changed, any subsequent call to `PyArrayNeighborhoodIter_Next` is undefined behavior, and `PyArrayNeighborhoodIter_Reset` must be called.

```python
PyArrayIterObject *iter;
PyArrayNeighborhoodIterObject *neigh_iter;
iter = PyArray_IterNew(x);

/* For a 3x3 kernel */
bounds = {-1, 1, -1, 1};
neigh_iter = (PyArrayNeighborhoodIterObject*)PyArrayNeighborhoodIter_New(
    iter, bounds, NPY_NEIGHBORHOOD_ITER_ZERO_PADDING, NULL);

for(i = 0; i < iter->size; ++i) {
    for (j = 0; j < neigh_iter->size; ++j) {
        /* Walk around the item currently pointed by iter->dataptr */
        PyArrayNeighborhoodIter_Next(neigh_iter);
    }
}

/* Move to the next point of iter */
PyArrayIter_Next(iter);
PyArrayNeighborhoodIter_Reset(neigh_iter);
```
int PyArrayNeighborhoodIter_Reset (PyArrayNeighborhoodIterObject *iter)
    Reset the iterator position to the first point of the neighborhood. This should be called whenever the iter argument
    given at PyArray_NeighborhoodIterObject is changed (see example)

int PyArrayNeighborhoodIter_Next (PyArrayNeighborhoodIterObject *iter)
    After this call, iter->dataptr points to the next point of the neighborhood. Calling this function after every point of
    the neighborhood has been visited is undefined.

9.4.11 Array Scalars

PyObject *PyArray_Return (PyArrayObject *arr)
    This function steals a reference to arr.

    This function checks to see if arr is a 0-dimensional array and, if so, returns the appropriate array scalar. It should
    be used whenever 0-dimensional arrays could be returned to Python.

PyObject *PyArray_Scalar (void *data, PyArray_Descr *dtype, PyObject *itemsize)
    Return an array scalar object of the given enumerated typenum and itemsize by copying from memory pointed to
    by data. If swap is nonzero then this function will byteswap the data if appropriate to the data-type because array
    scalars are always in correct machine-byte order.

PyObject *PyArray_ToScalar (void *data, PyArrayObject *arr)
    Return an array scalar object of the type and itemsize indicated by the array object arr copied from the memory
    pointed to by data and swapping if the data in arr is not in machine byte-order.

PyObject *PyArray_FromScalar (PyObject *scalar, PyArray_Descr *outcode)
    Return a 0-dimensional array of type determined by outcode from scalar which should be an array-scalar object.
    If outcode is NULL, then the type is determined from scalar.

void PyArray_ScalarAsCtype (PyObject *scalar, void *ctypeptr)
    Return in ctypeptr a pointer to the actual value in an array scalar. There is no error checking so scalar must be
    an array-scalar object, and ctypeptr must have enough space to hold the correct type. For flexible-sized types, a
    pointer to the data is copied into the memory of ctypeptr, for all other types, the actual data is copied into the
    address pointed to by ctypeptr.

void PyArray_CastScalarToCtype (PyObject *scalar, void *ctypeptr, PyArray_Descr *outcode)
    Return the data (cast to the datatype indicated by outcode) from the array-scalar, scalar, into the memory pointed
    to by ctypeptr (which must be large enough to handle the incoming memory).

PyObject *PyArray_TypeObjectFromType (int type)
    Returns a scalar type-object from a type-number, type. Equivalent to PyArray_DescrFromType (type)-
    ->typeobj except for reference counting and error-checking. Returns a new reference to the typeobject on success
    or NULL on failure.

NPY_SCALARKIND PyArray_ScalarKind (int typenum, PyArrayObject **arr)
    See the function PyArray_MinScalarType for an alternative mechanism introduced in NumPy 1.6.0.

    Return the kind of scalar represented by typenum and the array in *arr (if arr is not NULL). The array is assumed to
    be rank-0 and only used if typenum represents a signed integer. If arr is not NULL and the first element is negative
    then NPY_INTNEG_SCALAR is returned, otherwise NPY_INTPOS_SCALAR is returned. The possible return
    values are the enumerated values in NPY_SCALARKIND.

int PyArray_CanCoerceScalar (char thistype, char neededtype, NPY_SCALARKIND scalar)
    See the function PyArray_ResultType for details of NumPy type promotion, updated in NumPy 1.6.0.

    Implements the rules for scalar coercion. Scalars are only silently coerced from thistype to needed-
    type if this function returns nonzero. If scalar is NPY_NOSCALAR, then this function is equivalent to
    PyArray_CanCastSafely. The rule is that scalars of the same KIND can be coerced into arrays of the
same KIND. This rule means that high-precision scalars will never cause low-precision arrays of the same KIND to be upcast.

9.4.12 Data-type descriptors

**Warning:** Data-type objects must be reference counted so be aware of the action on the data-type reference of different C-API calls. The standard rule is that when a data-type object is returned it is a new reference. Functions that take `PyArray_Descr*` objects and return arrays steal references to the data-type their inputs unless otherwise noted. Therefore, you must own a reference to any data-type object used as input to such a function.

```c
int PyArray_DescrCheck (PyObject *obj)
    Evaluates as true if *obj is a data-type object (PyArray_Descr*).

PyArray_Descr *PyArray_DescrNew (PyArray_Descr *obj)
    Return a new data-type object copied from obj (the fields reference is just updated so that the new object points to the same fields dictionary if any).

PyArray_Descr *PyArray_DescrNewFromType (int typenum)
    Create a new data-type object from the built-in (or user-registered) data-type indicated by typenum. All builtin types should not have any of their fields changed. This creates a new copy of the PyArray_Descr structure so that you can fill it in as appropriate. This function is especially needed for flexible data-types which need to have a new elsize member in order to be meaningful in array construction.

PyArray_Descr *PyArray_DescrNewByteorder (PyArray_Descr *obj, char newendian)
    Create a new data-type object with the byteorder set according to newendian. All referenced data-type objects (in subdescr and fields members of the data-type object) are also changed (recursively).

The value of newendian is one of these macros:

- NPY_IGNORE
- NPY_SWAP
- NPY_NATIVE
- NPY_LITTLE
- NPY_BIG

If a byteorder of NPY_IGNORE is encountered it is left alone. If newendian is NPY_SWAP, then all byte-orders are swapped. Other valid newendian values are NPY_NATIVE, NPY_LITTLE, and NPY_BIG which all cause the returned data-typed descriptor (and all it’s referenced data-type descriptors) to have the corresponding byte-order.

PyArray_Descr *PyArray_DescrFromObject (PyObject *op, PyArray_Descr *mintype)
    Determine an appropriate data-type object from the object op (which should be a “nested” sequence object) and the minimum data-type descriptor mintype (which can be NULL). Similar in behavior to array(op).dtype. Don’t confuse this function with PyArray_DescrConverter. This function essentially looks at all the objects in the (nested) sequence and determines the data-type from the elements it finds.

PyArray_Descr *PyArray_DescrFromScalar (PyObject *scalar)
    Return a data-type object from an array-scalar object. No checking is done to be sure that scalar is an array scalar.

If no suitable data-type can be determined, then a data-type of NPY_OBJECT is returned by default.

PyArray_Descr *PyArray_DescrFromType (int typenum)
    Returns a data-type object corresponding to typenum. The typenum can be one of the enumerated types, a character code for one of the enumerated types, or a user-defined type. If you want to use a flexible size array, then you need to flexible typenum and set the results elsize parameter to the desired size. The typenum is one of the NPY_TYPES.
int **PyArray_DescrConverter (PyObject *obj, PyArray_Descr **dtype)
Convert any compatible Python object, *obj, to a data-type object in *dtype. A large number of Python objects can be converted to data-type objects. See Data type objects (dtype) for a complete description. This version of the converter converts None objects to a NPY_DEFAULT_TYPE data-type object. This function can be used with the “O&” character code in PyArg_ParseTuple processing.

int **PyArray_DescrConverter2 (PyObject *obj, PyArray_Descr **dtype)
Convert any compatible Python object, *obj, to a data-type object in *dtype. This version of the converter converts None objects so that the returned data-type is NULL. This function can also be used with the “O&” character in PyArg_ParseTuple processing.

int **PyArray_DescrAlignConverter (PyObject *obj, PyArray_Descr **dtype)
Like PyArray_DescrConverter except it aligns C-struct-like objects on word-boundaries as the compiler would.

int **PyArray_DescrAlignConverter2 (PyObject *obj, PyArray_Descr **dtype)
Like PyArray_DescrConverter2 except it aligns C-struct-like objects on word-boundaries as the compiler would.

PyObject *PyArray_FieldNames (PyObject *dict)
Take the fields dictionary, *dict, such as the one attached to a data-type object and construct an ordered-list of field names such as is stored in the names field of the PyArray_Descr object.

9.4.13 Conversion Utilities

For use with PyArg_ParseTuple

All of these functions can be used in PyArg_ParseTuple (...) with the “O&” format specifier to automatically convert any Python object to the required C-object. All of these functions return NPY_SUCCEED if successful and NPY_FAIL if not. The first argument to all of these function is a Python object. The second argument is the address of the C-type to convert the Python object to.

Warning: Be sure to understand what steps you should take to manage the memory when using these conversion functions. These functions can require freeing memory, and/or altering the reference counts of specific objects based on your use.

int PyArray_Converter (PyObject *obj, PyObject **address)
Convert any Python object to a PyArrayObject. If PyArray_Check (obj) is TRUE then its reference count is incremented and a reference placed in *address. If obj is not an array, then convert it to an array using PyArray_FromAny. No matter what is returned, you must DECREF the object returned by this routine in address when you are done with it.

int PyArray_OutputConverter (PyObject *obj, PyArrayObject **address)
This is a default converter for output arrays given to functions. If obj is Py_None or NULL, then *address will be NULL but the call will succeed. If PyArray_Check (obj) is TRUE then it is returned in *address without incrementing its reference count.

int PyArray_IntpConverter (PyObject *obj, PyArray_Dims *seq)
Convert any Python sequence, *obj, smaller than NPY_MAXDIMS to a C-array of npy_intp. The Python object could also be a single number. The seq variable is a pointer to a structure with members ptr and len. On successful return, seq->ptr contains a pointer to memory that must be freed, by calling PyDimMem_FREE, to avoid a memory leak. The restriction on memory size allows this converter to be conveniently used for sequences intended to be interpreted as array shapes.
int \textbf{PyArray_BufferConverter} (PyObject *obj, PyArray_Chunk *buf)

Convert any Python object, \textit{obj}, with a (single-segment) buffer interface to a variable with members that detail the object’s use of its chunk of memory. The \textit{buf} variable is a pointer to a structure with base, ptr, len, and flags members. The \textbf{PyArray_Chunk} structure is binary compatible with the Python’s buffer object (through its len member on 32-bit platforms and its ptr member on 64-bit platforms or in Python 2.5). On return, the base member is set to \textit{obj} (or its base if \textit{obj} is already a buffer object pointing to another object). If you need to hold on to the memory be sure to INCREF the base member. The chunk of memory is pointed to by \textit{buf} ->ptr member and has length \textit{buf} ->len. The flags member of \textit{buf} is \textbf{NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED} with the \textbf{NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE} flag set if \textit{obj} has a writeable buffer interface.

int \textbf{PyArray_AxisConverter} (PyObject *obj, int *axis)

Convert a Python object, \textit{obj}, representing an axis argument to the proper value for passing to the functions that take an integer axis. Specifically, if \textit{obj} is None, \textit{axis} is set to \textbf{NPY_MAXDIMS} which is interpreted correctly by the C-API functions that take axis arguments.

int \textbf{PyArray_BoolConverter} (PyObject *obj, npy_bool *value)

Convert any Python object, \textit{obj}, to \textbf{NPY_TRUE} or \textbf{NPY_FALSE}, and place the result in \textit{value}.

int \textbf{PyArray_ByteorderConverter} (PyObject *obj, char* endian)

Convert Python strings into the corresponding byte-order character: ‘>’, ‘<’, ‘=’, or ‘!’.

int \textbf{PyArray_SortkindConverter} (PyObject *obj, NPY_SORTKIND *sort)

Convert Python strings into one of \textbf{NPY_QUICKSORT} (starts with ‘q’ or ‘Q’), \textbf{NPY_HEAPSORT} (starts with ‘h’ or ‘H’), \textbf{NPY_MERGESORT} (starts with ‘m’ or ‘M’) or \textbf{NPY_STABLESORT} (starts with ‘t’ or ‘T’). \textbf{NPY_MERGESORT} and \textbf{NPY_STABLESORT} are aliased to each other for backwards compatibility and may refer to one of several stable sorting algorithms depending on the data type.

int \textbf{PyArray_SearchsideConverter} (PyObject *obj, NPY_SEARCHSIDE *side)

Convert Python strings into one of \textbf{NPY_SEARCHLEFT} (starts with ‘l’ or ‘L’), or \textbf{NPY_SEARCHRIGHT} (starts with ‘r’ or ‘R’).

int \textbf{PyArray_OrderConverter} (PyObject *obj, NPY_ORDER *order)


int \textbf{PyArray_CastingConverter} (PyObject *obj, NPY_CASTING *casting)

Convert the Python strings ‘no’, ‘equiv’, ‘safe’, ‘same_kind’, and ‘unsafe’ into the \textbf{NPY_CASTING} enumeration \textbf{NPY_NO_CASTING}, \textbf{NPY_EQUIV_CASTING}, \textbf{NPY_SAFE_CASTING}, \textbf{NPY_SAFE_CASTING}, \textbf{NPY_SAME_KIND_CASTING}, and \textbf{NPY_UNSAFE_CASTING}.

int \textbf{PyArray_ClipmodeConverter} (PyObject *object, NPY_CLIPMODE *val)

Convert the Python strings ‘clip’, ‘wrap’, and ‘raise’ into the \textbf{NPY_CLIPMODE} enumeration \textbf{NPY_CLIP}, \textbf{NPY_WRAP}, and \textbf{NPY_RAISE}.

int \textbf{PyArray_ConvertClipmodeSequence} (PyObject *object, NPY_CLIPMODE *modes, int n)

Converts either a sequence of clipmodes or a single clipmode into a C array of \textbf{NPY_CLIPMODE} values. The number of clipmodes \textit{n} must be known before calling this function. This function is provided to help functions allow a different clipmode for each dimension.
Other conversions

```c
int PyArray_PyIntAsInt (PyObject *op)
Convert all kinds of Python objects (including arrays and array scalars) to a standard integer. On error, -1 is returned and an exception set. You may find useful the macro:

#define error_converting(x) (((x) == -1) && PyErr_Occurred())
```

```c
npy_intp PyArray_PyIntAsIntp (PyObject *op)
Convert all kinds of Python objects (including arrays and array scalars) to a (platform-pointer-sized) integer. On error, -1 is returned and an exception set.
```

```c
int PyArray_IntpFromSequence (PyObject *seq, npy_intp *vals, int maxvals)
Convert any Python sequence (or single Python number) passed in as seq to (up to) maxvals pointer-sized integers and place them in the vals array. The sequence can be smaller then maxvals as the number of converted objects is returned.
```

```c
int PyArray_TypestrConvert (int itemsize, int gentype)
Convert typestring characters (with itemsize) to basic enumerated data types. The typestring character corresponding to signed and unsigned integers, floating point numbers, and complex-floating point numbers are recognized and converted. Other values of gentype are returned. This function can be used to convert, for example, the string ‘f4’ to NPY_FLOAT32.
```

9.4.14 Miscellaneous

Importing the API

In order to make use of the C-API from another extension module, the `import_array` function must be called. If the extension module is self-contained in a single .c file, then that is all that needs to be done. If, however, the extension module involves multiple files where the C-API is needed then some additional steps must be taken.

```c
void import_array (void)
This function must be called in the initialization section of a module that will make use of the C-API. It imports the module where the function-pointer table is stored and points the correct variable to it.
```

```c
PY_ARRAY_UNIQUE_SYMBOL
NO_IMPORT_ARRAY
Using these #defines you can use the C-API in multiple files for a single extension module. In each file you must define PY_ARRAY_UNIQUE_SYMBOL to some name that will hold the C-API (e.g. myextension ARRAY_API). This must be done before including the numpy/arrayobject.h file. In the module initialization routine you call import_array. In addition, in the files that do not have the module initialization sub_routine define NO_IMPORT_ARRAY prior to including numpy/arrayobject.h.

Suppose I have two files coolmodule.c and coolhelper.c which need to be compiled and linked into a single extension module. Suppose coolmodule.c contains the required initcool module initialization function (with the import_array() function called). Then, coolmodule.c would have at the top:

```c
#define PY_ARRAY_UNIQUE_SYMBOL cool_ARRAY_API
#include numpy/arrayobject.h
```

On the other hand, coolhelper.c would contain at the top:

```c
#define NO_IMPORT_ARRAY
#define PY_ARRAY_UNIQUE_SYMBOL cool_ARRAY_API
#include numpy/arrayobject.h
```
You can also put the common two last lines into an extension-local header file as long as you make sure that NO_IMPORT_ARRAY is #defined before #including that file.

Internally, these #defines work as follows:

- If neither is defined, the C-API is declared to be static void**, so it is only visible within the compilation unit that #includes numpy/arrayobject.h.
- If PY_ARRAY_UNIQUE_SYMBOL is #defined, but NO_IMPORT_ARRAY is not, the C-API is declared to be void**, so that it will also be visible to other compilation units.
- If NO_IMPORT_ARRAY is #defined, regardless of whether PY_ARRAY_UNIQUE_SYMBOL is, the C-API is declared to be extern void**, so it is expected to be defined in another compilation unit.
- Whenever PY_ARRAY_UNIQUE_SYMBOL is #defined, it also changes the name of the variable holding the C-API, which defaults to PyArray_API, to whatever the macro is #defined to.

### Checking the API Version

Because python extensions are not used in the same way as usual libraries on most platforms, some errors cannot be automatically detected at build time or even runtime. For example, if you build an extension using a function available only for numpy >= 1.3.0, and you import the extension later with numpy 1.2, you will not get an import error (but almost certainly a segmentation fault when calling the function). That's why several functions are provided to check for numpy versions. The macros NPY_VERSION and NPY_FEATURE_VERSION corresponds to the numpy version used to build the extension, whereas the versions returned by the functions PyArray_GetNDArrayCVersion and PyArray_GetNDArrayCFeatureVersion corresponds to the runtime numpy’s version.

The rules for ABI and API compatibilities can be summarized as follows:

- Whenever NPY_VERSION != PyArray_GetNDArrayCVersion(), the extension has to be recompiled (ABI incompatibility).
- NPY_VERSION == PyArray_GetNDArrayCVersion() and NPY_FEATURE_VERSION <= PyArray_GetNDArrayCFeatureVersion() means backward compatible changes.

 ABI incompatibility is automatically detected in every numpy’s version. API incompatibility detection was added in numpy 1.4.0. If you want to supported many different numpy versions with one extension binary, you have to build your extension with the lowest NPY_FEATURE_VERSION as possible.

NPY_VERSION
The current version of the ndarray object (check to see if this variable is defined to guarantee the numpy/arrayobject.h header is being used).

NPY_FEATURE_VERSION
The current version of the C-API.

unsigned int PyArray_GetNDArrayCVersion (void)
This just returns the value NPY_VERSION. NPY_VERSION changes whenever a backward incompatible change at the ABI level. Because it is in the C-API, however, comparing the output of this function from the value defined in the current header gives a way to test if the C-API has changed thus requiring a re-compilation of extension modules that use the C-API. This is automatically checked in the function import_array.

unsigned int PyArray_GetNDArrayCFeatureVersion (void)
New in version 1.4.0.

This just returns the value NPY_FEATURE_VERSION. NPY_FEATURE_VERSION changes whenever the API changes (e.g. a function is added). A changed value does not always require a recompile.
Internal Flexibility

int PyArray_SetNumericOps (PyObject *dict)

NumPy stores an internal table of Python callable objects that are used to implement arithmetic operations for arrays as well as certain array calculation methods. This function allows the user to replace any or all of these Python objects with their own versions. The keys of the dictionary, dict, are the named functions to replace and the paired value is the Python callable object to use. Care should be taken that the function used to replace an internal array operation does not itself call back to that internal array operation (unless you have designed the function to handle that), or an unchecked infinite recursion can result (possibly causing program crash). The key names that represent operations that can be replaced are:

add, subtract, multiply, divide, remainder, power, square, reciprocal, ones_like, sqrt, negative, positive, absolute, invert, left_shift, right_shift, bitwise_and, bitwise_xor, bitwise_or, less, less_equal, equal, not_equal, greater, greater_equal, floor_divide, true_divide, logical_or, logical_and, floor, ceil, maximum, minimum, rint.

These functions are included here because they are used at least once in the array object’s methods. The function returns -1 (without setting a Python Error) if one of the objects being assigned is not callable.

Deprecated since version 1.16.

PyObject *PyArray_GetNumericOps (void)

Return a Python dictionary containing the callable Python objects stored in the internal arithmetic operation table. The keys of this dictionary are given in the explanation for PyArray_SetNumericOps.

Deprecated since version 1.16.

void PyArray_SetStringFunction (PyObject *op, int repr)

This function allows you to alter the tp_str and tp_repr methods of the array object to any Python function. Thus you can alter what happens for all arrays when str(arr) or repr(arr) is called from Python. The function to be called is passed in as op. If repr is non-zero, then this function will be called in response to repr(arr), otherwise the function will be called in response to str(arr). No check on whether or not op is callable is performed. The callable passed in to op should expect an array argument and should return a string to be printed.

Memory management

char *PyDataMem_NEW (size_t nbytes)

void PyDataMem_FREE (char *ptr)

char *PyDataMem_RENEW (void *ptr, size_t newbytes)

Macros to allocate, free, and reallocate memory. These macros are used internally to create arrays.

npy_intp *PyDimMem_NEW (int nd)

void PyDimMem_FREE (char *ptr)

npy_intp *PyDimMem_RENEW (void *ptr, size_t newnd)

Macros to allocate, free, and reallocate dimension and strides memory.

void *PyArray_malloc (size_t nbytes)

void PyArray_free (void *ptr)
void *PyArray_realloc (npy_intp *ptr, size_t nbytes)

These macros use different memory allocators, depending on the constant NPY_USE_PYMEM. The system malloc is used when NPY_USE_PYMEM is 0, if NPY_USE_PYMEM is 1, then the Python memory allocator is used.

NPY_USE_PYMEM

int PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy (PyArrayObject *obj)

If obj->flags has NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY or (deprecated) NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY, this function clears the flags, DECREF's obj->base and makes it writable, and sets obj->base to NULL. It then copies obj->data to obj->base->data, and returns the error state of the copy operation. This is the opposite of PyArray_SetWritebackIfCopyBase. Usually this is called once you are finished with obj, just before Py_DECREF(obj). It may be called multiple times, or with NULL input. See also PyArray_DiscardWritebackIfCopy.

Returns 0 if nothing was done, -1 on error, and 1 if action was taken.

Threading support

These macros are only meaningful if NPY_ALLOW_THREADS evaluates True during compilation of the extension module. Otherwise, these macros are equivalent to whitespace. Python uses a single Global Interpreter Lock (GIL) for each Python process so that only a single thread may execute at a time (even on multi-cpu machines). When calling out to a compiled function that may take time to compute (and does not have side-effects for other threads like updated global variables), the GIL should be released so that other Python threads can run while the time-consuming calculations are performed. This can be accomplished using two groups of macros. Typically, if one macro in a group is used in a code block, all of them must be used in the same code block. Currently, NPY_ALLOW_THREADS is defined to the python-defined WITH_THREADS constant unless the environment variable NPY_NOSMP is set in which case NPY_ALLOW_THREADS is defined to be 0.

NPY_ALLOW_THREADS

WITH_THREADS

Group 1

This group is used to call code that may take some time but does not use any Python C-API calls. Thus, the GIL should be released during its calculation.

NPY_BEGIN_ALLOW_THREADS

Equivalent to Py_BEGIN_ALLOW_THREADS except it uses NPY_ALLOW_THREADS to determine if the macro if replaced with white-space or not.

NPY_END_ALLOW_THREADS

Equivalent to Py_END_ALLOW_THREADS except it uses NPY_ALLOW_THREADS to determine if the macro if replaced with white-space or not.

NPY_BEGIN_THREADS_DEF

Place in the variable declaration area. This macro sets up the variable needed for storing the Python state.

NPY_BEGIN_THREADS

Place right before code that does not need the Python interpreter (no Python C-API calls). This macro saves the Python state and releases the GIL.

NPY_END_THREADS

Place right after code that does not need the Python interpreter. This macro acquires the GIL and restores the Python state from the saved variable.
void NPY_BEGIN_THREADS_DESCR (PyArray_Descr *dtype)
   UsefultoreleasetheGILonlyif dtype does not contain arbitrary Python objects which may need the
   Python interpreter during execution of the loop.

void NPY_END_THREADS_DESCR (PyArray_Descr *dtype)
   UsefultoregaintheGILinsituationswhereitwasreleasedusingtheBEGINformofthismacro.

void NPY_BEGIN_THREADS_THRESHOLDED (int loop_size)
   UsefultoreleasetheGILonlyif loop_size exceeds a minimum threshold, currently set to 500. Should
   be matched with a NPY_END_THREADS to regain the GIL.

Group 2

This group is used to re-acquire the Python GIL after it has been released. For example, suppose the GIL has
been released (using the previous calls), and then some path in the code (perhaps in a different subroutine)
requires use of the Python C-API, then these macros are useful to acquire the GIL. These macros accomplish
essentially a reverse of the previous three (acquire the LOCK saving what state it had) and then re-release it
with the saved state.

NPY_ALLOW_C_API_DEF
   Place in the variable declaration area to set up the necessary variable.

NPY_ALLOW_C_API
   Place before code that needs to call the Python C-API (when it is known that the GIL has already been
   released).

NPY_DISABLE_C_API
   Place after code that needs to call the Python C-API (to re-release the GIL).

Tip: Never use semicolons after the threading support macros.

Priority

NPY_PRIORITY
   Default priority for arrays.

NPY_SUBTYPE_PRIORITY
   Default subtype priority.

NPY_SCALAR_PRIORITY
   Default scalar priority (very small)

double PyArray_GetPriority (PyObject *obj, double def)
   Return the __array_priority__ attribute (converted to a double) of obj or def if no attribute of that name
   exists. Fast returns that avoid the attribute lookup are provided for objects of type PyArray_Type.
**Default buffers**

**NPY_BUFSIZE**
Default size of the user-settable internal buffers.

**NPY_MIN_BUFSIZE**
Smallest size of user-settable internal buffers.

**NPY_MAX_BUFSIZE**
Largest size allowed for the user-settable buffers.

**Other constants**

**NPY_NUM_FLOATTYPE**
The number of floating-point types

**NPY_MAXDIMS**
The maximum number of dimensions allowed in arrays.

**NPY_MAXARGS**
The maximum number of array arguments that can be used in functions.

**NPY_FALSE**
Defined as 0 for use with Bool.

**NPY_TRUE**
Defined as 1 for use with Bool.

**NPY_FAIL**
The return value of failed converter functions which are called using the “O&” syntax in `PyArg_ParseTuple`-like functions.

**NPY_SUCCEED**
The return value of successful converter functions which are called using the “O&” syntax in `PyArg_ParseTuple`-like functions.

**Miscellaneous Macros**

```c
int PyArray_SAMESHAPE (PyObject *a1, PyObject *a2)
```
Evaluates as True if arrays `a1` and `a2` have the same shape.

```c
PyArray_MAX (a, b)
```
Returns the maximum of `a` and `b`. If `(a)` or `(b)` are expressions they are evaluated twice.

```c
PyArray_MIN (a, b)
```
Returns the minimum of `a` and `b`. If `(a)` or `(b)` are expressions they are evaluated twice.

```c
PyArray_CLT (a, b)
```

```c
PyArray_CGT (a, b)
```

```c
PyArray_CLE (a, b)
```

```c
PyArray_CGE (a, b)
```
**PyArray_CEQ** (a, b)

**PyArray_CNE** (a, b)

Implements the complex comparisons between two complex numbers (structures with a real and imag member) using NumPy’s definition of the ordering which is lexicographic: comparing the real parts first and then the complex parts if the real parts are equal.

*npy_intp* **PyArray_REFCOUNT** (PyObject *op)

Returns the reference count of any Python object.

void **PyArray_DiscardWritebackIfCopy** (PyObject *obj)

If *obj*.flags has NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY or (deprecated) NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY, this function clears the flags, **DECREF** *obj*-&gt;base and makes it writeable, and sets *obj*-&gt;base to NULL. In contrast to **PyArray_DiscardWritebackIfCopy** it makes no attempt to copy the data from *obj*-&gt;base This undoes **PyArray_SetWritebackIfCopyBase**. Usually this is called after an error when you are finished with *obj*, just before **Py_DECREF** (*obj*). It may be called multiple times, or with NULL input.

void **PyArray_XDECREF_ERR** (PyObject *obj)

Deprecated in 1.14, use **PyArray_DiscardWritebackIfCopy** followed by **Py_XDECREF**

**DECREF**’s an array object which may have the (deprecated) NPY_ARRAY_UPDATEIFCOPY or NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag set without causing the contents to be copied back into the original array. Resets the NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE flag on the base object. This is useful for recovering from an error condition when writeback semantics are used, but will lead to wrong results.

**Enumerated Types**

**enum** NPY_SORTKIND

A special variable-type which can take on different values to indicate the sorting algorithm being used.

enumerator NPY_QUICKSORT

enumerator NPY_HEAPSORT

enumerator NPY_MERGESORT

enumerator NPY_STABLESORT

Used as an alias of NPY_MERGESORT and vica versa.

enumerator NPY_NSORTS

Defined to be the number of sorts. It is fixed at three by the need for backwards compatibility, and consequently NPY_MERGESORT and NPY_STABLESORT are aliased to each other and may refer to one of several stable sorting algorithms depending on the data type.

**enum** NPY_SCALARKIND

A special variable type indicating the number of “kinds” of scalars distinguished in determining scalar-coercion rules. This variable can take on the values:

enumerator NPY_NOSCALAR

enumerator NPY_BOOL_SCALAR

enumerator NPY_INTPOS_SCALAR

enumerator NPY_INTNEG_SCALAR

enumerator NPY_FLOAT_SCALAR

enumerator NPY_COMPLEX_SCALAR

enumerator NPY_OBJECT_SCALAR
enumerator **NPY_NSCALARKINDS**

Defined to be the number of scalar kinds (not including **NPY_NOSCALAR**).

**enum NPY_ORDER**

An enumeration type indicating the element order that an array should be interpreted in. When a brand new array is created, generally only **NPY_CORDER** and **NPY_FORTRANORDER** are used, whereas when one or more inputs are provided, the order can be based on them.

enumerator **NPY_ANYORDER**

Fortran order if all the inputs are Fortran, C otherwise.

enumerator **NPY_CORDER**

C order.

enumerator **NPY_FORTRANORDER**

Fortran order.

enumerator **NPY_KEEPORDER**

An order as close to the order of the inputs as possible, even if the input is in neither C nor Fortran order.

**enum NPY_CLIPMODE**

A variable type indicating the kind of clipping that should be applied in certain functions.

enumerator **NPY_RAISE**

The default for most operations, raises an exception if an index is out of bounds.

enumerator **NPY_CLIP**

Clips an index to the valid range if it is out of bounds.

enumerator **NPY_WRAP**

Wraps an index to the valid range if it is out of bounds.

**enum NPY_SEARCHSIDE**

A variable type indicating whether the index returned should be that of the first suitable location (if **NPY_SEARCHLEFT**) or of the last (if **NPY_SEARCHRIGHT**).

enumerator **NPY_SEARCHLEFT**

enumerator **NPY_SEARCHRIGHT**

**enum NPY_SELECTKIND**

A variable type indicating the selection algorithm being used.

enumerator **NPY_INTROSELECT**

**enum NPY_CASTING**

New in version 1.6.

An enumeration type indicating how permissive data conversions should be. This is used by the iterator added in NumPy 1.6, and is intended to be used more broadly in a future version.

enumerator **NPY_NO_CASTING**

Only allow identical types.

enumerator **NPY_EQUIV_CASTING**

Allow identical and casts involving byte swapping.

enumerator **NPY_SAFE_CASTING**

Only allow casts which will not cause values to be rounded, truncated, or otherwise changed.

enumerator **NPYSAME_KIND_CASTING**

Allow any safe casts, and casts between types of the same kind. For example, float64 -> float32 is permitted with this rule.
enumerator **NPY_UNSAFE_CASTING**
Allow any cast, no matter what kind of data loss may occur.

9.5 Array Iterator API

New in version 1.6.

9.5.1 Array Iterator

The array iterator encapsulates many of the key features in ufuncs, allowing user code to support features like output parameters, preservation of memory layouts, and buffering of data with the wrong alignment or type, without requiring difficult coding.

This page documents the API for the iterator. The iterator is named `NpyIter` and functions are named `NpyIter_*`. There is an introductory guide to array iteration which may be of interest for those using this C API. In many instances, testing out ideas by creating the iterator in Python is a good idea before writing the C iteration code.

9.5.2 Simple Iteration Example

The best way to become familiar with the iterator is to look at its usage within the NumPy codebase itself. For example, here is a slightly tweaked version of the code for `PyArray_CountNonzero`, which counts the number of non-zero elements in an array.

```c
npy_intp PyArray_CountNonzero(PyArrayObject* self)
{
    /* Nonzero boolean function */
    PyArray_NonzeroFunc* nonzero = PyArray_DESCR(self)->f->nonzero;

    NpyIter* iter;
    NpyIter_IterNextFunc* iternext;
    char** dataptr;
    npy_intp nonzero_count;
    npy_intp* strideptr,* innersizeptr;

    /* Handle zero-sized arrays specially */
    if (PyArray_SIZE(self) == 0) {
        return 0;
    }

    /* Create and use an iterator to count the nonzeros.
     * flag NPY_ITER_READONLY
     * - The array is never written to.
     * flag NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP
     * - Inner loop is done outside the iterator for efficiency.
     * flag NPY_ITER_NPY_ITER_REFS_OK
     * - Reference types are acceptable.
     * order NPY_KEEPORDER
     * - Visit elements in memory order, regardless of strides.
     * This is good for performance when the specific order
     * elements are visited is unimportant.
     * casting NPY_NO_CASTING
     */
```
/* - No casting is required for this operation. */

iter = NpyIter_New(self, NPY_ITER_READONLY|
                   NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP|
                   NPY_ITER_REFS_OK,
                   NPY_KEEPORDER, NPY_NO_CASTING,
                   NULL);

if (iter == NULL) {
    return -1;
}

/* The iternext function gets stored in a local variable
* so it can be called repeatedly in an efficient manner. */

iternext = NpyIter_GetIterNext(iter, NULL);
if (iternext == NULL) {
    NpyIter_Deallocate(iter);
    return -1;
}

/* The location of the data pointer which the iterator may update */
dataptr = NpyIter_GetDataPtrArray(iter);
/* The location of the stride which the iterator may update */
strideptr = NpyIter_GetInnerStrideArray(iter);
/* The location of the inner loop size which the iterator may update */
innersizeptr = NpyIter_GetInnerLoopSizePtr(iter);

nonzero_count = 0;
do {
    /* Get the inner loop data/stride/count values */
    char* data = *dataptr;
npy_intp stride = *strideptr;
npy_intp count = *innersizeptr;

    /* This is a typical inner loop for NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP */
    while (count--) {
        if (nonzero(data, self)) {
            ++nonzero_count;
        }
        data += stride;
    }

    /* Increment the iterator to the next inner loop */
    while (iternext(iter));
}

NpyIter_Deallocate(iter);

return nonzero_count;
}
9.5.3 Simple Multi-Iteration Example

Here is a simple copy function using the iterator. The order parameter is used to control the memory layout of the allocated result, typically NPY_KEEPORDER is desired.

```python
PyObject *CopyArray(PyObject *arr, NPY_ORDER order)
{
    NpyIter *iter;
    NpyIter_IterNextFunc *iternext;
    PyObject *op[2], *ret;
    npy_uint32 flags;
    npy_uint32 op_flags[2];
    npy_intp itemsize, *innersizeptr, innerstride;
    char **dataptrarray;

    /********* No inner iteration - inner loop is handled by CopyArray code *********
    flags = NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP;
    /*********
    * Tell the constructor to automatically allocate the output.
    * The data type of the output will match that of the input.
    *********
    op[0] = arr;
    op[1] = NULL;
    op_flags[0] = NPY_ITER_READONLY;
    op_flags[1] = NPY_ITER_WRITEONLY | NPY_ITER_ALLOCATE;

    /*********
    * Construct the iterator *********
    iter = NpyIter_MultiNew(2, op, flags, order, NPY_NO_CASTING,
                              op_flags, NULL);
    if (iter == NULL) {
        return NULL;
    }

    /*********
    * Make a copy of the iternext function pointer and
    * a few other variables the inner loop needs.
    *********
    iternext = NpyIter_GetIterNext(iter, NULL);
    innerstride = NpyIter_GetInnerStrideArray(iter)[0];
    itemsize = NpyIter_GetDescrArray(iter)[0]->elsize;
    /*********
    * The inner loop size and data pointers may change during the
    * loop, so just cache the addresses.
    *********
    innersizeptr = NpyIter_GetInnerLoopSizePtr(iter);
    dataptrarray = NpyIter_GetDataPtrArray(iter);

    /*********
    * Note that because the iterator allocated the output,
    * it matches the iteration order and is packed tightly,
    * so we don't need to check it like the input.
    *********
    if (innerstride == itemsize) {
        do {
            memcpy(dataptrarray[1], dataptrarray[0],
                   itemsize * (*innersizeptr));
```
while (iternext(iter));
} else {
    /* For efficiency, should specialize this based on item size... */
    npy_intp i;
    do {
        npy_intp size = *innersizeptr;
        char *src = dataptrarray[0], *dst = dataptrarray[1];
        for(i = 0; i < size; i++, src += innerstride, dst += itemsize) {
            memcpy(dst, src, itemsize);
        }
    } while (iternext(iter));
}

/* Get the result from the iterator object array */
ret = NpyIter_GetOperandArray(iter)[1];
Py_INCREF(ret);

if (NpyIter_Deallocate(iter) != NPY_SUCCEED) {
    Py_DECREF(ret);
    return NULL;
}

return ret;

9.5.4 Iterator Data Types

The iterator layout is an internal detail, and user code only sees an incomplete struct.

type NpyIter
This is an opaque pointer type for the iterator. Access to its contents can only be done through the iterator API.

type NpyIter_Type
This is the type which exposes the iterator to Python. Currently, no API is exposed which provides access to the values of a Python-created iterator. If an iterator is created in Python, it must be used in Python and vice versa. Such an API will likely be created in a future version.

type NpyIter_IterNextFunc
This is a function pointer for the iteration loop, returned by NpyIter_GetIterNext.

type NpyIter_GetMultiIndexFunc
This is a function pointer for getting the current iterator multi-index, returned by NpyIter_GetGetMultiIndex.

9.5.5 Construction and Destruction

NpyIter *NpyIter_New (PyArrayObject *op, npy_uint32 flags, NPY_ORDER order, NPY_CASTING casting, PyArray_Descr *dtype)

Creates an iterator for the given numpy array object op.

Flags that may be passed in flags are any combination of the global and per-operand flags documented in NpyIter_MultiNew, except for NPY_ITER_ALLOCATE.

Any of the NPY_ORDER enum values may be passed to order. For efficient iteration, NPY_KEEPORDER is the best option, and the other orders enforce the particular iteration pattern.
Any of the **NPY_CASTING** enum values may be passed to **casting**. The values include **NPY_NO_CASTING**, **NPY_EQUIV_CASTING**, **NPY_SAFE_CASTING**, **NPY_SAME_KIND_CASTING**, and **NPY_UNSAFE_CASTING**. To allow the casts to occur, copying or buffering must also be enabled.

If **dtype** isn't NULL, then it requires that data type. If copying is allowed, it will make a temporary copy if the data is castable. If **NPY_ITER_UPDATEIFCOPY** is enabled, it will also copy the data back with another cast upon iterator destruction.

Returns NULL if there is an error, otherwise returns the allocated iterator.

To make an iterator similar to the old iterator, this should work.

```c
iter = NpyIter_New(op, NPY_ITER_READWRITE,
                   NPY_CORDER, NPY_NO_CASTING, NULL);
```

If you want to edit an array with aligned **double** code, but the order doesn't matter, you would use this.

```c
dtype = PyArray_DescrFromType(NPY_DOUBLE);
iter = NpyIter_New(op, NPY_ITER_READWRITE|
                   NPY_ITER_BUFFERED|
                   NPY_ITER_NBO|
                   NPY_ITER_ALIGNED,
                   NPY_KEEPORDER,
                   NPY_SAME_KIND_CASTING,
                   dtype);
Py_DECREF(dtype);
```

**NpyIter** *NpyIter_MultiNew* (npy_intp *nop, PyArrayObject **op, npy_uint32 *flags, NPY_ORDER order, NPY_CASTING casting, npy_uint32 *op_flags, PyArray_Descr **op_dtypes)

Creates an iterator for broadcasting the *nop* array objects provided in *op*, using regular NumPy broadcasting rules.

Any of the **NPY_ORDER** enum values may be passed to **order**. For efficient iteration, **NPY_KEEPORDER** is the best option, and the other orders enforce the particular iteration pattern. When using **NPY_KEEPORDER**, if you also want to ensure that the iteration is not reversed along an axis, you should pass the flag **NPY_ITER_DONT_NEGATE_STRIDES**.

Any of the **NPY_CASTING** enum values may be passed to **casting**. The values include **NPY_NO_CASTING**, **NPY_EQUIV_CASTING**, **NPY_SAFE_CASTING**, **NPY_SAME_KIND_CASTING**, and **NPY_UNSAFE_CASTING**. To allow the casts to occur, copying or buffering must also be enabled.

If **op_dtypes** isn't NULL, it specifies a data type or NULL for each *op[i]*.

Returns NULL if there is an error, otherwise returns the allocated iterator.

Flags that may be passed in **flags**, applying to the whole iterator, are:

- **NPY_ITER_C_INDEX**
  
  Causes the iterator to track a raveled flat index matching C order. This option cannot be used with **NPY_ITER_F_INDEX**.

- **NPY_ITER_F_INDEX**
  
  Causes the iterator to track a raveled flat index matching Fortran order. This option cannot be used with **NPY_ITER_C_INDEX**.

- **NPY_ITER_MULTI_INDEX**
  
  Causes the iterator to track a multi-index. This prevents the iterator from coalescing axes to produce bigger inner loops. If the loop is also not buffered and no index is being tracked (**NpyIter_RemoveAxis** can be called), then the iterator size can be -1 to indicate that the iterator is too large. This can happen due to complex broadcasting and will result in errors being created.
when the setting the iterator range, removing the multi index, or getting the next function. However, it is possible to remove axes again and use the iterator normally if the size is small enough after removal.

**NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP**
Causes the iterator to skip iteration of the innermost loop, requiring the user of the iterator to handle it.

This flag is incompatible with `NPY_ITER_C_INDEX`, `NPY_ITER_F_INDEX`, and `NPY_ITER_MULTI_INDEX`.

**NPY_ITER_DONT_NEGATE_STRIDES**
This only affects the iterator when `NPY_KEEPORDER` is specified for the order parameter. By default with `NPY_KEEPORDER`, the iterator reverses axes which have negative strides, so that memory is traversed in a forward direction. This disables this step. Use this flag if you want to use the underlying memory-ordering of the axes, but don't want an axis reversed. This is the behavior of `numpy.ravel(a, order='K')`, for instance.

**NPY_ITER_COMMON_DTYPE**
Causes the iterator to convert all the operands to a common data type, calculated based on the ufunc type promotion rules. Copying or buffering must be enabled.

If the common data type is known ahead of time, don't use this flag. Instead, set the requested dtype for all the operands.

**NPY_ITER_REFS_OK**
Indicates that arrays with reference types (object arrays or structured arrays containing an object type) may be accepted and used in the iterator. If this flag is enabled, the caller must be sure to check whether `NpyIter_IterationNeedsAPI(iter)` is true, in which case it may not release the GIL during iteration.

**NPY_ITER_ZEROSIZE_OK**
Indicates that arrays with a size of zero should be permitted. Since the typical iteration loop does not naturally work with zero-sized arrays, you must check that the IterSize is larger than zero before entering the iteration loop. Currently only the operands are checked, not a forced shape.

**NPY_ITER_REDUCE_OK**
Permits writeable operands with a dimension with zero stride and size greater than one. Note that such operands must be read/write.

When buffering is enabled, this also switches to a special buffering mode which reduces the loop length as necessary to not trample on values being reduced.

Note that if you want to do a reduction on an automatically allocated output, you must use `NpyIter_GetOperandArray` to get its reference, then set every value to the reduction unit before doing the iteration loop. In the case of a buffered reduction, this means you must also specify the flag `NPY_ITER_DELAY_BUFALLOC`, then reset the iterator after initializing the allocated operand to prepare the buffers.

**NPY_ITER_RANGED**
Enables support for iteration of sub-ranges of the full `iterindex range [0, NpyIter_IterSize(iter))`. Use the function `NpyIter_ResetToIterIndexRange` to specify a range for iteration.

This flag can only be used with `NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP` when `NPY_ITER_BUFFERED` is enabled. This is because without buffering, the inner loop is always the size of the innermost iteration dimension, and allowing it to get cut up would require special handling, effectively making it more like the buffered version.
NPY_ITER_BUFFERED
Causes the iterator to store buffering data, and use buffering to satisfy data type, alignment, and byte-order requirements. To buffer an operand, do not specify the NPY_ITER_COPY or NPY_ITER_UPDATEIFCOPY flags, because they will override buffering. Buffering is especially useful for Python code using the iterator, allowing for larger chunks of data at once to amortize the Python interpreter overhead.

If used with NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP, the inner loop for the caller may get larger chunks than would be possible without buffering, because of how the strides are laid out.

Note that if an operand is given the flag NPY_ITER_COPY or NPY_ITER_UPDATEIFCOPY, a copy will be made in preference to buffering. Buffering will still occur when the array was broadcast so elements need to be duplicated to get a constant stride.

In normal buffering, the size of each inner loop is equal to the buffer size, or possibly larger if NPY_ITER_GROWINNER is specified. If NPY_ITER_REDUCE_OK is enabled and a reduction occurs, the inner loops may become smaller depending on the structure of the reduction.

NPY_ITER_GROWINNER
When buffering is enabled, this allows the size of the inner loop to grow when buffering isn’t necessary. This option is best used if you’re doing a straight pass through all the data, rather than anything with small cache-friendly arrays of temporary values for each inner loop.

NPY_ITER_DELAY_BUFALLOC
When buffering is enabled, this delays allocation of the buffers until NpyIter_Reset or another reset function is called. This flag exists to avoid wasteful copying of buffer data when making multiple copies of a buffered iterator for multi-threaded iteration.

Another use of this flag is for setting up reduction operations. After the iterator is created, and a reduction output is allocated automatically by the iterator (be sure to use READWRITE access), its value may be initialized to the reduction unit. Use NpyIter_GetOperandArray to get the object. Then, call NpyIter_Reset to allocate and fill the buffers with their initial values.

NPY_ITER_COPY_IF_OVERLAP
If any write operand has overlap with any read operand, eliminate all overlap by making temporary copies (enabling UPDATEIFCOPY for write operands, if necessary). A pair of operands has overlap if there is a memory address that contains data common to both arrays.

Because exact overlap detection has exponential runtime in the number of dimensions, the decision is made based on heuristics, which has false positives (needless copies in unusual cases) but has no false negatives.

If any read/write overlap exists, this flag ensures the result of the operation is the same as if all operands were copied. In cases where copies would need to be made, the result of the computation may be undefined without this flag!

Flags that may be passed in op_flags[i], where 0 <= i < nop:

NPY_ITER_READWRITE
NPY_ITER_READONLY
NPY_ITER_WRITEONLY
Indicate how the user of the iterator will read or write to op[i]. Exactly one of these flags must be specified per operand. Using NPY_ITER_READWRITE or NPY_ITER_WRITEONLY for a user-provided operand may trigger WRITEBACKIFCOPY’ semantics. The data will be written back to the original array when NpyIter_Deallocate is called.

NPY_ITER_COPY
Allow a copy of op[i] to be made if it does not meet the data type or alignment requirements as specified by the constructor flags and parameters.
NPY_ITER_UPDATEIFCOPY
Triggers NPY_ITER_COPY, and when an array operand is flagged for writing and is copied, causes the data in a copy to be copied back to op[i] when NpyIter_Deallocate is called.

If the operand is flagged as write-only and a copy is needed, an uninitialized temporary array will be created and then copied back to op[i] on calling NpyIter_Deallocate, instead of doing the unnecessary copy operation.

NPY_ITER_NBO

NPY_ITER_ALIGNED

NPY_ITER_CONTIG
Causes the iterator to provide data for op[i] that is in native byte order, aligned according to the dtype requirements, contiguous, or any combination.

By default, the iterator produces pointers into the arrays provided, which may be aligned or unaligned, and with any byte order. If copying or buffering is not enabled and the operand data doesn’t satisfy the constraints, an error will be raised.

The contiguous constraint applies only to the inner loop, successive inner loops may have arbitrary pointer changes.

If the requested data type is in non-native byte order, the NBO flag overrides it and the requested data type is converted to be in native byte order.

NPY_ITER_ALLOCATE
This is for output arrays, and requires that the flag NPY_ITER_WRITEONLY or NPY_ITER_READWRITE be set. If op[i] is NULL, creates a new array with the final broadcast dimensions, and a layout matching the iteration order of the iterator.

When op[i] is NULL, the requested data type op_dtypes[i] may be NULL as well, in which case it is automatically generated from the dtypes of the arrays which are flagged as readable. The rules for generating the dtype are the same as for UFuncs. Of special note is handling of byte order in the selected dtype. If there is exactly one input, the input’s dtype is used as is. Otherwise, if more than one input dtypes are combined together, the output will be in native byte order.

After being allocated with this flag, the caller may retrieve the new array by calling NpyIter_GetOperandArray and getting the i-th object in the returned C array. The caller must call Py_INCREF on it to claim a reference to the array.

NPY_ITER_NO_SUBTYPE
For use with NPY_ITER_ALLOCATE, this flag disables allocating an array subtype for the output, forcing it to be a straight ndarray.

TODO: Maybe it would be better to introduce a function NpyIter_GetWrappedOutput and remove this flag?

NPY_ITER_NO_BROADCAST
Ensures that the input or output matches the iteration dimensions exactly.

NPY_ITER_ARRAYMASK
New in version 1.7.

Indicates that this operand is the mask to use for selecting elements when writing to operands which have the NPY_ITER_WRITEMASKED flag applied to them. Only one operand may have NPY_ITER_ARRAYMASK flag applied to it.

The data type of an operand with this flag should be either NPY_BOOL, NPY_MASK, or a struct dtype whose fields are all valid mask dtypes. In the latter case, it must match up with a struct operand being WRITEMASKED, as it is specifying a mask for each field of that array.
This flag only affects writing from the buffer back to the array. This means that if the operand is also `NPY_ITER_READWRITE` or `NPY_ITER_WRITEONLY`, code doing iteration can write to this operand to control which elements will be untouched and which ones will be modified. This is useful when the mask should be a combination of input masks.

**NPY_ITER_WRITEMASKED**

New in version 1.7.

This array is the mask for all `writemasked` operands. Code uses the `writemasked` flag which indicates that only elements where the chosen ARRAYMASK operand is True will be written to. In general, the iterator does not enforce this, it is up to the code doing the iteration to follow that promise.

When `writemasked` flag is used, and this operand is buffered, this changes how data is copied from the buffer into the array. A masked copying routine is used, which only copies the elements in the buffer for which `writemasked` returns true from the corresponding element in the ARRAYMASK operand.

**NPY_ITER_OVERLAP_ASSUME_ELEMENTWISE**

In memory overlap checks, assume that operands with `NPY_ITER_OVERLAP_ASSUME_ELEMENTWISE` enabled are accessed only in the iterator order. This enables the iterator to reason about data dependency, possibly avoiding unnecessary copies.

This flag has effect only if `NPY_ITER_COPY_IF_OVERLAP` is enabled on the iterator.

```
NpyIter *NpyIter_AdvancedNew (npy_intp n, PyArrayObject **op, NPY_UINT32 flags, NPY_ORDER order,
   NPY_CASTING casting, npy_uint32 *op_flags, PyArray_Descr **op_dtypes, int
   oa_ndim, int **op_axes, npy_intp const *itershape, npy_intp buffersize)
```

Extends `NpyIter_MultiNew` with several advanced options providing more control over broadcasting and buffering.

If -1/NULL values are passed to `oa_ndim`, `op_axes`, `itershape`, and `buffersize`, it is equivalent to `NpyIter_MultiNew`.

The parameter `oa_ndim`, when not zero or -1, specifies the number of dimensions that will be iterated with customized broadcasting. If it is provided, `op_axes` must and `itershape` can also be provided. The `op_axes` parameter let you control in detail how the axes of the operand arrays get matched together and iterated. In `op_axes`, you must provide an array of `n` pointers to `oa_ndim`-sized arrays of type `npy_intp`. If an entry in `op_axes` is NULL, normal broadcasting rules will apply. In `op_axes[j][i]` is stored either a valid axis of `op[j]`, or -1 which means `newaxis`. Within each `op_axes[j]` array, axes may not be repeated. The following example is how normal broadcasting applies to a 3-D array, a 2-D array, a 1-D array and a scalar.

**Note:** Before NumPy 1.8 `oa_ndim == 0` was used for signalling that that `op_axes` and `itershape` are unused. This is deprecated and should be replaced with -1. Better backward compatibility may be achieved by using `NpyIter_MultiNew` for this case.

```
int oa_ndim = 3;  /* # iteration axes */
int op0_axes[] = {0, 1, 2};  /* 3-D operand */
int op1_axes[] = {-1, 0, 1};  /* 2-D operand */
int op2_axes[] = {-1, -1, 0};  /* 1-D operand */
int op3_axes[] = {-1, -1, -1}  /* 0-D (scalar) operand */
int* op_axes[] = {op0_axes, op1_axes, op2_axes, op3_axes};
```

The `itershape` parameter allows you to force the iterator to have a specific iteration shape. It is an array of length `oa_ndim`. When an entry is negative, its value is determined from the operands. This parameter allows automatically allocated outputs to get additional dimensions which don’t match up with any dimension of an input.

If `buffersize` is zero, a default buffer size is used, otherwise it specifies how big of a buffer to use. Buffers which are powers of 2 such as 4096 or 8192 are recommended.
Returns NULL if there is an error, otherwise returns the allocated iterator.

\textit{NpyIter *NpyIter\_Copy (NpyIter *iter)}

Makes a copy of the given iterator. This function is provided primarily to enable multi-threaded iteration of the data.

\textit{TODO:} Move this to a section about multithreaded iteration.

The recommended approach to multithreaded iteration is to first create an iterator with the flags \texttt{NPY\_ITER\_EXTERNAL\_LOOP}, \texttt{NPY\_ITER\_RANGED}, \texttt{NPY\_ITER\_BUFFERED}, \texttt{NPY\_ITER\_DELAY\_BUFALLOC}, and possibly \texttt{NPY\_ITER\_GROWINNER}. Create a copy of this iterator for each thread (minus one for the first iterator). Then, take the iteration index range \([0, \text{NpyIter\_GetIterSize(iter)})\) and split it up into tasks, for example using a TBB parallel_for loop. When a thread gets a task to execute, it then uses its copy of the iterator by calling \textit{NpyIter\_ResetToIterIndexRange} and iterating over the full range.

When using the iterator in multi-threaded code or in code not holding the Python GIL, care must be taken to only call functions which are safe in that context. \textit{NpyIter\_Copy} cannot be safely called without the Python GIL, because it increments Python references. The \textit{Reset*} and some other functions may be safely called by passing in the \texttt{errmsg} parameter as non-NULL, so that the functions will pass back errors through it instead of setting a Python exception.

\textit{NpyIter\_Deallocate} must be called for each copy.

\textbf{int NpyIter\_RemoveAxis (NpyIter *iter, int axis)}

Removes an axis from iteration. This requires that \texttt{NPY\_ITER\_MULTI\_INDEX} was set for iterator creation, and does not work if buffering is enabled or an index is being tracked. This function also resets the iterator to its initial state.

This is useful for setting up an accumulation loop, for example. The iterator can first be created with all the dimensions, including the accumulation axis, so that the output gets created correctly. Then, the accumulation axis can be removed, and the calculation done in a nested fashion.

\textbf{WARNING:} This function may change the internal memory layout of the iterator. Any cached functions or pointers from the iterator must be retrieved again! The iterator range will be reset as well.

Returns \texttt{NPY\_SUCCEED} or \texttt{NPY\_FAIL}.

\textbf{int NpyIter\_RemoveMultiIndex (NpyIter *iter)}

If the iterator is tracking a multi-index, this strips support for them, and does further iterator optimizations that are possible if multi-indices are not needed. This function also resets the iterator to its initial state.

\textbf{WARNING:} This function may change the internal memory layout of the iterator. Any cached functions or pointers from the iterator must be retrieved again!

After calling this function, \textit{NpyIter\_HasMultiIndex(iter)} will return false.

Returns \texttt{NPY\_SUCCEED} or \texttt{NPY\_FAIL}.

\textbf{int NpyIter\_EnableExternalLoop (NpyIter *iter)}

If \textit{NpyIter\_RemoveMultiIndex} was called, you may want to enable the flag \texttt{NPY\_ITER\_EXTERNAL\_LOOP}. This flag is not permitted together with \texttt{NPY\_ITER\_MULTI\_INDEX}, so this function is provided to enable the feature after \textit{NpyIter\_RemoveMultiIndex} is called. This function also resets the iterator to its initial state.

\textbf{WARNING:} This function changes the internal logic of the iterator. Any cached functions or pointers from the iterator must be retrieved again!

Returns \texttt{NPY\_SUCCEED} or \texttt{NPY\_FAIL}.

\textbf{int NpyIter\_Deallocate (NpyIter *iter)}

Deallocates the iterator object and resolves any needed writebacks.
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

Returns NPY_SUCCEED or NPY_FAIL.

int NpyIter_Reset (NpyIter *iter, char **errmsg)

  Resets the iterator back to its initial state, at the beginning of the iteration range.

  Returns NPY_SUCCEED or NPY_FAIL. If errmsg is non-NULL, no Python exception is set when NPY_FAIL
  is returned. Instead, *errmsg is set to an error message. When errmsg is non-NULL, the function may be safely
  called without holding the Python GIL.

int NpyIter_ResetToIterIndexRange (NpyIter *iter, npy_intp istart, npy_intp iend, char **errmsg)

  Resets the iterator and restricts it to the iterindex range [istart, iend). See NpyIter_Copy for an
  explanation of how to use this for multi-threaded iteration. This requires that the flag NPY_ITER_RANGED was
  passed to the iterator constructor.

  If you want to reset both the iterindex range and the base pointers at the same time, you can do the following
  to avoid extra buffer copying (be sure to add the return code error checks when you copy this code).

  /* Set to a trivial empty range */
  NpyIter_ResetToIterIndexRange(iter, 0, 0);
  /* Set the base pointers */
  NpyIter_ResetBasePointers(iter, baseptrs);
  /* Set to the desired range */
  NpyIter_ResetToIterIndexRange(iter, istart, iend);

  Returns NPY_SUCCEED or NPY_FAIL. If errmsg is non-NULL, no Python exception is set when NPY_FAIL
  is returned. Instead, *errmsg is set to an error message. When errmsg is non-NULL, the function may be safely
  called without holding the Python GIL.

int NpyIter_ResetBasePointers (NpyIter *iter, char **baseptrs, char **errmsg)

  Resets the iterator back to its initial state, but using the values in baseptrs for the data instead of the pointers
  from the arrays being iterated. This functions is intended to be used, together with the op_axes parameter, by
  nested iteration code with two or more iterators.

  Returns NPY_SUCCEED or NPY_FAIL. If errmsg is non-NULL, no Python exception is set when NPY_FAIL
  is returned. Instead, *errmsg is set to an error message. When errmsg is non-NULL, the function may be safely
  called without holding the Python GIL.

  TODO: Move the following into a special section on nested iterators.

  Creating iterators for nested iteration requires some care. All the iterator operands must match exactly, or the calls
  to NpyIter_ResetBasePointers will be invalid. This means that automatic copies and output allocation
  should not be used haphazardly. It is possible to still use the automatic data conversion and casting features of
  the iterator by creating one of the iterators with all the conversion parameters enabled, then grabbing the allocated
  operands with the NpyIter_GetOperandArray function and passing them into the constructors for the rest
  of the iterators.

  WARNING: When creating iterators for nested iteration, the code must not use a dimension more than once in
  the different iterators. If this is done, nested iteration will produce out-of-bounds pointers during iteration.

  WARNING: When creating iterators for nested iteration, buffering can only be applied to the innermost iterator.
  If a buffered iterator is used as the source for baseptrs, it will point into a small buffer instead of the array and
  the inner iteration will be invalid.

  The pattern for using nested iterators is as follows.

  NpyIter *iter1, *iter1;
  NpyIter_IterNextFunc *iternext1, *iternext2;
  char **dataptrs1;
  /*
   *(continues on next page)
With the exact same operands, no copies allowed, and no axis in op_axes used both in iter1 and iter2. Buffering may be enabled for iter2, but not for iter1.

```c
iter1 = ...; iter2 = ...

iternext1 = NpyIter_GetIterNext(iter1);
iternext2 = NpyIter_GetIterNext(iter2);
dataptrs1 = NpyIter_GetDataPtrArray(iter1);

while (iternext1(iter1)) {
    NpyIter_ResetBasePointers(iter2, dataptrs1);
    do { /* Use the iter2 values */
        while (iternext2(iter2));
    } while (iternext1(iter1));
```

**NpyIter_GotoMultiIndex**

```
int NpyIter_GotoMultiIndex (NpyIter *iter,.npy_intp const *multi_index)
```

Adjusts the iterator to point to the ndim indices pointed to by multi_index. Returns an error if a multi-index is not being tracked, the indices are out of bounds, or inner loop iteration is disabled.

Returns NPY_SUCCEED or NPY_FAIL.

**NpyIter_GotoIndex**

```
int NpyIter_GotoIndex (NpyIter *iter, npy_intp index)
```

Adjusts the iterator to point to the index specified. If the iterator was constructed with the flag NPY_ITER_C_INDEX, index is the C-order index, and if the iterator was constructed with the flag NPY_ITER_F_INDEX, index is the Fortran-order index. Returns an error if there is no index being tracked, the index is out of bounds, or inner loop iteration is disabled.

Returns NPY_SUCCEED or NPY_FAIL.

**NpyIter_GetIterSize**

```
npy_intp NpyIter_GetIterSize (NpyIter *iter)
```

Returns the number of elements being iterated. This is the product of all the dimensions in the shape. When a multi index is being tracked (and NpyIter_RemoveAxis may be called) the size may be -1 to indicate an iterator is too large. Such an iterator is invalid, but may become valid after NpyIter_RemoveAxis is called. It is not necessary to check for this case.

**NpyIter_GetIterIndex**

```
npy_intp NpyIter_GetIterIndex (NpyIter *iter)
```

Gets the iterindex of the iterator, which is an index matching the iteration order of the iterator.

**NpyIter_GetIterIndexRange**

```
void NpyIter_GetIterIndexRange (NpyIter *iter, npy_intp *istart, npy_intp *iend)
```

Gets the iterindex sub-range that is being iterated. If NPY_ITER_RANGED was not specified, this always returns the range [0, NpyIter_IterSize(iter)).

**NpyIter_GotoIterIndex**

```
int NpyIter_GotoIterIndex (NpyIter *iter, npy_intp iterindex)
```

Adjusts the iterator to point to the iterindex specified. The IterIndex is an index matching the iteration order of the iterator. Returns an error if the iterindex is out of bounds, buffering is enabled, or inner loop iteration is disabled.

Returns NPY_SUCCEED or NPY_FAIL.

**NpyIter_HasDelayedBufAlloc**

```
npy_bool NpyIter_HasDelayedBufAlloc (NpyIter *iter)
```

Returns 1 if the flag NPY_ITER_DELAY_BUFALLOC was passed to the iterator constructor, and no call to one of the Reset functions has been done yet, 0 otherwise.

**NpyIter_HasExternalLoop**

```
npy_bool NpyIter_HasExternalLoop (NpyIter *iter)
```

Returns 1 if the caller needs to handle the inner-most 1-dimensional loop, or 0 if the iterator handles all looping. This is controlled by the constructor flag NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP or NpyIter_EnableExternalLoop.
npy_bool NpyIter_HasMultiIndex (NpyIter *iter)
   Returns 1 if the iterator was created with the NPY_ITER_MULTI_INDEX flag, 0 otherwise.

npy_bool NpyIter_HasIndex (NpyIter *iter)
   Returns 1 if the iterator was created with the NPY_ITER_C_INDEX or NPY_ITER_F_INDEX flag, 0 otherwise.

npy_bool NpyIter_RequiresBuffering (NpyIter *iter)
   Returns 1 if the iterator requires buffering, which occurs when an operand needs conversion or alignment and so
   cannot be used directly.

npy_bool NpyIter_IsBuffered (NpyIter *iter)
   Returns 1 if the iterator was created with the NPY_ITER_BUFFERED flag, 0 otherwise.

npy_bool NpyIter_IsGrowInner (NpyIter *iter)
   Returns 1 if the iterator was created with the NPY_ITER_GROWINNER flag, 0 otherwise.

npy_intp NpyIter_GetBufferSize (NpyIter *iter)
   If the iterator is buffered, returns the size of the buffer being used, otherwise returns 0.

int NpyIter_GetNDim (NpyIter *iter)
   Returns the number of dimensions being iterated. If a multi-index was not requested in the iterator constructor,
   this value may be smaller than the number of dimensions in the original objects.

int NpyIter_GetNOp (NpyIter *iter)
   Returns the number of operands in the iterator.

npy_intp *NpyIter_GetAxisStrideArray (NpyIter *iter, int axis)
   Gets the array of strides for the specified axis. Requires that the iterator be tracking a multi-index, and that buffering
   not be enabled.

   This may be used when you want to match up operand axes in some fashion, then remove them with
   NpyIter_RemoveAxis to handle their processing manually. By calling this function before removing the
   axes, you can get the strides for the manual processing.

   Returns NULL on error.

int NpyIter_GetShape (NpyIter *iter, npy_intp *outshape)
   Returns the broadcast shape of the iterator in outshape. This can only be called on an iterator which is tracking
   a multi-index.

   Returns NPY_SUCCEED or NPY_FAIL.

PyArray_Descr **NpyIter_GetDescrArray (NpyIter *iter)
   This gives back a pointer to the nop data type Descrs for the objects being iterated. The result points into iter,
   so the caller does not gain any references to the Descrs.

   This pointer may be cached before the iteration loop, calling iternext will not change it.

PyObject **NpyIter_GetOperandArray (NpyIter *iter)
   This gives back a pointer to the nop operand PyObjects that are being iterated. The result points into iter, so
   the caller does not gain any references to the PyObjects.

PyObject *NpyIter_GetIterView (NpyIter *iter, npy_intp i)
   This gives back a reference to a new ndarray view, which is a view into the i-th object in the array
   NpyIter_GetOperandArray, whose dimensions and strides match the internal optimized iteration pattern.
   A C-order iteration of this view is equivalent to the iterator’s iteration order.

   For example, if an iterator was created with a single array as its input, and it was possible to rearrange all its axes
   and then collapse it into a single strided iteration, this would return a view that is a one-dimensional array.

void NpyIter_GetReadFlags (NpyIter *iter, char *outreadflags)
   Fills nop flags. Sets outreadflags[i] to 1 if op[i] can be read from, and to 0 if not.

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void **NpyIter_GetWriteFlags (NpyIter *iter, char *outwriteflags)

Fills nop flags. Sets outwriteflags[i] to 1 if op[i] can be written to, and to 0 if not.

int NpyIter_CreateCompatibleStrides (NpyIter *iter, npy_intp itemsize, npy_intp *outstrides)

Builds a set of strides which are the same as the strides of an output array created using the
NPY_ITER_ALLOCATE flag, where NULL was passed for op_axes. This is for data packed contiguously,
but not necessarily in C or Fortran order. This should be used together with NpyIter_GetShape and
NpyIter_GetNDim with the flag NPY_ITER_MULTI_INDEX passed into the constructor.

A use case for this function is to match the shape and layout of the iterator and tack on one or more dimensions.
For example, in order to generate a vector per input value for a numerical gradient, you pass in ndim*itemsize for
itemsize, then add another dimension to the end with size ndim and stride itemsize. To do the Hessian matrix, you
do the same thing but add two dimensions, or take advantage of the symmetry and pack it into 1 dimension with a
particular encoding.

This function may only be called if the iterator is tracking a multi-index and if
NPY_ITER_DONT_NEGATE_STRIDES was used to prevent an axis from being iterated in reverse order.

If an array is created with this method, simply adding ‘itemsize’ for each iteration will traverse the new array
matching the iterator.

Returns NPY_SUCCEED or NPY_FAIL.

npy_bool NpyIter_IsFirstVisit (NpyIter *iter, int iop)

New in version 1.7.

Checks to see whether this is the first time the elements of the specified reduction operand which the iterator points
at are being seen for the first time. The function returns a reasonable answer for reduction operands and when
buffering is disabled. The answer may be incorrect for buffered non-reduction operands.

This function is intended to be used in EXTERNAL_LOOP mode only, and will produce some wrong answers
when that mode is not enabled.

If this function returns true, the caller should also check the inner loop stride of the operand, because if that stride
is 0, then only the first element of the innermost external loop is being visited for the first time.

WARNING: For performance reasons, ‘iop’ is not bounds-checked, it is not confirmed that ‘iop’ is actually a reduction
operand, and it is not confirmed that EXTERNAL_LOOP mode is enabled. These checks are the responsibility of
the caller, and should be done outside of any inner loops.

### 9.5.6 Functions For Iteration

NpyIter_IterNextFunc **NpyIter_GetIterNext (NpyIter *iter, char **errmsg)

Returns a function pointer for iteration. A specialized version of the function pointer may be calculated by this
function instead of being stored in the iterator structure. Thus, to get good performance, it is required that the
function pointer be saved in a variable rather than retrieved for each loop iteration.

Returns NULL if there is an error. If errmsg is non-NULL, no Python exception is set when NPY_FAIL is
returned. Instead, *errmsg is set to an error message. When errmsg is non-NULL, the function may be safely
called without holding the Python GIL.

The typical looping construct is as follows.

```c
NpyIter_IterNextFunc *iternext = NpyIter_GetIterNext(iter, NULL);
char** dataptr = NpyIter_GetDataPtrArray(iter);

do {
    /* use the addresses dataptr[0], ... dataptr[nop-1] */
} while(iternext(iter));
```
When `NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP` is specified, the typical inner loop construct is as follows.

```c
NpyIter_IterNextFunc *iternext = NpyIter_GetIterNext(iter, NULL);
char ** datapr = NpyIter_GetDataPtrArray(iter);
npy_intp * stride = NpyIter_GetInnerStrideArray(iter);
NpyIter_ * size_ptr = NpyIter_GetInnerLoopSizePtr(iter), size;
npy_intp iop, nop = NpyIter_GetNOp(iter);

do {
    size = *size_ptr;
    while (size--) {
        /* use the addresses datapr[0], ... datapr[nop-1] */
        for (iop = 0; iop < nop; ++iop) {
            datapr[iop] += stride[iop];
        }
    }
} while (iternext());
```

Observe that we are using the `dataptr` array inside the iterator, not copying the values to a local temporary. This is possible because when `iternext()` is called, these pointers will be overwritten with fresh values, not incrementally updated.

If a compile-time fixed buffer is being used (both flags `NPY_ITER_BUFFERED` and `NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP`), the inner size may be used as a signal as well. The size is guaranteed to become zero when `iternext()` returns false, enabling the following loop construct. Note that if you use this construct, you should not pass `NPY_ITER_GROWINNER` as a flag, because it will cause larger sizes under some circumstances.

```c
/* One loop with a fixed inner size */
size = *size_ptr;
while (size == FIXED_BUFFER_SIZE) {
    /* This loop could be manually unrolled by a factor
     * which divides into FIXED_BUFFER_SIZE
     */
    for (i = 0; i < FIXED_BUFFER_SIZE; ++i) {
        /* use the addresses datapr[0], ... datapr[nop-1] */
        for (iop = 0; iop < nop; ++iop) {
            datapr[iop] += stride[iop];
        }
    }
    iternext();
    size = *size_ptr;
}

/* Finish-up loop with variable inner size */
if (size > 0) do {
    size = *size_ptr;
    while (size--) {
         (continues on next page)
```
/* use the addresses dataptr[0], ... dataptr[nop-1] */

for (iop = 0; iop < nop; ++iop) {
    dataptr[iop] += stride[iop];
}
}
while (iternext());

NpyIter_GetMultiIndexFunc *NpyIter_GetMultiIndex (NpyIter *iter, char **errmsg)
Returns a function pointer for getting the current multi-index of the iterator. Returns NULL if the iterator is not tracking a multi-index. It is recommended that this function pointer be cached in a local variable before the iteration loop.

Returns NULL if there is an error. If errmsg is non-NULL, no Python exception is set when NPY_FAIL is returned. Instead, *errmsg is set to an error message. When errmsg is non-NULL, the function may be safely called without holding the Python GIL.

char **NpyIter_GetDataPtrArray (NpyIter *iter)
This gives back a pointer to the nop data pointers. If NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP was not specified, each data pointer points to the current data item of the iterator. If no inner iteration was specified, it points to the first data item of the inner loop.

This pointer may be cached before the iteration loop, calling iternext will not change it. This function may be safely called without holding the Python GIL.

char **NpyIter_GetInitialDataPtrArray (NpyIter *iter)
Gets the array of data pointers directly into the arrays (never into the buffers), corresponding to iteration index 0.

These pointers are different from the pointers accepted by NpyIter_ResetBasePointers, because the direction along some axes may have been reversed.

This function may be safely called without holding the Python GIL.

npy_intp *NpyIter_GetIndexPtr (NpyIter *iter)
This gives back a pointer to the index being tracked, or NULL if no index is being tracked. It is only useable if one of the flags NPY_ITER_C_INDEX or NPY_ITER_F_INDEX were specified during construction.

When the flag NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP is used, the code needs to know the parameters for doing the inner loop. These functions provide that information.

npy_intp *NpyIter_GetInnerStrideArray (NpyIter *iter)
Returns a pointer to an array of the nop strides, one for each iterated object, to be used by the inner loop.

This pointer may be cached before the iteration loop, calling iternext will not change it. This function may be safely called without holding the Python GIL.

WARNING: While the pointer may be cached, its values may change if the iterator is buffered.

npy_intp *NpyIter_GetInnerLoopSizePtr (NpyIter *iter)
Returns a pointer to the number of iterations the inner loop should execute.

This address may be cached before the iteration loop, calling iternext will not change it. The value itself may change during iteration, in particular if buffering is enabled. This function may be safely called without holding the Python GIL.

void NpyIter_GetInnerFixedStrideArray (NpyIter *iter, npy_intp *out_strides)
Gets an array of strides which are fixed, or will not change during the entire iteration. For strides that may change, the value NPY_MAX_INTP is placed in the stride.

Once the iterator is prepared for iteration (after a reset if NPY_ITER_DELAY_BUFALLOC was used), call this to get the strides which may be used to select a fast inner loop function. For example, if the stride is 0, that means the
inner loop can always load its value into a variable once, then use the variable throughout the loop, or if the stride equals the itemsize, a contiguous version for that operand may be used.

This function may be safely called without holding the Python GIL.

## 9.5.7 Converting from Previous NumPy Iterators

The old iterator API includes functions like PyArrayIter_Check, PyArray_Iter* and PyArray_ITER_* . The multi-iterator array includes PyArray_MultiIter*, PyArray_Broadcast, and PyArray_RemoveSmallest. The new iterator design replaces all of this functionality with a single object and associated API. One goal of the new API is that all uses of the existing iterator should be replaceable with the new iterator without significant effort. In 1.6, the major exception to this is the neighborhood iterator, which does not have corresponding features in this iterator.

Here is a conversion table for which functions to use with the new iterator:

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<th>Description</th>
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<td>NpyIter_New</td>
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<td>NpyIter_New + axes parameter or Iterator flag NPY_ITER_EXTERNAL_LOOP</td>
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<td>PyArray_BroadcastToShape</td>
<td>NOT SUPPORTED (Use the support for multiple operands instead.)</td>
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<tr>
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### 9.6 UFunc API

#### 9.6.1 Constants

UFUNC_ERR_ {HANDLER}:

- UFUNC_ERR_IGNORE
- UFUNC_ERR_WARN
- UFUNC_ERR_RAISE
UFUNC_ERR_CALL
UFUNC_{THING}_{ERR}
    UFUNC_MASK_DIVIDEBYZERO
    UFUNC_MASK_OVERFLOW
    UFUNC_MASK_UNDERFLOW
    UFUNC_MASK_INVALID
    UFUNC_SHIFT_DIVIDEBYZERO
    UFUNC_SHIFT_OVERFLOW
    UFUNC_SHIFT_UNDERFLOW
    UFUNC_SHIFT_INVALID
    UFUNC_FPE_DIVIDEBYZERO
    UFUNC_FPE_OVERFLOW
    UFUNC_FPE_UNDERFLOW
    UFUNC_FPE_INVALID
PyUFunc_{VALUE}
    PyUFunc_One
    PyUFunc_Zero
    PyUFunc_MinusOne
    PyUFunc_ReorderableNone
    PyUFunc_None
    PyUFunc_IdentityValue

9.6.2 Macros

NPY_LOOP_BEGIN_THREADS
    Used in universal function code to only release the Python GIL if loop->obj is not true (i.e. this is not an OBJECT array loop). Requires use of NPY_BEGIN_THREADS_DEF in variable declaration area.

NPY_LOOP_END_THREADS
    Used in universal function code to re-acquire the Python GIL if it was released (because loop->obj was not true).

9.6.3 Types

type PyUFuncGenericFunction
    pointers to functions that actually implement the underlying (element-by-element) function \(N\) times with the following signature:

    \[\text{void loopfunc (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *data)}\]

    An array of pointers to the actual data for the input and output arrays. The input arguments are given first followed by the output arguments.

    \[\text{dimensions}\]
A pointer to the size of the dimension over which this function is looping.

steps
A pointer to the number of bytes to jump to get to the next element in this dimension for each of the input and output arguments.

data
Arbitrary data (extra arguments, function names, etc.) that can be stored with the ufunc and will be passed in when it is called.

This is an example of a func specialized for addition of doubles returning doubles.

```
static void
double_add(char **args,
    npy_intp const *dimensions,
    npy_intp const *steps,
    void *extra)
{
    npy_intp i;
    npy_intp is1 = steps[0], is2 = steps[1];
    npy_intp os = steps[2], n = dimensions[0];
    char *i1 = args[0], *i2 = args[1], *op = args[2];
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        *(double *)op = *(double *)i1 + *(double *)i2;
        i1 += is1;
        i2 += is2;
        op += os;
    }
}
```

### 9.6.4 Functions

**PyObject */PyUFunc_FromFuncAndData(PyUFuncGenericFunction *func, void **data, char *types, int ntypes, int nin, int nout, int identity, char *name, char *doc, int unused)

Create a new broadcasting universal function from required variables. Each ufunc builds around the notion of an element-by-element operation. Each ufunc object contains pointers to 1-d loops implementing the basic functionality for each supported type.

**Note:** The `func`, `data`, `types`, `name`, and `doc` arguments are not copied by `PyUFunc_FromFuncAndData`. The caller must ensure that the memory used by these arrays is not freed as long as the ufunc object is alive.

**Parameters**

- **func** – Must to an array of length `ntypes` containing `PyUFuncGenericFunction` items.
- **data** – Should be NULL or a pointer to an array of size `ntypes`. This array may contain arbitrary extra-data to be passed to the corresponding loop function in the func array.
- **types** – Length `(nin + nout) * ntypes` array of char encoding the `numpy.dtype.num` (built-in only) that the corresponding function in the `func` array accepts. For instance, for a comparison ufunc with three `ntypes`, two `nin` and one `nout`, where the
first function accepts `numpy.int32` and the second `numpy.int64`, with both returning `numpy.bool_`. Types would be `(char[]) {5, 5, 0, 7, 7, 0}` since NPY_INT32 is 5, NPY_INT64 is 7, and NPY_BOOL is 0.

The bit-width names can also be used (e.g. `NPY_INT32, NPY_COMPLEX128`) if desired.

Casting Rules will be used at runtime to find the first func callable by the input/output provided.

- **ntypes** – How many different data-type-specific functions the ufunc has implemented.
- **nin** – The number of inputs to this operation.
- **nout** – The number of outputs
- **identity** – Either `PyUFunc_One`, `PyUFunc_Zero`, `PyUFunc_MinusOne`, or `PyUFunc_None`. This specifies what should be returned when an empty array is passed to the reduce method of the ufunc. The special value `PyUFunc_IdentityValue` may only be used with the `PyUFunc_FromFuncAndDataAndSignatureAndIdentity` method, to allow an arbitrary python object to be used as the identity.
- **name** – The name for the ufunc as a NULL terminated string. Specifying a name of 'add' or 'multiply' enables a special behavior for integer-typed reductions when no dtype is given. If the input type is an integer (or boolean) data type smaller than the size of the `numpy.int_` data type, it will be internally upcast to the `numpy.int_` (or `numpy.uint`) data type.
- **doc** – Allows passing in a documentation string to be stored with the ufunc. The documentation string should not contain the name of the function or the calling signature as that will be dynamically determined from the object and available when accessing the `__doc__` attribute of the ufunc.
- **unused** – Unused and present for backwards compatibility of the C-API.

```c
PyObject *PyUFunc_FromFuncAndDataAndSignature
  (PyUFuncGenericFunction *func, void **data, char
   *types, int ntypes, int nin, int nout, int identity, char
   *name, char *doc, int unused, char *signature)
```

This function is very similar to `PyUFunc_FromFuncAndData` above, but has an extra `signature` argument, to define a **generalized universal functions**. Similarly to how ufuncs are built around an element-by-element operation, gufuncs are around subarray-by-subarray operations, the `signature` defining the subarrays to operate on.

**Parameters**

- **signature** – The signature for the new gufunc. Setting it to NULL is equivalent to calling `PyUFunc_FromFuncAndData`. A copy of the string is made, so the passed in buffer can be freed.

```c
PyObject *PyUFunc_FromFuncAndDataAndSignatureAndIdentity
  (PyUFuncGenericFunction *func, void **data, char *types, int ntypes, int nin, int nout, int identity, char
   *name, char *doc, int unused, char *signature, PyObject
   *identity_value)
```

This function is very similar to `PyUFunc_FromFuncAndDataAndSignature` above, but has an extra `identity_value` argument, to define an arbitrary identity for the ufunc when `identity` is passed as `PyUFunc_IdentityValue`.

**Parameters**


• `identity_value` – The identity for the new ufunc. Must be passed as `NULL` unless the identity argument is `PyUFunc_IdentityValue`. Setting it to `NULL` is equivalent to calling `PyUFunc_RegisterLoopForType`.

```c
int PyUFunc_RegisterLoopForType (PyUFuncObject *ufunc, int usertype, PyUFuncGenericFunction function, int *arg_types, void *data)
```

This function allows the user to register a 1-d loop with an already-created ufunc to be used whenever the ufunc is called with any of its input arguments as the user-defined data-type. This is needed in order to make ufuncs work with built-in data-types. The data-type must have been previously registered with the numpy system. The loop is passed in as `function`. This loop can take arbitrary data which should be passed in as `data`. The data-types the loop requires are passed in as `arg_types` which must be a pointer to memory at least as large as `ufunc->nargs`.

```c
int PyUFunc_RegisterLoopForDescr (PyUFuncObject *ufunc, PyArray_Descr *dtype, PyUFuncGenericFunction function, PyArray_Descr **arg_dtypes, void *data)
```

This function behaves like `PyUFunc_RegisterLoopForType` above, except that it allows the user to register a 1-d loop using `PyArray_Descr` objects instead of `dtype` type num values. This allows a 1-d loop to be registered for structured array data-dtypes and custom data-types instead of scalar data-types.

```c
int PyUFunc_ReplaceLoopBySignature (PyUFuncObject *ufunc, PyUFuncGenericFunction newfunc, int *signature, PyUFuncGenericFunction *oldfunc)
```

Replace a 1-d loop matching the given `signature` in the already-created `ufunc` with the new 1-d loop `newfunc`. Return the old 1-d loop function in `oldfunc`. Return 0 on success and -1 on failure. This function works only with built-in types (use `PyUFunc_RegisterLoopForType` for user-defined types). A signature is an array of data-type numbers indicating the inputs followed by the outputs assumed by the 1-d loop.

```c
int PyUFunc_checkfperr (int errmask, PyObject *errobj)
```

A simple interface to the IEEE error-flag checking support. The `errmask` argument is a mask of `UFUNC_MASK_{ERR}` bitmasks indicating which errors to check for (and how to check for them). The `errobj` must be a Python tuple with two elements: a string containing the name which will be used in any communication of error and either a callable Python object (call-back function) or `Py_None`. The callable object will only be used if `UFUNC_ERR_CALL` is set as the desired error checking method. This routine manages the GIL and is safe to call even after releasing the GIL. If an error in the IEEE-compatible hardware is determined a -1 is returned, otherwise a 0 is returned.

```c
void PyUFunc_clearfperr ()
```

Clear the IEEE error flags.

```c
void PyUFunc_GetPyValues (char *name, int *bufsize, int *errmask, PyObject **errobj)
```

Get the Python values used for ufunc processing from the thread-local storage area unless the defaults have been set in which case the name lookup is bypassed. The name is placed as a string in the first element of `*errobj`. The second element is the looked-up function to call on error callback. The value of the looked-up buffer-size to use is passed into `bufsize`, and the value of the error mask is placed into `errmask`.

### 9.6.5 Generic functions

At the core of every ufunc is a collection of type-specific functions that defines the basic functionality for each of the supported types. These functions must evaluate the underlying function $N \geq 1$ times. Extra-data may be passed in that may be used during the calculation. This feature allows some general functions to be used as these basic looping functions. The general function has all the code needed to point variables to the right place and set up a function call. The general function assumes that the actual function to call is passed in as the extra data and calls it with the correct values. All of these functions are suitable for placing directly in the array of functions stored in the functions member of the PyUFuncObject structure.

```c
void PyUFunc_f_f_As_d_d (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)
```
void PyUFunc_d_d (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_f_f (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_g_g (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_F_F_As_D_D (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_F_F (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_D_D (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_G_G (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_e_e (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_e_e_As_f_f (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_e_e_As_d_d (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

Type specific, core 1-d functions for ufuncs where each calculation is obtained by calling a function taking one input argument and returning one output. This function is passed in func. The letters correspond to dtypechar's of the supported data types (e - half, f - float, d - double, g - long double, F - cfloat, D - cdouble, G - clongdouble). The argument func must support the same signature. The _As_X_X variants assume ndarrays of one data type but cast the values to use an underlying function that takes a different data type. Thus, PyUFunc_f_f_As_d_d uses ndarrays of data type NPY_FLOAT but calls out to a C-function that takes double and returns double.

void PyUFunc_ff_f_As_dd_d (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_ff_f (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_dd_d (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_gg_g (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_FF_F_As_DD_D (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_DD_D (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_FF_F (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_GG_G (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void PyUFunc_ee_e (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)
void **PyUFunc_ee_e_As_ff_f (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void **PyUFunc_ee_e_As_dd_d (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)
    Type specific, core 1-d functions for ufuncs where each calculation is obtained by calling a function taking two input arguments and returning one output. The underlying function to call is passed in as func. The letters correspond to dtypechar's of the specific data type supported by the general-purpose function. The argument func must support the corresponding signature. The _As_XX_X variants assume ndarrays of one data type but cast the values at each iteration of the loop to use the underlying function that takes a different data type.

void **PyUFunc_O_O (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)

void **PyUFunc_OO_O (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)
    One-input, one-output, and two-input, one-output core 1-d functions for the NPY_OBJECT data type. These functions handle reference count issues and return early on error. The actual function to call is func and it must accept calls with the signature (PyObject*) (PyObject*) for PyUFunc_O_O or (PyObject*)(PyObject*) for PyUFunc_OO_O.

void **PyUFunc_O_O_method (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)
    This general purpose 1-d core function assumes that func is a string representing a method of the input object. For each iteration of the loop, the Python object is extracted from the array and its func method is called returning the result to the output array.

void **PyUFunc_OO_O_method (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)
    This general purpose 1-d core function assumes that func is a string representing a method of the input object that takes one argument. The first argument in args is the method whose function is called, the second argument in args is the argument passed to the function. The output of the function is stored in the third entry of args.

void **PyUFunc_On_Om (char **args, npy_intp const *dimensions, npy_intp const *steps, void *func)
    This is the 1-d core function used by the dynamic ufuncs created by umath.frompyfunc(function, nin, nout). In this case func is a pointer to a PyUFunc_PyFuncData structure which has definition

    typedef struct {
        int nin;
        int nout;
        PyObject * callable;
    } PyUFunc_PyFuncData;

At each iteration of the loop, the nin input objects are extracted from their object arrays and placed into an argument tuple, the Python callable is called with the input arguments, and the nout outputs are placed into their object arrays.

### 9.6.6 Importing the API

**PY_UFUNC_UNIQUE_SYMBOL**

**NO_IMPORT_UFUNC**

void **import_ufunc (void)

These are the constants and functions for accessing the ufunc C-API from extension modules in precisely the same way as the array C-API can be accessed. The import_ufunc () function must always be called (in the initialization subroutine of the extension module). If your extension module is in one file then that is all that is required. The other two constants are useful if your extension module makes use of multiple files. In that case, define **PY_UFUNC_UNIQUE_SYMBOL** to something unique to your code and then in source files that do not contain the
module initialization function but still need access to the UFUNC API, define `PY_UFUNC_UNIQUE_SYMBOL` to
the same name used previously and also define `NO_IMPORT_UFUNC`.

The C-API is actually an array of function pointers. This array is created (and pointed to by a global variable) by
import_ufunc. The global variable is either statically defined or allowed to be seen by other files depending on the
state of `PY_UFUNC_UNIQUE_SYMBOL` and `NO_IMPORT_UFUNC`.

9.7 Generalized Universal Function API

There is a general need for looping over not only functions on scalars but also over functions on vectors (or arrays). This
concept is realized in NumPy by generalizing the universal functions (ufuncs). In regular ufuncs, the elementary function is
limited to element-by-element operations, whereas the generalized version (gufuncs) supports “sub-array” by “sub-array”
operations. The Perl vector library PDL provides a similar functionality and its terms are re-used in the following.

Each generalized ufunc has information associated with it that states what the “core” dimensionality of the inputs is, as
well as the corresponding dimensionality of the outputs (the element-wise ufuncs have zero core dimensions). The list
of the core dimensions for all arguments is called the “signature” of a ufunc. For example, the ufunc numpy.add has
signature `()`, `()->()` defining two scalar inputs and one scalar output.

Another example is the function `inner1d(a, b)` with a signature of `(i), (i)->()`. This applies the inner product
along the last axis of each input, but keeps the remaining indices intact. For example, where `a` is of shape `(3, 5, N)` and
`b` is of shape `(5, N)`, this will return an output of shape `(3,5)`. The underlying elementary function is called
3 * 5 times. In the signature, we specify one core dimension `(i)` for each input and zero core dimensions `()` for
the output, since it takes two 1-d arrays and returns a scalar. By using the same name `i`, we specify that the two corresponding
dimensions should be of the same size.

The dimensions beyond the core dimensions are called “loop” dimensions. In the above example, this corresponds to `(3, 5).

The signature determines how the dimensions of each input/output array are split into core and loop dimensions:

1. Each dimension in the signature is matched to a dimension of the corresponding passed-in array, starting from the
   end of the shape tuple. These are the core dimensions, and they must be present in the arrays, or an error will be
   raised.

2. Core dimensions assigned to the same label in the signature (e.g. the `i` in `inner1d's (i), (i)->()`) must have
   exactly matching sizes, no broadcasting is performed.

3. The core dimensions are removed from all inputs and the remaining dimensions are broadcast together, defining
   the loop dimensions.

4. The shape of each output is determined from the loop dimensions plus the output's core dimensions

Typically, the size of all core dimensions in an output will be determined by the size of a core dimension with the same
label in an input array. This is not a requirement, and it is possible to define a signature where a label comes up for the
first time in an output, although some precautions must be taken when calling such a function. An example would be
the function `euclidean_pdist(a)`, with signature `(n,d)->(p)`, that given an array of `n d`-dimensional vectors,
computes all unique pairwise Euclidean distances among them. The output dimension `p` must therefore be equal to `n`
* `(n - 1) / 2`, but it is the caller's responsibility to pass in an output array of the right size. If the size of a core
dimension of an output cannot be determined from a passed in input or output array, an error will be raised.

Note: Prior to NumPy 1.10.0, less strict checks were in place: missing core dimensions were created by prepending 1's
to the shape as necessary, core dimensions with the same label were broadcast together, and undetermined dimensions
were created with size 1.
9.7.1 Definitions

Elementary Function
Each ufunc consists of an elementary function that performs the most basic operation on the smallest portion of array arguments (e.g. adding two numbers is the most basic operation in adding two arrays). The ufunc applies the elementary function multiple times on different parts of the arrays. The input/output of elementary functions can be vectors; e.g., the elementary function of inner1d takes two vectors as input.

Signature
A signature is a string describing the input/output dimensions of the elementary function of a ufunc. See section below for more details.

Core Dimension
The dimensionality of each input/output of an elementary function is defined by its core dimensions (zero core dimensions correspond to a scalar input/output). The core dimensions are mapped to the last dimensions of the input/output arrays.

Dimension Name
A dimension name represents a core dimension in the signature. Different dimensions may share a name, indicating that they are of the same size.

Dimension Index
A dimension index is an integer representing a dimension name. It enumerates the dimension names according to the order of the first occurrence of each name in the signature.

9.7.2 Details of Signature
The signature defines “core” dimensionality of input and output variables, and thereby also defines the contraction of the dimensions. The signature is represented by a string of the following format:

- Core dimensions of each input or output array are represented by a list of dimension names in parentheses, (i_1, ..., i_N); a scalar input/output is denoted by (). Instead of i_1, i_2, etc, one can use any valid Python variable name.
- Dimension lists for different arguments are separated by ",". Input/output arguments are separated by "->".
- If one uses the same dimension name in multiple locations, this enforces the same size of the corresponding dimensions.

The formal syntax of signatures is as follows:

```
<Signature> ::= <Input arguments> "->" <Output arguments>
<Input arguments> ::= <Argument list>
<Output arguments> ::= <Argument list>
<Argument list> ::= nil | <Argument> | <Argument> "," <Argument list>
<Argument> ::= "(" <Core dimension list> ")"
<Core dimension list> ::= nil | <Core dimension> | <Core dimension list>
<Core dimension> ::= <Dimension name> <Dimension modifier>
<Dimension name> ::= valid Python variable name | valid integer
<Dimension modifier> ::= nil | "?"
```

Notes:
1. All quotes are for clarity.
2. Unmodified core dimensions that share the same name must have the same size. Each dimension name typically corresponds to one level of looping in the elementary function’s implementation.

3. White spaces are ignored.

4. An integer as a dimension name freezes that dimension to the value.

5. If the name is suffixed with the “?” modifier, the dimension is a core dimension only if it exists on all inputs and outputs that share it; otherwise it is ignored (and replaced by a dimension of size 1 for the elementary function).

Here are some examples of signatures:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>name</th>
<th>signature</th>
<th>common usage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>add</td>
<td>() , () -&gt; ()</td>
<td>binary ufunc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sum1d</td>
<td>() -&gt; ()</td>
<td>reduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inner1d</td>
<td>() , () -&gt; ()</td>
<td>vector-vector multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matmat</td>
<td>(m, n) , (n, p) -&gt; (m, p)</td>
<td>matrix multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vecmat</td>
<td>(n) , (n, p) -&gt; (p)</td>
<td>vector-matrix multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matvec</td>
<td>(m, n) , (n) -&gt; (m)</td>
<td>matrix-vector multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matmul</td>
<td>(m?, n) , (n, p?) -&gt; (m?, p?)</td>
<td>combination of the four above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outer_inner</td>
<td>(i, t) , (j, t) -&gt; (i, j)</td>
<td>inner over the last dimension, outer over the second to last, and loop/broadcast over the rest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross1d</td>
<td>(3) , (3) -&gt; (3)</td>
<td>cross product where the last dimension is frozen and must be 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last is an instance of freezing a core dimension and can be used to improve ufunc performance.

### 9.7.3 C-API for implementing Elementary Functions

The current interface remains unchanged, and `PyUFunc_FromFuncAndData` can still be used to implement (specialized) ufuncs, consisting of scalar elementary functions.

One can use `PyUFunc_FromFuncAndDataAndSignature` to declare a more general ufunc. The argument list is the same as `PyUFunc_FromFuncAndData`, with an additional argument specifying the signature as C string.

Furthermore, the callback function is of the same type as before, `void (*foo)(char **args, intp *dimensions, intp *steps, void *func)`. When invoked, `args` is a list of length `nargs` containing the data of all input/output arguments. For a scalar elementary function, `steps` is also of length `nargs`, denoting the strides used for the arguments. `dimensions` is a pointer to a single integer defining the size of the axis to be looped over.

For a non-trivial signature, `dimensions` will also contain the sizes of the core dimensions as well, starting at the second entry. Only one size is provided for each unique dimension name and the sizes are given according to the first occurrence of a dimension name in the signature.

The first `nargs` elements of `steps` remain the same as for scalar ufuncs. The following elements contain the strides of all core dimensions for all arguments in order.

For example, consider a ufunc with signature `(i, j) , (i) -> ()`. In this case, `args` will contain three pointers to the data of the input/output arrays `a`, `b`, `c`. Furthermore, `dimensions` will be `[N, I, J]` to define the size of `N` of the loop and the sizes `I` and `J` for the core dimensions `i` and `j`. Finally, `steps` will be `[a_N, b_N, c_N, a_i, a_j, b_i]`, containing all necessary strides.
9.8 NumPy core libraries

New in version 1.3.0.

Starting from numpy 1.3.0, we are working on separating the pure C, “computational” code from the python dependent code. The goal is twofolds: making the code cleaner, and enabling code reuse by other extensions outside numpy (scipy, etc...).

9.8.1 NumPy core math library

The numpy core math library (‘npymath’) is a first step in this direction. This library contains most math-related C99 functionality, which can be used on platforms where C99 is not well supported. The core math functions have the same API as the C99 ones, except for the npy_* prefix.

The available functions are defined in <numpy/npy_math.h> - please refer to this header when in doubt.

Floating point classification

NPY_NAN
This macro is defined to a NaN (Not a Number), and is guaranteed to have the signbit unset (‘positive’ NaN). The corresponding single and extension precision macro are available with the suffix F and L.

NPY_INFINITY
This macro is defined to a positive inf. The corresponding single and extension precision macro are available with the suffix F and L.

NPY_PZERO
This macro is defined to positive zero. The corresponding single and extension precision macro are available with the suffix F and L.

NPY_NZERO
This macro is defined to negative zero (that is with the sign bit set). The corresponding single and extension precision macro are available with the suffix F and L.

npy_isnan(x)
This is a macro, and is equivalent to C99 isnan: works for single, double and extended precision, and return a non 0 value is x is a NaN.

npy_isfinite(x)
This is a macro, and is equivalent to C99 isfinite: works for single, double and extended precision, and return a non 0 value is x is neither a NaN nor an infinity.

npy_isinf(x)
This is a macro, and is equivalent to C99 isinf: works for single, double and extended precision, and return a non 0 value is x is infinite (positive and negative).

npy_signbit(x)
This is a macro, and is equivalent to C99 signbit: works for single, double and extended precision, and return a non 0 value is x has the signbit set (that is the number is negative).

npy_copysign(x, y)
This is a function equivalent to C99 copysign: return x with the same sign as y. Works for any value, including inf and nan. Single and extended precisions are available with suffix f and l.

New in version 1.4.0.
Useful math constants

The following math constants are available in `npy_math.h`. Single and extended precision are also available by adding the `f` and `l` suffixes respectively.

- **NPY_E**
  - Base of natural logarithm \( e \)

- **NPY_LOG2E**
  - Logarithm to base 2 of the Euler constant \( \frac{\ln(e)}{\ln(2)} \)

- **NPY_LOG10E**
  - Logarithm to base 10 of the Euler constant \( \frac{\ln(e)}{\ln(10)} \)

- **NPY_LOGE2**
  - Natural logarithm of 2 \( \ln(2) \)

- **NPY_LOGE10**
  - Natural logarithm of 10 \( \ln(10) \)

- **NPY_PI**
  - \( \pi \)

- **NPY_PI_2**
  - \( \pi \) divided by 2 \( \frac{\pi}{2} \)

- **NPY_PI_4**
  - \( \pi \) divided by 4 \( \frac{\pi}{4} \)

- **NPY_1_PI**
  - Reciprocal of \( \pi \) \( \frac{1}{\pi} \)

- **NPY_2_PI**
  - Two times the reciprocal of \( \pi \) \( \frac{2}{\pi} \)

- **NPY_EULER**
  - The Euler constant
    \[
    \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k} - \ln(n) \right)
    \]

Low-level floating point manipulation

Those can be useful for precise floating point comparison.

- **double npy_nextafter** (double x, double y)
  - This is a function equivalent to C99 `nextafter`: return next representable floating point value from x in the direction of y. Single and extended precisions are available with suffix f and l.
  - New in version 1.4.0.

- **double npy_spacing** (double x)
  - This is a function equivalent to Fortran intrinsic. Return distance between x and next representable floating point value from x, e.g. `spacing(1) == eps`. spacing of nan and +/- inf return nan. Single and extended precisions are available with suffix f and l.
  - New in version 1.4.0.

- **void npy_set_floatstatus_divbyzero**()
  - Set the divide by zero floating point exception
  - New in version 1.6.0.
void `npy_set_floatstatus_overflow()`
Set the overflow floating point exception
New in version 1.6.0.

void `npy_set_floatstatus_underflow()`
Set the underflow floating point exception
New in version 1.6.0.

void `npy_set_floatstatus_invalid()`
Set the invalid floating point exception
New in version 1.6.0.

int `npy_get_floatstatus()`
Get floating point status. Returns a bitmask with following possible flags:

- NPY_FPE_DIVIDEBYZERO
- NPY_FPE_OVERFLOW
- NPY_FPE_UNDERFLOW
- NPY_FPE_INVALID

Note that `npy_get_floatstatus_barrier` is preferable as it prevents aggressive compiler optimizations reordering the call relative to the code setting the status, which could lead to incorrect results.
New in version 1.9.0.

int `npy_get_floatstatus_barrier(char*)`
Get floating point status. A pointer to a local variable is passed in to prevent aggressive compiler optimizations from reordering this function call relative to the code setting the status, which could lead to incorrect results.

Returns a bitmask with following possible flags:

- NPY_FPE_DIVIDEBYZERO
- NPY_FPE_OVERFLOW
- NPY_FPE_UNDERFLOW
- NPY_FPE_INVALID

New in version 1.15.0.

int `npy_clear_floatstatus()`
Clears the floating point status. Returns the previous status mask.

Note that `npy_clear_floatstatus_barrier` is preferable as it prevents aggressive compiler optimizations reordering the call relative to the code setting the status, which could lead to incorrect results.
New in version 1.9.0.

int `npy_clear_floatstatus_barrier(char*)`
Clears the floating point status. A pointer to a local variable is passed in to prevent aggressive compiler optimizations from reordering this function call. Returns the previous status mask.
New in version 1.15.0.
Complex functions

New in version 1.4.0.

C99-like complex functions have been added. Those can be used if you wish to implement portable C extensions. Since we still support platforms without C99 complex type, you need to restrict to C90-compatible syntax, e.g.:

```c
/* a = 1 + 2i */
npy_complex a = npy_cpack(1, 2);
npy_complex b;

b = npy_log(a);
```

Linking against the core math library in an extension

New in version 1.4.0.

To use the core math library in your own extension, you need to add the npymath compile and link options to your extension in your setup.py:

```python
>>> from numpy.distutils.misc_util import get_info
>>> info = get_info('npymath')
>>> _ = config.add_extension('foo', sources=['foo.c'], extra_info=info)
```

In other words, the usage of info is exactly the same as when using blas_info and co.

Half-precision functions

New in version 1.6.0.

The header file `<numpy/halffloat.h>` provides functions to work with IEEE 754-2008 16-bit floating point values. While this format is not typically used for numerical computations, it is useful for storing values which require floating point but do not need much precision. It can also be used as an educational tool to understand the nature of floating point round-off error.

Like for other types, NumPy includes a typedef `npy_half` for the 16 bit float. Unlike for most of the other types, you cannot use this as a normal type in C, since it is a typedef for `npy_uint16`. For example, `1.0` looks like `0x3c00` to C, and if you do an equality comparison between the different signed zeros, you will get `-0.0 != 0.0` (`0x8000 != 0x0000`), which is incorrect.

For these reasons, NumPy provides an API to work with `npy_half` values accessible by including `<numpy/halffloat.h>` and linking to ‘npymath’. For functions that are not provided directly, such as the arithmetic operations, the preferred method is to convert to float or double and back again, as in the following example.

```c
npy_half sum(int n, npy_half *array) {  
  float ret = 0;
  while(n--) {  
    ret += npy_half_to_float(*array++);
  }
  return npy_float_to_half(ret);
}
```

External Links:

• OpenGL Half Float Pixel Support
• The OpenEXR image format.

**NPY_HALF_ZERO**
This macro is defined to positive zero.

**NPY_HALF_PZERO**
This macro is defined to positive zero.

**NPY_HALF_NZERO**
This macro is defined to negative zero.

**NPY_HALF_ONE**
This macro is defined to 1.0.

**NPY_HALF_NEGONE**
This macro is defined to -1.0.

**NPY_HALF_PINF**
This macro is defined to +inf.

**NPY_HALF_NINF**
This macro is defined to -inf.

**NPY_HALF_NAN**
This macro is defined to a NaN value, guaranteed to have its sign bit unset.

```c
float npy_half_to_float (npy_half h)
    Converts a half-precision float to a single-precision float.

double npy_half_to_double (npy_half h)
    Converts a half-precision float to a double-precision float.
```

```c
npy_half npy_float_to_half (float f)
    Converts a single-precision float to a half-precision float. The value is rounded to the nearest representable half, with ties going to the nearest even. If the value is too small or too big, the system’s floating point underflow or overflow bit will be set.
```

```c
npy_half npy_double_to_half (double d)
    Converts a double-precision float to a half-precision float. The value is rounded to the nearest representable half, with ties going to the nearest even. If the value is too small or too big, the system’s floating point underflow or overflow bit will be set.
```

```c
int npy_half_eq (npy_half h1, npy_half h2)
    Compares two half-precision floats (h1 == h2).

int npy_half_ne (npy_half h1, npy_half h2)
    Compares two half-precision floats (h1 != h2).

int npy_half_le (npy_half h1, npy_half h2)
    Compares two half-precision floats (h1 <= h2).

int npy_half_lt (npy_half h1, npy_half h2)
    Compares two half-precision floats (h1 < h2).

int npy_half_ge (npy_half h1, npy_half h2)
    Compares two half-precision floats (h1 >= h2).

int npy_half_gt (npy_half h1, npy_half h2)
    Compares two half-precision floats (h1 > h2).
```
int npy_half_eq_nonan (npy_half h1, npy_half h2)
    Compares two half-precision floats that are known to not be NaN (h1 == h2). If a value is NaN, the result is
    undefined.

int npy_half_lt_nonan (npy_half h1, npy_half h2)
    Compares two half-precision floats that are known to not be NaN (h1 < h2). If a value is NaN, the result is
    undefined.

int npy_half_le_nonan (npy_half h1, npy_half h2)
    Compares two half-precision floats that are known to not be NaN (h1 <= h2). If a value is NaN, the result is
    undefined.

int npy_half_iszero (npy_half h)
    Tests whether the half-precision float has a value equal to zero. This may be slightly faster than calling
    npy_half_eq(h, NPY_ZERO).

int npy_half_isnan (npy_half h)
    Tests whether the half-precision float is a NaN.

int npy_half_isinf (npy_half h)
    Tests whether the half-precision float is plus or minus Inf.

int npy_half_isfinite (npy_half h)
    Tests whether the half-precision float is finite (not NaN or Inf).

int npy_half_signbit (npy_half h)
    Returns 1 if h is negative, 0 otherwise.

npy_half npy_half_copysign (npy_half x, npy_half y)
    Returns the value of x with the sign bit copied from y. Works for any value, including Inf and NaN.

npy_half npy_half_spacing (npy_half h)
    This is the same for half-precision float as npy_spacing and npy_spacingf described in the low-level floating-point
    section.

npy_half npy_half_nextafter (npy_half x, npy_half y)
    This is the same for half-precision float as npy_nextafter and npy_nextafterf described in the low-level floating-point
    section.

npy_uint16 npy_floatbits_to_halfbits (npy_uint32 f)
    Low-level function which converts a 32-bit single-precision float, stored as a uint32, into a 16-bit half-precision
    float.

npy_uint16 npy_doublebits_to_halfbits (npy_uint64 d)
    Low-level function which converts a 64-bit double-precision float, stored as a uint64, into a 16-bit half-precision
    float.

npy_uint32 npy_halfbits_to_floatbits (npy_uint16 h)
    Low-level function which converts a 16-bit half-precision float into a 32-bit single-precision float, stored as a uint32.

npy_uint64 npy_halfbits_to_doublebits (npy_uint16 h)
    Low-level function which converts a 16-bit half-precision float into a 64-bit double-precision float, stored as a uint64.
9.9 C API Deprecations

9.9.1 Background

The API exposed by NumPy for third-party extensions has grown over years of releases, and has allowed programmers to directly access NumPy functionality from C. This API can be best described as “organic”. It has emerged from multiple competing desires and from multiple points of view over the years, strongly influenced by the desire to make it easy for users to move to NumPy from Numeric and Numarray. The core API originated with Numeric in 1995 and there are patterns such as the heavy use of macros written to mimic Python’s C-API as well as account for compiler technology of the late 90’s. There is also only a small group of volunteers who have had very little time to spend on improving this API.

There is an ongoing effort to improve the API. It is important in this effort to ensure that code that compiles for NumPy 1.X continues to compile for NumPy 1.X. At the same time, certain API’s will be marked as deprecated so that future-looking code can avoid these API’s and follow better practices.

Another important role played by deprecation markings in the C API is to move towards hiding internal details of the NumPy implementation. For those needing direct, easy, access to the data of ndarrays, this will not remove this ability. Rather, there are many potential performance optimizations which require changing the implementation details, and NumPy developers have been unable to try them because of the high value of preserving ABI compatibility. By deprecating this direct access, we will in the future be able to improve NumPy’s performance in ways we cannot presently.

9.9.2 Deprecation Mechanism NPY_NO_DEPRECATED_API

In C, there is no equivalent to the deprecation warnings that Python supports. One way to do deprecations is to flag them in the documentation and release notes, then remove or change the deprecated features in a future major version (NumPy 2.0 and beyond). Minor versions of NumPy should not have major C-API changes, however, that prevent code that worked on a previous minor release. For example, we will do our best to ensure that code that compiled and worked on NumPy 1.4 should continue to work on NumPy 1.7 (but perhaps with compiler warnings).

To use the NPY_NO_DEPRECATED_API mechanism, you need to #define it to the target API version of NumPy before #including any NumPy headers. If you want to confirm that your code is clean against 1.7, use:

```
#define NPY_NO_DEPRECATED_API NPY_1_7_API_VERSION
```

On compilers which support a #warning mechanism, NumPy issues a compiler warning if you do not define the symbol NPY_NO_DEPRECATED_API. This way, the fact that there are deprecations will be flagged for third-party developers who may not have read the release notes closely.
CHAPTER TEN

NUMPY INTERNALS

10.1 NumPy C Code Explanations

Fanaticism consists of redoubling your efforts when you have forgotten your aim. — George Santayana

An authority is a person who can tell you more about something than you really care to know. — Unknown

This Chapter attempts to explain the logic behind some of the new pieces of code. The purpose behind these explanations is to enable somebody to be able to understand the ideas behind the implementation somewhat more easily than just staring at the code. Perhaps in this way, the algorithms can be improved on, borrowed from, and/or optimized by more people.

10.1.1 Memory model

One fundamental aspect of the ndarray is that an array is seen as a “chunk” of memory starting at some location. The interpretation of this memory depends on the stride information. For each dimension in an \(N\) -dimensional array, an integer (stride) dictates how many bytes must be skipped to get to the next element in that dimension. Unless you have a single-segment array, this stride information must be consulted when traversing through an array. It is not difficult to write code that accepts strides, you just have to use (char *) pointers because strides are in units of bytes. Keep in mind also that strides do not have to be unit-multiples of the element size. Also, remember that if the number of dimensions of the array is 0 (sometimes called a rank-0 array), then the strides and dimensions variables are NULL.

Besides the structural information contained in the strides and dimensions members of the PyArrayObject, the flags contain important information about how the data may be accessed. In particular, the NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED flag is set when the memory is on a suitable boundary according to the data-type array. Even if you have a contiguous chunk of memory, you cannot just assume it is safe to dereference a data- type-specific pointer to an element. Only if the NPY_ARRAY_ALIGNED flag is set is this a safe operation (on some platforms it will work but on others, like Solaris, it will cause a bus error). The NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE should also be ensured if you plan on writing to the memory area of the array. It is also possible to obtain a pointer to an unwritable memory area. Sometimes, writing to the memory area when the NPY_ARRAY_WRITEABLE flag is not set will just be rude. Other times it can cause program crashes (e.g. a data-area that is a read-only memory-mapped file).
10.1.2 Data-type encapsulation

The data-type is an important abstraction of the ndarray. Operations will look to the data-type to provide the key functionality that is needed to operate on the array. This functionality is provided in the list of function pointers pointed to by the ‘f’ member of the PyArray_Descr structure. In this way, the number of data-types can be extended simply by providing a PyArray_Descr structure with suitable function pointers in the ‘f’ member. For built-in types there are some optimizations that bypass this mechanism, but the point of the data-type abstraction is to allow new data-types to be added.

One of the built-in data-types, the void data-type allows for arbitrary structured types containing 1 or more fields as elements of the array. A field is simply another data-type object along with an offset into the current structured type. In order to support arbitrarily nested fields, several recursive implementations of data-type access are implemented for the void type. A common idiom is to cycle through the elements of the dictionary and perform a specific operation based on the data-type object stored at the given offset. These offsets can be arbitrary numbers. Therefore, the possibility of encountering mis-aligned data must be recognized and taken into account if necessary.

10.1.3 N-D Iterators

A very common operation in much of NumPy code is the need to iterate over all the elements of a general, strided, N-dimensional array. This operation of a general-purpose N-dimensional loop is abstracted in the notion of an iterator object. To write an N-dimensional loop, you only have to create an iterator object from an ndarray, work with the dataptr member of the iterator object structure and call the macro PyArray_ITER_NEXT (it) on the iterator object to move to the next element. The “next” element is always in C-contiguous order. The macro works by first special casing the C-contiguous, 1-D, and 2-D cases which work very simply.

For the general case, the iteration works by keeping track of a list of coordinate counters in the iterator object. At each iteration, the last coordinate counter is increased (starting from 0). If this counter is smaller than one less than the size of the array in that dimension (a pre-computed and stored value), then the counter is increased and the dataptr member is increased by the strides in that dimension and the macro ends. If the end of a dimension is reached, the counter for the last dimension is reset to zero and the dataptr is moved back to the beginning of that dimension by subtracting the strides value times one less than the number of elements in that dimension (this is also pre-computed and stored in the backstrides member of the iterator object). In this case, the macro does not end, but a local dimension counter is decremented so that the next-to-last dimension replaces the role that the last dimension played and the previously-described tests are executed again on the next-to-last dimension. In this way, the dataptr is adjusted appropriately for arbitrary striding.

The coordinates member of the PyArrayIterObject structure maintains the current N-d counter unless the underlying array is C-contiguous in which case the coordinate counting is bypassed. The index member of the PyArrayIterObject keeps track of the current flat index of the iterator. It is updated by the PyArray_ITER_NEXT macro.

10.1.4 Broadcasting

In Numeric, the ancestor of NumPy, broadcasting was implemented in several lines of code buried deep in ufuncobject.c. In NumPy, the notion of broadcasting has been abstracted so that it can be performed in multiple places. Broadcasting is handled by the function PyArray_Broadcast. This function requires a PyArrayMultiIterObject (or something that is a binary equivalent) to be passed in. The PyArrayMultiIterObject keeps track of the broadcast number of dimensions and size in each dimension along with the total size of the broadcast result. It also keeps track of the number of arrays being broadcast and a pointer to an iterator for each of the arrays being broadcast.

The PyArray_Broadcast function takes the iterators that have already been defined and uses them to determine the broadcast shape in each dimension (to create the iterators at the same time that broadcasting occurs then use the PyArray_MultiIterNew function). Then, the iterators are adjusted so that each iterator thinks it is iterating over an array with the broadcast size. This is done by adjusting the iterators number of dimensions, and the shape in each
dimension. This works because the iterator strides are also adjusted. Broadcasting only adjusts (or adds) length-1 dimensions. For these dimensions, the strides variable is simply set to 0 so that the data-pointer for the iterator over that array doesn’t move as the broadcasting operation operates over the extended dimension.

Broadcasting was always implemented in Numeric using 0-valued strides for the extended dimensions. It is done in exactly the same way in NumPy. The big difference is that now the array of strides is kept track of in a `PyArrayIterObject`, the iterators involved in a broadcast result are kept track of in a `PyArrayMultiIterObject`, and the `PyArray_Broadcast` call implements the broad-casting rules.

### 10.1.5 Array Scalars

The array scalars offer a hierarchy of Python types that allow a one- to-one correspondence between the data-type stored in an array and the Python-type that is returned when an element is extracted from the array. An exception to this rule was made with object arrays. Object arrays are heterogeneous collections of arbitrary Python objects. When you select an item from an object array, you get back the original Python object (and not an object array scalar which does exist but is rarely used for practical purposes).

The array scalars also offer the same methods and attributes as arrays with the intent that the same code can be used to support arbitrary dimensions (including 0-dimensions). The array scalars are read-only (immutable) with the exception of the void scalar which can also be written to so that structured array field setting works more naturally (a[0]["f1"] = value).

### 10.1.6 Indexing

All python indexing operations `arr[index]` are organized by first preparing the index and finding the index type. The supported index types are:

- integer
- newaxis
- slice
- ellipsis
- integer arrays/array-likes (fancy)
- boolean (single boolean array); if there is more than one boolean array as index or the shape does not match exactly, the boolean array will be converted to an integer array instead.
- 0-d boolean (and also integer); 0-d boolean arrays are a special case which has to be handled in the advanced indexing code. They signal that a 0-d boolean array had to be interpreted as an integer array.

As well as the scalar array special case signaling that an integer array was interpreted as an integer index, which is important because an integer array index forces a copy but is ignored if a scalar is returned (full integer index). The prepared index is guaranteed to be valid with the exception of out of bound values and broadcasting errors for advanced indexing. This includes that an ellipsis is added for incomplete indices for example when a two dimensional array is indexed with a single integer.

The next step depends on the type of index which was found. If all dimensions are indexed with an integer a scalar is returned or set. A single boolean indexing array will call specialized boolean functions. Indices containing an ellipsis or slice but no advanced indexing will always create a view into the old array by calculating the new strides and memory offset. This view can then either be returned or, for assignments, filled using `PyArray_CopyObject`. Note that `PyArray_CopyObject` may also be called on temporary arrays in other branches to support complicated assignments when the array is of object dtype.
Advanced indexing

By far the most complex case is advanced indexing, which may or may not be combined with typical view based indexing. Here integer indices are interpreted as view based. Before trying to understand this, you may want to make yourself familiar with its subtleties. The advanced indexing code has three different branches and one special case:

- There is one indexing array and it, as well as the assignment array, can be iterated trivially. For example they may be contiguous. Also the indexing array must be of `intp` type and the value array in assignments should be of the correct type. This is purely a fast path.

- There are only integer array indices so that no subarray exists.

- View based and advanced indexing is mixed. In this case the view based indexing defines a collection of subarrays that are combined by the advanced indexing. For example, `arr[[1, 2, 3], :]` is created by vertically stacking the subarrays `arr[1, :], arr[2, :],` and `arr[3, :]`.

- There is a subarray but it has exactly one element. This case can be handled as if there is no subarray, but needs some care during setup.

Deciding what case applies, checking broadcasting, and determining the kind of transposition needed are all done in `PyArray_MapIterNew`. After setting up, there are two cases. If there is no subarray or it only has one element, no subarray iteration is necessary and an iterator is prepared which iterates all indexing arrays as well as the result or value array. If there is a subarray, there are three iterators prepared. One for the indexing arrays, one for the result or value array (minus its subarray), and one for the subarrays of the original and the result/assignment array. The first two iterators give (or allow calculation) of the pointers into the start of the subarray, which then allows to restart the subarray iteration.

When advanced indices are next to each other transposing may be necessary. All necessary transposing is handled by `PyArray_MapIterSwapAxes` and has to be handled by the caller unless `PyArray_MapIterNew` is asked to allocate the result.

After preparation, getting and setting is relatively straight forward, although the different modes of iteration need to be considered. Unless there is only a single indexing array during item getting, the validity of the indices is checked beforehand. Otherwise it is handled in the inner loop itself for optimization.

10.1.7 Universal Functions

Universal functions are callable objects that take $N$ inputs and produce $M$ outputs by wrapping basic 1-D loops that work element-by-element into full easy-to-use functions that seamlessly implement broadcasting, type-checking and buffered coercion, and output-argument handling. New universal functions are normally created in C, although there is a mechanism for creating ufuncs from Python functions (`frompyfunc`). The user must supply a 1-D loop that implements the basic function taking the input scalar values and placing the resulting scalars into the appropriate output slots as explained in implementation.

Setup

Every ufunc calculation involves some overhead related to setting up the calculation. The practical significance of this overhead is that even though the actual calculation of the ufunc is very fast, you will be able to write array and type-specific code that will work faster for small arrays than the ufunc. In particular, using ufuncs to perform many calculations on 0-D arrays will be slower than other Python-based solutions (the silently-imported scalarmath moduleExists precisely to give array scalars the look-and-feel of ufunc based calculations with significantly reduced overhead).

When a ufunc is called, many things must be done. The information collected from these setup operations is stored in a loop-object. This loop object is a C-structure (that could become a Python object but is not initialized as such because it is only used internally). This loop object has the layout needed to be used with PyArray_Broadcast so that the broadcasting can be handled in the same way as it is handled in other sections of code.
The first thing done is to look-up in the thread-specific global dictionary the current values for the buffer-size, the error mask, and the associated error object. The state of the error mask controls what happens when an error condition is found. It should be noted that checking of the hardware error flags is only performed after each 1-D loop is executed. This means that if the input and output arrays are contiguous and of the correct type so that a single 1-D loop is performed, then the flags may not be checked until all elements of the array have been calculated. Looking up these values in a thread-specific dictionary takes time which is easily ignored for all but very small arrays.

After checking, the thread-specific global variables, the inputs are evaluated to determine how the ufunc should proceed and the input and output arrays are constructed if necessary. Any inputs which are not arrays are converted to arrays (using context if necessary). Which of the inputs are scalars (and therefore converted to 0-D arrays) is noted.

Next, an appropriate 1-D loop is selected from the 1-D loops available to the ufunc based on the input array types. This 1-D loop is selected by trying to match the signature of the data-types of the inputs against the available signatures. The signatures corresponding to built-in types are stored in the types member of the ufunc structure. The signatures corresponding to user-defined types are stored in a linked-list of function-information with the head element stored as a CObject in the userloops dictionary keyed by the data-type number (the first user-defined type in the argument list is used as the key). The signatures are searched until a signature is found to which the input arrays can all be cast safely (ignoring any scalar arguments which are not allowed to determine the type of the result). The implication of this search procedure is that “lesser types” should be placed below “larger types” when the signatures are stored. If no 1-D loop is found, then an error is reported. Otherwise, the argument_list is updated with the stored signature — in case casting is necessary and to fix the output types assumed by the 1-D loop.

If the ufunc has 2 inputs and 1 output and the second input is an Object array then a special-case check is performed so that NotImplemented is returned if the second input is not an ndarray, has the __array_priority__ attribute, and has an __r{op}__ special method. In this way, Python is signaled to give the other object a chance to complete the operation instead of using generic object-array calculations. This allows (for example) sparse matrices to override the multiplication operator 1-D loop.

For input arrays that are smaller than the specified buffer size, copies are made of all non-contiguous, mis-aligned, or out-of-byteorder arrays to ensure that for small arrays, a single loop is used. Then, array iterators are created for all the input arrays and the resulting collection of iterators is broadcast to a single shape.

The output arguments (if any) are then processed and any missing return arrays are constructed. If any provided output array doesn't have the correct type (or is mis-aligned) and is smaller than the buffer size, then a new output array is constructed with the special NPY_ARRAY_WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag set. At the end of the function, PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy is called so that its contents will be copied back into the output array. Iterators for the output arguments are then processed.

Finally, the decision is made about how to execute the looping mechanism to ensure that all elements of the input arrays are combined to produce the output arrays of the correct type. The options for loop execution are one-loop (for contiguous, aligned, and correct data type), strided-loop (for non-contiguous but still aligned and correct data type), and a buffered loop (for mis-aligned or incorrect data type situations). Depending on which execution method is called for, the loop is then setup and computed.

Function call

This section describes how the basic universal function computation loop is setup and executed for each of the three different kinds of execution. If NPY_ALLOW_THREADS is defined during compilation, then as long as no object arrays are involved, the Python Global Interpreter Lock (GIL) is released prior to calling the loops. It is re-acquired if necessary to handle error conditions. The hardware error flags are checked only after the 1-D loop is completed.
One Loop

This is the simplest case of all. The ufunc is executed by calling the underlying 1-D loop exactly once. This is possible only when we have aligned data of the correct type (including byte-order) for both input and output and all arrays have uniform strides (either contiguous, 0-D, or 1-D). In this case, the 1-D computational loop is called once to compute the calculation for the entire array. Note that the hardware error flags are only checked after the entire calculation is complete.

Strided Loop

When the input and output arrays are aligned and of the correct type, but the striding is not uniform (non-contiguous and 2-D or larger), then a second looping structure is employed for the calculation. This approach converts all of the iterators for the input and output arguments to iterate over all but the largest dimension. The inner loop is then handled by the underlying 1-D computational loop. The outer loop is a standard iterator loop on the converted iterators. The hardware error flags are checked after each 1-D loop is completed.

Buffered Loop

This is the code that handles the situation whenever the input and/or output arrays are either misaligned or of the wrong data-type (including being byte-swapped) from what the underlying 1-D loop expects. The arrays are also assumed to be non-contiguous. The code works very much like the strided-loop except for the inner 1-D loop is modified so that pre-processing is performed on the inputs and post-processing is performed on the outputs in bufsize chunks (where bufsize is a user-settable parameter). The underlying 1-D computational loop is called on data that is copied over (if it needs to be). The setup code and the loop code is considerably more complicated in this case because it has to handle:

- memory allocation of the temporary buffers
- deciding whether or not to use buffers on the input and output data (mis-aligned and/or wrong data-type)
- copying and possibly casting data for any inputs or outputs for which buffers are necessary.
- special-casing Object arrays so that reference counts are properly handled when copies and/or casts are necessary.
- breaking up the inner 1-D loop into bufsize chunks (with a possible remainder).

Again, the hardware error flags are checked at the end of each 1-D loop.

Final output manipulation

Ufuncs allow other array-like classes to be passed seamlessly through the interface in that inputs of a particular class will induce the outputs to be of that same class. The mechanism by which this works is the following. If any of the inputs are not ndarrays and define the \_\_array_wrap\_\_ method, then the class with the largest \_\_array_priority\_\_ attribute determines the type of all the outputs (with the exception of any output arrays passed in). The \_\_array_wrap\_\_ method of the input array will be called with the ndarray being returned from the ufunc as it’s input. There are two calling styles of the \_\_array_wrap\_\_ function supported. The first takes the ndarray as the first argument and a tuple of “context” as the second argument. The context is (ufunc, arguments, output argument number). This is the first call tried. If a TypeError occurs, then the function is called with just the ndarray as the first argument.

Methods

There are three methods of ufuncs that require calculation similar to the general-purpose ufuncs. These are reduce, accumulate, and reduceat. Each of these methods requires a setup command followed by a loop. There are four loop styles possible for the methods corresponding to no-elements, one-element, strided-loop, and buffered-loop. These are the same basic loop styles as implemented for the general purpose function call except for the no-element and one-element cases which are special-cases occurring when the input array objects have 0 and 1 elements respectively.
Setup

The setup function for all three methods is `construct_reduce`. This function creates a reducing loop object and fills it with parameters needed to complete the loop. All of the methods only work on ufuncs that take 2-inputs and return 1 output. Therefore, the underlying 1-D loop is selected assuming a signature of \([\text{otype}, \text{otype}, \text{otype}]\) where \(\text{otype}\) is the requested reduction data-type. The buffer size and error handling is then retrieved from (per-thread) global storage. For small arrays that are mis-aligned or have incorrect data-type, a copy is made so that the un-buffered section of code is used. Then, the looping strategy is selected. If there is 1 element or 0 elements in the array, then a simple looping method is selected. If the array is not mis-aligned and has the correct data-type, then strided looping is selected. Otherwise, buffered looping must be performed. Looping parameters are then established, and the return array is constructed. The output array is of a different shape depending on whether the method is reduce, accumulate, or reduceat. If an output array is already provided, then it’s shape is checked. If the output array is not C-contiguous, aligned, and of the correct data type, then a temporary copy is made with the WRITEBACKIFCOPY flag set. In this way, the methods will be able to work with a well-behaved output array but the result will be copied back into the true output array when `PyArray_ResolveWritebackIfCopy` is called at function completion. Finally, iterators are set up to loop over the correct axis (depending on the value of axis provided to the method) and the setup routine returns to the actual computation routine.

Reduce

All of the ufunc methods use the same underlying 1-D computational loops with input and output arguments adjusted so that the appropriate reduction takes place. For example, the key to the functioning of reduce is that the 1-D loop is called with the output and the second input pointing to the same position in memory and both having a step- size of 0. The first input is pointing to the input array with a step- size given by the appropriate stride for the selected axis. In this way, the operation performed is

\[
\begin{align*}
    o & = [0] \\
    o & = o[k] \langle \text{op} \rangle o[k-1] \quad k = 1 \ldots N
\end{align*}
\]

where \(N + 1\) is the number of elements in the input, \(i\), \(o\) is the output, and \(i[k]\) is the \(k^{th}\) element of \(i\) along the selected axis. This basic operation is repeated for arrays with greater than 1 dimension so that the reduction takes place for every 1-D sub-array along the selected axis. An iterator with the selected dimension removed handles this looping.

For buffered loops, care must be taken to copy and cast data before the loop function is called because the underlying loop expects aligned data of the correct data-type (including byte-order). The buffered loop must handle this copying and casting prior to calling the loop function on chunks no greater than the user-specified bufsize.

Accumulate

The accumulate function is very similar to the reduce function in that the output and the second input both point to the output. The difference is that the second input points to memory one stride behind the current output pointer. Thus, the operation performed is

\[
\begin{align*}
    o[0] & = i[0] \\
    o[k] & = i[k] \langle \text{op} \rangle o[k-1] \quad k = 1 \ldots N.
\end{align*}
\]

The output has the same shape as the input and each 1-D loop operates over \(N\) elements when the shape in the selected axis is \(N + 1\). Again, buffered loops take care to copy and cast the data before calling the underlying 1-D computational loop.
Reduceat

The reduceat function is a generalization of both the reduce and accumulate functions. It implements a reduce over ranges of the input array specified by indices. The extra indices argument is checked to be sure that every input is not too large for the input array along the selected dimension before the loop calculations take place. The loop implementation is handled using code that is very similar to the reduce code repeated as many times as there are elements in the indices input. In particular: the first input pointer passed to the underlying 1-D computational loop points to the input array at the correct location indicated by the index array. In addition, the output pointer and the second input pointer passed to the underlying 1-D loop point to the same position in memory. The size of the 1-D computational loop is fixed to be the difference between the current index and the next index (when the current index is the last index, then the next index is assumed to be the length of the array along the selected dimension). In this way, the 1-D loop will implement a reduce over the specified indices.

Mis-aligned or a loop data-type that does not match the input and/or output data-type is handled using buffered code where-in data is copied to a temporary buffer and cast to the correct data-type if necessary prior to calling the underlying 1-D function. The temporary buffers are created in (element) sizes no bigger than the user settable buffer-size value. Thus, the loop must be flexible enough to call the underlying 1-D computational loop enough times to complete the total calculation in chunks no bigger than the buffer-size.

10.2 Memory Alignment

10.2.1 Numpy Alignment Goals

There are three use-cases related to memory alignment in numpy (as of 1.14):

1. Creating structured datatypes with fields aligned like in a C-struct.
2. Speeding up copy operations by using uint assignment in instead of memcpy
3. Guaranteeing safe aligned access for ufuncs/setitem/casting code

Numpy uses two different forms of alignment to achieve these goals: “True alignment” and “Uint alignment”.

“True” alignment refers to the architecture-dependent alignment of an equivalent C-type in C. For example, in x64 systems `numpy.float64` is equivalent to `double` in C. On most systems this has either an alignment of 4 or 8 bytes (and this can be controlled in gcc by the option `malign-double`). A variable is aligned in memory if its memory offset is a multiple of its alignment. On some systems (eg sparc) memory alignment is required, on others it gives a speedup.

“Uint” alignment depends on the size of a datatype. It is defined to be the “True alignment” of the uint used by numpy's copy-code to copy the datatype, or undefined/unaligned if there is no equivalent uint. Currently numpy uses uint8, uint16, uint32, uint64 and uint64 to copy data of size 1,2,4,8,16 bytes respectively, and all other sized datatypes cannot be uint-aligned.

For example, on a (typical linux x64 gcc) system, the numpy `complex64` datatype is implemented as `struct { float real, imag; }`. This has “true” alignment of 4 and “uint” alignment of 8 (equal to the true alignment of uint64).

Some cases where uint and true alignment are different (default gcc linux):

```
  arch type true-aln uint-aln  ------  ----- x86_64 complex64 4 8 x86_64 float128 16 8 x86 float96 4 -
```
10.2.2 Variables in Numpy which control and describe alignment

There are 4 relevant uses of the word **align** used in numpy:

- The `dtype.alignment` attribute (`descr->alignment` in C). This is meant to reflect the “true alignment” of the type. It has arch-dependent default values for all datatypes, with the exception of structured types created with **align=True** as described below.

- The `ALIGNED` flag of an ndarray, computed in `IsAligned` and checked by `PyArray_ISALIGNED`. This is computed from `dtype.alignment`. It is set to `True` if every item in the array is at a memory location consistent with `dtype.alignment`, which is the case if the data ptr and all strides of the array are multiples of that alignment.

- The `align` keyword of the dtype constructor, which only affects structured arrays. If the structure’s field offsets are not manually provided numpy determines offsets automatically. In that case, **align=True** pads the structure so that each field is “true” aligned in memory and sets `dtype.alignment` to be the largest of the field “true” alignments. This is like what C-structs usually do. Otherwise if offsets or itemsize were manually provided **align=True** simply checks that all the fields are “true” aligned and that the total itemsize is a multiple of the largest field alignment. In either case `dtype.isalignedstruct` is also set to `True`.

- **IsUintAligned** is used to determine if an ndarray is “uint aligned” in an analogous way to how `IsAligned` checks for true-alignment.

10.2.3 Consequences of alignment

Here is how the variables above are used:

1. Creating aligned structs: In order to know how to offset a field when **align=True**, numpy looks up `field.dtype.alignment`. This includes fields which are nested structured arrays.

2. Ufuncs: If the `ALIGNED` flag of an array is False, ufuncs will buffer/cast the array before evaluation. This is needed since ufunc inner loops access raw elements directly, which might fail on some archs if the elements are not true-aligned.

3. Getitem/setitem/copyswap function: Similar to ufuncs, these functions generally have two code paths. If `ALIGNED` is False they will use a code path that buffers the arguments so they are true-aligned.

4. Strided copy code: Here, “uint alignment” is used instead. If the itemsize of an array is equal to 1, 2, 4, 8 or 16 bytes and the array is uint aligned then instead numpy will do `*(uintN*)dst) = *(uintN*)src) for appropriate N. Otherwise numpy copies by doing `memcpy(dst, src, N)`.

5. Nditer code: Since this often calls the strided copy code, it must check for “uint alignment”.

6. Cast code: This checks for “true” alignment, as it does `*dst = CASTFUNC(*src)` if aligned. Otherwise, it does `memmove(srcval, src); dstval = CASTFUNC(srcval); memmove(dst, dstval)` where `dstval/srcval` are aligned.

Note that the strided-copy and strided-cast code are deeply intertwined and so any arrays being processed by them must be both uint and true aligned, even though the copy-code only needs uint alignment and the cast code only true alignment. If there is ever a big rewrite of this code it would be good to allow them to use different alignments.
10.3 Internal organization of numpy arrays

It helps to understand a bit about how numpy arrays are handled under the covers to help understand numpy better. This section will not go into great detail. Those wishing to understand the full details are referred to Travis Oliphant’s book “Guide to NumPy”.

NumPy arrays consist of two major components, the raw array data (from now on, referred to as the data buffer), and the information about the raw array data. The data buffer is typically what people think of as arrays in C or Fortran, a contiguous (and fixed) block of memory containing fixed sized data items. NumPy also contains a significant set of data that describes how to interpret the data in the data buffer. This extra information contains (among other things):

1) The basic data element’s size in bytes
2) The start of the data within the data buffer (an offset relative to the beginning of the data buffer).
3) The number of dimensions and the size of each dimension
4) The separation between elements for each dimension (the ‘stride’). This does not have to be a multiple of the element size
5) The byte order of the data (which may not be the native byte order)
6) Whether the buffer is read-only
7) Information (via the dtype object) about the interpretation of the basic data element. The basic data element may be as simple as an int or a float, or it may be a compound object (e.g., struct-like), a fixed character field, or Python object pointers.
8) Whether the array is to interpreted as C-order or Fortran-order.

This arrangement allow for very flexible use of arrays. One thing that it allows is simple changes of the metadata to change the interpretation of the array buffer. Changing the byteorder of the array is a simple change involving no rearrangement of the data. The shape of the array can be changed very easily without changing anything in the data buffer or any data copying at all.

Among other things that are made possible is one can create a new array metadata object that uses the same data buffer to create a new view of that data buffer that has a different interpretation of the buffer (e.g., different shape, offset, byte order, strides, etc) but shares the same data bytes. Many operations in numpy do just this such as slices. Other operations, such as transpose, don't move data elements around in the array, but rather change the information about the shape and strides so that the indexing of the array changes, but the data in the doesn’t move.

Typically these new versions of the array metadata but the same data buffer are new ‘views’ into the data buffer. There is a different ndarray object, but it uses the same data buffer. This is why it is necessary to force copies through use of the .copy() method if one really wants to make a new and independent copy of the data buffer.

New views into arrays mean the object reference counts for the data buffer increase. Simply doing away with the original array object will not remove the data buffer if other views of it still exist.

10.4 Multidimensional Array Indexing Order Issues

What is the right way to index multi-dimensional arrays? Before you jump to conclusions about the one and true way to index multi-dimensional arrays, it pays to understand why this is a confusing issue. This section will try to explain in detail how numpy indexing works and why we adopt the convention we do for images, and when it may be appropriate to adopt other conventions.

The first thing to understand is that there are two conflicting conventions for indexing 2-dimensional arrays. Matrix notation uses the first index to indicate which row is being selected and the second index to indicate which column is selected. This is opposite the geometrically oriented-convention for images where people generally think the first index
represents x position (i.e., column) and the second represents y position (i.e., row). This alone is the source of much confusion; matrix-oriented users and image-oriented users expect two different things with regard to indexing.

The second issue to understand is how indices correspond to the order the array is stored in memory. In Fortran the first index is the most rapidly varying index when moving through the elements of a two dimensional array as it is stored in memory. If you adopt the matrix convention for indexing, then this means the matrix is stored one column at a time (since the first index moves to the next row as it changes). Thus Fortran is considered a Column-major language. C has just the opposite convention. In C, the last index changes most rapidly as one moves through the array as stored in memory. Thus C is a Row-major language. The matrix is stored by rows. Note that in both cases it presumes that the matrix convention for indexing is being used, i.e., for both Fortran and C, the first index is the row. Note this convention implies that the indexing convention is invariant and that the data order changes to keep that so.

But that’s not the only way to look at it. Suppose one has large two-dimensional arrays (images or matrices) stored in data files. Suppose the data are stored by rows rather than by columns. If we are to preserve our index convention (whether matrix or image) that means that depending on the language we use, we may be forced to reorder the data if it is read into memory to preserve our indexing convention. For example if we read row-ordered data into memory without reordering, it will match the matrix indexing convention for C, but not for Fortran. Conversely, it will match the image indexing convention for Fortran, but not for C. For C, if one is using data stored in row order, and one wants to preserve the image index convention, the data must be reordered when reading into memory.

In the end, which you do for Fortran or C depends on which is more important, not reordering data or preserving the indexing convention. For large images, reordering data is potentially expensive, and often the indexing convention is inverted to avoid that.

The situation with numpy makes this issue yet more complicated. The internal machinery of numpy arrays is flexible enough to accept any ordering of indices. One can simply reorder indices by manipulating the internal stride information for arrays without reordering the data at all. NumPy will know how to map the new index order to the data without moving the data.

So if this is true, why not choose the index order that matches what you most expect? In particular, why not define row-ordered images to use the image convention? (This is sometimes referred to as the Fortran convention vs the C convention, thus the ‘C’ and ‘FORTRAN’ order options for array ordering in numpy.) The drawback of doing this is potential performance penalties. It’s common to access the data sequentially, either implicitly in array operations or explicitly by looping over rows of an image. When that is done, then the data will be accessed in non-optimal order. As the first index is incremented, what is actually happening is that elements spaced far apart in memory are being sequentially accessed, with usually poor memory access speeds. For example, for a two dimensional image ‘im’ defined so that im[0, 10] represents the value at x=0, y=10. To be consistent with usual Python behavior then im[0] would represent a column at x=0. Yet that data would be spread over the whole array since the data are stored in row order. Despite the flexibility of numpy’s indexing, it can’t really paper over the fact basic operations are rendered inefficient because of data order or that getting contiguous subarrays is still awkward (e.g., im[:,0] for the first row, vs im[0]), thus one can’t use an idiom such as for row in im; for col in im does work, but doesn’t yield contiguous column data.

As it turns out, numpy is smart enough when dealing with ufuncs to determine which index is the most rapidly varying one in memory and uses that for the innermost loop. Thus for ufuncs there is no large intrinsic advantage to either approach in most cases. On the other hand, use of .flat with an FORTRAN ordered array will lead to non-optimal memory access as adjacent elements in the flattened array (iterator, actually) are not contiguous in memory.

Indeed, the fact is that Python indexing on lists and other sequences naturally leads to an outside-to inside ordering (the first index gets the largest grouping, the next the next largest, and the last gets the smallest element). Since image data are normally stored by rows, this corresponds to position within rows being the last item indexed.

If you do want to use Fortran ordering realize that there are two approaches to consider: 1) accept that the first index is just not the most rapidly changing in memory and have all your I/O routines reorder your data when going from memory to disk or visa versa, or use numpy’s mechanism for mapping the first index to the most rapidly varying data. We recommend the former if possible. The disadvantage of the latter is that many of numpy’s functions will yield arrays without Fortran ordering unless you are careful to use the ‘order’ keyword. Doing this would be highly inconvenient.

Otherwise we recommend simply learning to reverse the usual order of indices when accessing elements of an array.

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Granted, it goes against the grain, but it is more in line with Python semantics and the natural order of the data.
NumPy provides a set of macros that define Universal Intrinsics to abstract out typical platform-specific intrinsics so SIMD code needs to be written only once. There are three layers:

- Code is written using the universal intrinsic macros, with guards that will enable use of the macros only when the compiler recognizes them. In NumPy, these are used to construct multiple ufunc loops. Current policy is to create three loops: One loop is the default and uses no intrinsics. One uses the minimum intrinsics required on the architecture. And the third is written using the maximum set of intrinsics possible.
- At compile time, a distutils command is used to define the minimum and maximum features to support, based on user choice and compiler support. The appropriate macros are overlayed with the platform/architecture intrinsics, and the three loops are compiled.
- At runtime import, the CPU is probed for the set of supported intrinsic features. A mechanism is used to grab the pointer to the most appropriate function, and this will be the one called for the function.

### 11.1 Build options for compilation

- **--cpu-baseline**: minimal set of required optimizations. Default value is `min` which provides the minimum CPU features that can safely run on a wide range of platforms within the processor family.
- **--cpu-dispatch**: dispatched set of additional optimizations. The default value is `max -xop -fma4` which enables all CPU features, except for AMD legacy features (in case of X86).

The command arguments are available in `build`, `build_clib`, and `build_ext`. If `build_clib` or `build_ext` are not specified by the user, the arguments of `build` will be used instead, which also holds the default values.

Optimization names can be CPU features or groups of features that gather several features or special options to perform a series of procedures.

The following tables show the current supported optimizations sorted from the lowest to the highest interest.
11.1.1 x86 - CPU feature names

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11.1.2 x86 - Group names

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<td>AVX512VNNI</td>
<td>SSE SSE2 SSE3 SSE41 POPCNT SSE42 AVX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AVX512FMA</td>
<td>F16C FMA3 AVX2 AVX512F AVX512CD AVX512_SKX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AVX512VBMI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVX512</td>
<td>AVX512VBMII2</td>
<td>SSE SSE2 SSE3 SSE41 POPCNT SSE42 AVX F16C FMA3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AVX512BITALG</td>
<td>AVX2 AVX512F AVX512CD AVX512_SKX AVX512_CLX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AVX512VPOPCNTDQ</td>
<td>AVX512_CNL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11.1.3 IBM/POWER big-endian - CPU feature names

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Implies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VSX</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSX2</td>
<td>VSX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSX3</td>
<td>VSX VSX2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11.1.4 IBM/POWER little-endian - CPU feature names

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Implies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VSX</td>
<td>VSX2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSX2</td>
<td>VSX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSX3</td>
<td>VSX VSX2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11.1.5 ARMv7/A32 - CPU feature names

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Implies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NEON</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEON_FP16</td>
<td>NEON</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEON_VFPV4</td>
<td>NEON NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIMD</td>
<td>NEON NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIMDHP</td>
<td>NEON NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIMDDP</td>
<td>NEON NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIMDFHM</td>
<td>NEON NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD ASIMDHP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11.1.6 ARMv8/A64 - CPU feature names

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Implies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NEON</td>
<td>NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEON_FP16</td>
<td>NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEON_VFPV4</td>
<td>NEON_FP16 ASIMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIMD</td>
<td>NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIMDHP</td>
<td>NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIMDDP</td>
<td>NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIMDFHM</td>
<td>NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD ASIMDHP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While the above tables are based on the GCC Compiler, the following tables showing the differences in the other compilers:

11.1.7 x86::Intel Compiler - CPU feature names

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Implies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FMA3</td>
<td>SSE SSE2 SSE3 SSE3 SSE3 SSE41 POPCNT SSE42 AVX F16C AVX2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVX2</td>
<td>SSE SSE2 SSE3 SSE3 SSE41 POPCNT SSE42 AVX F16C FMA3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVX512F</td>
<td>SSE SSE2 SSE3 SSE3 SSE41 POPCNT SSE42 AVX F16C FMA3 AVX2 AVX512CD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The following features aren’t supported by x86::Intel Compiler: XOP FMA4
11.1.8 x86::Microsoft Visual C/C++ - CPU feature names

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Implies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FMA3</td>
<td>SSE SSE2 SSE3 SSSE3 SSE41 POPCNT SSE42 AVX F16C AVX2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVX2</td>
<td>SSE SSE2 SSE3 SSSE3 SSE41 POPCNT SSE42 AVX F16C FMA3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVX512F</td>
<td>SSE SSE2 SSE3 SSSE3 SSE41 POPCNT SSE42 AVX F16C FMA3 AVX2 AVX512CD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVX512CD</td>
<td>SSE SSE2 SSE3 SSSE3 SSE41 POPCNT SSE42 AVX F16C FMA3 AVX2 AVX512F AVX512_SKX</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The following features aren’t supported by x86::Microsoft Visual C/C++: AVX512_KNL AVX512_KNM

11.1.9 Special options

- **NONE**: enable no features
- **NATIVE**: Enables all CPU features that supported by the current machine, this operation is based on the compiler flags (-march=native, -xHost, /QxHost)
- **MIN**: Enables the minimum CPU features that can safely run on a wide range of platforms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>For Arch</th>
<th>Returns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>x86</td>
<td>SSE SSE2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x86 64-bit mode</td>
<td>SSE SSE2 SSE3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM/POWER big-endian mode</td>
<td>NONE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM/POWER little-endian mode</td>
<td>VSX VSX2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARMHF</td>
<td>NONE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARM64 AARCH64</td>
<td>NEON NEON_FP16 NEON_VFPV4 ASIMD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **MAX**: Enables all supported CPU features by the Compiler and platform.
- **Operators-/+**: remove or add features, useful with options MAX, MIN and NATIVE.

11.1.10 NOTES

- CPU features and other options are case-insensitive.
- The order of the requested optimizations doesn’t matter.
- Either commas or spaces can be used as a separator, e.g. --cpu-dispatch= “avx2 avx512f” or --cpu-dispatch= “avx2, avx512f” both work, but the arguments must be enclosed in quotes.
- The operand + is only added for nominal reasons, For example: --cpu-baseline= "min avx2" is equivalent to --cpu-baseline= "min + avx2". --cpu-baseline= "min,avx2" is equivalent to --cpu-baseline= "min,+avx2"
- If the CPU feature is not supported by the user platform or compiler, it will be skipped rather than raising a fatal error.
- Any specified CPU feature to --cpu-dispatch will be skipped if it’s part of CPU baseline features
The `--cpu-baseline` argument force-enables implied features, e.g. `--cpu-baseline="sse42"` is equivalent to `--cpu-baseline="sse sse2 sse3 ssse3 sse41 popcnt sse42"`.

The value of `--cpu-baseline` will be treated as “native” if compiler native flag `-march=native` or `--QxHost` is enabled through environment variable `CFLAGS`.

The validation process for the requested optimizations when it comes to `--cpu-baseline` isn't strict. For example, if the user requested `AVX2` but the compiler doesn’t support it then we just skip it and return the maximum optimization that the compiler can handle depending on the implied features of `AVX2`, let us assume `AVX`.

The user should always check the final report through the build log to verify the enabled features.

### 11.1.11 Special cases

**Interrelated CPU features**: Some exceptional conditions force us to link some features together when it come to certain compilers or architectures, resulting in the impossibility of building them separately. These conditions can be divided into two parts, as follows:

- **Architectural compatibility**: The need to align certain CPU features that are assured to be supported by successive generations of the same architecture, for example:
  
  - On ppc64le VSX (ISA 2.06) and VSX2 (ISA 2.07) both imply one another since the first generation that supports little-endian mode is Power-8 (ISA 2.07).
  
  - On AArch64 NEON FP16 VFPV4 ASIMD implies each other since they are part of the hardware baseline.

- **Compilation compatibility**: Not all C/C++ compilers provide independent support for all CPU features. For example, Intel's compiler doesn’t provide separated flags for AVX2 and FMA3, it makes sense since all Intel CPUs that comes with AVX2 also support FMA3 and vice versa, but this approach is incompatible with other x86 CPUs from AMD or VIA. Therefore, there are differences in the depiction of CPU features between the C/C++ compilers, as shown in the tables above.

### 11.1.12 Behaviors and Errors

### 11.1.13 Usage and Examples

### 11.1.14 Report and Trace

### 11.2 Understanding CPU Dispatching, How the NumPy dispatcher works?

NumPy dispatcher is based on multi-source compiling, which means taking a certain source and compiling it multiple times with different compiler flags and also with different C definitions that affect the code paths to enable certain instruction-sets for each compiled object depending on the required optimizations, then combining the returned objects together.
This mechanism should support all compilers and it doesn’t require any compiler-specific extension, but at the same time it adds a few steps to normal compilation that are explained as follows:

### 11.2.1 1- Configuration

Configuring the required optimization by the user before starting to build the source files via the two command arguments as explained above:

- `--cpu-baseline`: minimal set of required optimizations.
- `--cpu-dispatch`: dispatched set of additional optimizations.

### 11.2.2 2- Discovering the environment

In this part, we check the compiler and platform architecture and cache some of the intermediary results to speed up rebuilding.

### 11.2.3 3- Validating the requested optimizations

By testing them against the compiler, and seeing what the compiler can support according to the requested optimizations.

### 11.2.4 4- Generating the main configuration header

The generated header `_cpu_dispatch.h` contains all the definitions and headers of instruction-sets for the required optimizations that have been validated during the previous step.

It also contains extra C definitions that are used for defining NumPy’s Python-level module attributes `__cpu_baseline__` and `__cpu_dispatch__`.

**What is in this header?**

The example header was dynamically generated by gcc on an X86 machine. The compiler supports

- `--cpu-baseline="sse sse2 sse3"` and
- `--cpu-dispatch="ssse3 sse41"`, and the result is below.

```c
// The header should be located at numpy/numpy/core/src/common/_cpu_dispatch.h
/**NOTE
 ** C definitions prefixed with "NPY_HAVE_" represent
 ** the required optimizations.
 **
 ** C definitions prefixed with 'NPY__CPU_TARGET_' are protected and
 ** shouldn't be used by any NumPy C sources.
 */
/******* baseline features *******
/** SSE **/
#define NPY_HAVE_SSE 1
#include <xmmintrin.h>
/** SSE2 **/
#define NPY_HAVE_SSE2 1
#include <emmintrin.h>
/** SSE3 **/
#define NPY_HAVE_SSE3 1
#include <pmmintrin.h>
/******* dispatch-able features *******
```

(continues on next page)
Baseline features are the minimal set of required optimizations configured via --cpu-baseline. They have no preprocessor guards and they’re always on, which means they can be used in any source.

Does this mean NumPy’s infrastructure passes the compiler’s flags of baseline features to all sources?

Definitely, yes. But the dispatch-able sources are treated differently.

What if the user specifies certain baseline features during the build but at runtime the machine doesn’t support even these features? Will the compiled code be called via one of these definitions, or maybe the compiler itself auto-generated/vectorized certain piece of code based on the provided command line compiler flags?

During the loading of the NumPy module, there’s a validation step which detects this behavior. It will raise a Python runtime error to inform the user. This is to prevent the CPU reaching an illegal instruction error causing a segfault.

Dispatch-able features are our dispatched set of additional optimizations that were configured via --cpu-dispatch. They are not activated by default and are always guarded by other C definitions prefixed with NPY__CPU_TARGET_. C definitions NPY__CPU_TARGET_ are only enabled within dispatch-able sources.

11.2.5 5- Dispatch-able sources and configuration statements

Dispatch-able sources are special C files that can be compiled multiple times with different compiler flags and also with different C definitions. These affect code paths to enable certain instruction-sets for each compiled object according to “the configuration statements” that must be declared between a C comment(/**/ ) and start with a special mark @targets at the top of each dispatch-able source. At the same time, dispatch-able sources will be treated as normal C sources if the optimization was disabled by the command argument --disable-optimization.

What are configuration statements?

Configuration statements are sort of keywords combined together to determine the required optimization for the dispatchable source.

Example:

```c
/*@targets avx2 avx512f vsx2 vsx3 asimd asimdhp */
// C code
```

The keywords mainly represent the additional optimizations configured through --cpu-dispatch, but it can also represent other options such as:

- Target groups: pre-configured configuration statements used for managing the required optimizations from outside the dispatch-able source.
- Policies: collections of options used for changing the default behaviors or forcing the compilers to perform certain things.
- “baseline”: a unique keyword represents the minimal optimizations that configured through --cpu-baseline

NumPy’s infrastructure handles dispatch-able sources in four steps:
• (A) **Recognition**: Just like source templates and F2PY, the dispatch-able sources require a special extension *.dispatch.c to mark C dispatch-able source files, and for C++ *.dispatch.cpp or *.dispatch.cxx

**NOTE**: C++ not supported yet.

• (B) **Parsing and validating**: In this step, the dispatch-able sources that had been filtered by the previous step are parsed and validated by the configuration statements for each one of them one by one in order to determine the required optimizations.

• (C) **Wrapping**: This is the approach taken by NumPy's infrastructure, which has proved to be sufficiently flexible in order to compile a single source multiple times with different C definitions and flags that affect the code paths. The process is achieved by creating a temporary C source for each required optimization that related to the additional optimization, which contains the declarations of the C definitions and includes the involved source via the C directive `#include`. For more clarification take a look at the following code for AVX512F:

```c
/*
 * this definition is used by NumPy utilities as suffixes for the
 * exported symbols
*/
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_CURRENT AVX512F
/*
 * The following definitions enable
 * definitions of the dispatch-able features that are defined within the main
 * configuration header. These are definitions for the implied features.
*/
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_SSE
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_SSE2
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_SSE3
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_SSSE3
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_SSE41
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_POPCNT
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_SSE42
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_AVX
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_F16C
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_FMA3
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_AVX2
#define NPY_CPU_TARGET_AVX512F
// our dispatch-able source
#include "the/absolute/path/of/hello.dispatch.c"
```

• (D) **Dispatch-able configuration header**: The infrastructure generates a config header for each dispatch-able source, this header mainly contains two abstract C macros used for identifying the generated objects, so they can be used for runtime dispatching certain symbols from the generated objects by any C source. It is also used for forward declarations.

The generated header takes the name of the dispatch-able source after excluding the extension and replace it with `.h`, for example assume we have a dispatch-able source called `hello.dispatch.c` and contains the following:

```c
// hello.dispatch.c
/*@targets baseline sse42 avx512f */
#include <stdio.h>
#include "numpy/utils.h" // NPY_CAT, NPY_TOSTR

#ifndef NPY_CPU_TARGET_CURRENT
// wrapping the dispatch-able source only happens to the addtional optimizations
// but if the keyword 'baseline' provided within the configuration statments,
// the infrastructure will add extra compiling for the dispatch-able source by
// passing it as-is to the compiler without any changes.
#define CURRENT_TARGET(X) X
```

(continues on next page)
```c
#define NPY__CPU_TARGET_CURRENT baseline // for printing only
#else
  // since we reach to this point, that's mean we're dealing with
  // the additional optimizations, so it could be SSE42 or AVX512F
#define CURRENT_TARGET(X) NPY_CAT(NPY_CAT(X, _), NPY__CPU_TARGET_CURRENT)
#endif
// Macro 'CURRENT_TARGET' adding the current target as suffix to the exported symbols,
// to avoid linking duplications, NumPy already has a macro called
// 'NPY_CPU_DISPATCH_CURFX' similar to it, located at
// numpy/numpy/core/src/common/npy_cpu_dispatch.h
// NOTE: we tend to not adding suffixes to the baseline exported symbols
void CURRENT_TARGET(simd_whoami)(const char *extra_info)
{
  printf("I'm " NPY_TOSTR(NPY__CPU_TARGET_CURRENT) ", %s\n", extra_info);
}
```

Now assume you attached `hello.dispatch.c` to the source tree, then the infrastructure should generate a temporary config header called `hello.dispatch.h` that can be reached by any source in the source tree, and it should contain the following code:

```c
#ifdef NPY__CPU_DISPATCH_EXPAND_
  // To expand the macro calls in this header
#define NPY__CPU_DISPATCH_EXPAND_(X) X
#endif
// Undefining the following macros, due to the possibility of including config headers
// multiple times within the same source and since each config header represents
// different required optimizations according to the specified configuration statements
// in the dispatch-able source that derived from it.
#undef NPY__CPU_DISPATCH_BASELINE_CALL
#undef NPY__CPU_DISPATCH_CALL
// nothing strange here, just a normal preprocessor callback
// enabled only if 'baseline' specified within the configuration statements
#define NPY__CPU_DISPATCH_BASELINE_CALL(CB, ...) NPY__CPU_DISPATCH_EXPAND_(CB(__VA_ARGS__))
// 'NPY__CPU_DISPATCH_CALL' is an abstract macro is used for dispatching the required optimizations that specified within the configuration statements.
// @param CHK, Expected a macro that can be used to detect CPU features
// in runtime, which takes a CPU feature name without string quotes and returns the testing result in a shape of boolean value.
// NumPy already has macro called "NPY_CPU_HAVE", which fit this requirement.
// @param CB, a callback macro that expected to be called multiple times depending on the required optimizations, the callback should receive the following arguments:
// 1- The pending calls of @param CHK filled up with the required CPU features, that need to be tested first in runtime before executing call belong to the compiled object.
// 2- The required optimization name, same as in 'NPY__CPU_TARGET_CURRENT'
// 3- Extra arguments in the macro itself
// By default the callback calls are sorted depending on the highest interest unless the policy "$keep_sort" was in place within the configuration statements
// see "Dive into the CPU dispatcher" for more clarification.
```

(continues on next page)
An example of using the config header in light of the above:

```c
// NOTE: The following macros are only defined for demonstration purposes only. // NumPy already has a collection of macros located at // numpy/numpy/core/src/common/npy_cpu_dispatch.h, that covers all dispatching // and declarations scenarios.

#include "numpy/npy_cpu_features.h" // NPY_CPU_HAVE
#include "numpy/utils.h" // NPY_CAT, NPY_EXPAND

// An example for setting a macro that calls all the exported symbols at once // after checking if they're supported by the running machine.
#define DISPATCH_CALL_ALL(FN, ARGS) 
    NPY_CPU_DISPATCH_CALL(NPY_CPU_HAVE, DISPATCH_CALL_ALL_CB, FN, ARGS) 
    NPY_CPU_DISPATCH_BASELINE_CALL(DISPATCH_CALL_BASELINE_ALL_CB, FN, ARGS)

// The preprocessor callbacks.
// The same suffixes as we define it in the dispatch-able source.
#define DISPATCH_CALL_ALL_CB(CHECK, TARGET_NAME, FN, ARGS) 
    if (CHECK) { NPY_CAT(NPY_CAT(FN, _), TARGET_NAME) ARGS; }
#define DISPATCH_CALL_BASELINE_ALL_CB(FN, ARGS) 
    FN NPY_EXPAND(ARGS);

// An example for setting a macro that calls the exported symbols of highest // interest optimization, after checking if they're supported by the running- // ning machine.
#define DISPATCH_CALL_HIGH(FN, ARGS) 
    if (0) {} 
    NPY_CPU_DISPATCH_CALL(NPY_CPU_HAVE, DISPATCH_CALL_HIGH_CB, FN, ARGS) 
    NPY_CPU_DISPATCH_BASELINE_CALL(DISPATCH_CALL_BASELINE_HIGH_CB, FN, ARGS)

// The preprocessor callbacks.
// The same suffixes as we define it in the dispatch-able source.
#define DISPATCH_CALL_HIGH_CB(CHECK, TARGET_NAME, FN, ARGS) 
    else if (CHECK) { NPY_CAT(NPY_CAT(FN, _), TARGET_NAME) ARGS; }
#define DISPATCH_CALL_BASELINE_HIGH_CB(FN, ARGS) 
    else { FN NPY_EXPAND(ARGS); }

// NumPy has a macro called 'NPY_CPU_DISPATCH_DECLARE' can be used // for forward declarations any kind of prototypes based on // 'NPY_CPU_DISPATCH_CALL' and 'NPY_CPU_DISPATCH_BASELINE_CALL'. // However in this example, we just handle it manually.
void simd_whoami(const char *extra_info);
void simd_whoami_AVX512F(const char *extra_info);
void simd_whoami_SSE41(const char *extra_info);

void trigger_me(void)
{
    // bring the auto-generated config header
    // which contains config macros 'NPY_CPU_DISPATCH_CALL' and
    // 'NPY_CPU_DISPATCH_BASELINE_CALL'.
    // it highly recomand to include the config header before exectuing
    // the dispatching macros in case if there's another header in the scope.
    #include "hello.dispatch.h"
11.3 Dive into the CPU dispatcher

11.3.1 The baseline

11.3.2 Dispatcher

11.3.3 Groups and Policies

11.3.4 Examples

11.3.5 Report and Trace
12.0.1 Introduction

The Simple Wrapper and Interface Generator (or SWIG) is a powerful tool for generating wrapper code for interfacing to a wide variety of scripting languages. SWIG can parse header files, and using only the code prototypes, create an interface to the target language. But SWIG is not omnipotent. For example, it cannot know from the prototype:

```c
double rms(double* seq, int n);
```

what exactly `seq` is. Is it a single value to be altered in-place? Is it an array, and if so what is its length? Is it input-only? Output-only? Input-output? SWIG cannot determine these details, and does not attempt to do so.

If we designed `rms`, we probably made it a routine that takes an input-only array of length `n` of double values called `seq` and returns the root mean square. The default behavior of SWIG, however, will be to create a wrapper function that compiles, but is nearly impossible to use from the scripting language in the way the C routine was intended.

For Python, the preferred way of handling contiguous (or technically, strided) blocks of homogeneous data is with NumPy, which provides full object-oriented access to multidimensional arrays of data. Therefore, the most logical Python interface for the `rms` function would be (including doc string):

```python
def rms(seq):
    ""
    rms: return the root mean square of a sequence
    rms(numpy.ndarray) -> double
    rms(list) -> double
    rms(tuple) -> double
    ""
```

where `seq` would be a NumPy array of double values, and its length `n` would be extracted from `seq` internally before being passed to the C routine. Even better, since NumPy supports construction of arrays from arbitrary Python sequences, `seq` itself could be a nearly arbitrary sequence (so long as each element can be converted to a double) and the wrapper code would internally convert it to a NumPy array before extracting its data and length.

SWIG allows these types of conversions to be defined via a mechanism called typemaps. This document provides information on how to use `numpy.i`, a SWIG interface file that defines a series of typemaps intended to make the type of array-related conversions described above relatively simple to implement. For example, suppose that the `rms` function prototype defined above was in a header file named `rms.h`. To obtain the Python interface discussed above, your SWIG interface file would need the following:

```swig
{%
#define SWIG_FILE_WITH_INIT
#include "rms.h"
%
(continues on next page)""
NumPy Reference, Release 1.21.0

(continued from previous page)

%include "numpy.i"
%init %{
import_array();
%}
%apply (double* IN_ARRAY1, int DIM1) {(double* seq, int n)};
%include "rms.h"

Typemaps are keyed off a list of one or more function arguments, either by type or by type and name. We will refer to
such lists as signatures. One of the many typemaps defined by numpy.i is used above and has the signature (double*
IN_ARRAY1, int DIM1). The argument names are intended to suggest that the double* argument is an input
array of one dimension and that the int represents the size of that dimension. This is precisely the pattern in the rms
prototype.
Most likely, no actual prototypes to be wrapped will have the argument names IN_ARRAY1 and DIM1. We use the
SWIG %apply directive to apply the typemap for one-dimensional input arrays of type double to the actual prototype
used by rms. Using numpy.i effectively, therefore, requires knowing what typemaps are available and what they do.
A SWIG interface file that includes the SWIG directives given above will produce wrapper code that looks something
like:
1 PyObject *_wrap_rms(PyObject *args) {
2
PyObject *resultobj = 0;
3
double *arg1 = (double *) 0 ;
4
int arg2 ;
5
double result;
6
PyArrayObject *array1 = NULL ;
7
int is_new_object1 = 0 ;
8
PyObject * obj0 = 0 ;
9
10
if (!PyArg_ParseTuple(args,(char *)"O:rms",&obj0)) SWIG_fail;
11
{
12
array1 = obj_to_array_contiguous_allow_conversion(
13
obj0, NPY_DOUBLE, &is_new_object1);
14
npy_intp size[1] = {
15
-1
16
};
17
if (!array1 || !require_dimensions(array1, 1) ||
18
!require_size(array1, size, 1)) SWIG_fail;
19
arg1 = (double*) array1->data;
20
arg2 = (int) array1->dimensions[0];
21
}
22
result = (double)rms(arg1,arg2);
23
resultobj = SWIG_From_double((double)(result));
24
{
25
if (is_new_object1 && array1) Py_DECREF(array1);
26
}
27
return resultobj;
28 fail:
29
{
30
if (is_new_object1 && array1) Py_DECREF(array1);
31
}
32
return NULL;
33 }

The typemaps from numpy.i are responsible for the following lines of code: 12–20, 25 and 30. Line 10 parses the

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input to the \texttt{rms} function. From the format string "O: rms", we can see that the argument list is expected to be a single Python object (specified by the \texttt{O} before the colon) and whose pointer is stored in \texttt{obj0}. A number of functions, supplied by \texttt{numpy.i}, are called to make and check the (possible) conversion from a generic Python object to a NumPy array. These functions are explained in the section \textit{Helper Functions}, but hopefully their names are self-explanatory. At line 12 we use \texttt{obj0} to construct a NumPy array. At line 17, we check the validity of the result: that it is non-null and that it has a single dimension of arbitrary length. Once these states are verified, we extract the data buffer and length in lines 19 and 20 so that we can call the underlying C function at line 22. Line 25 performs memory management for the case where we have created a new array that is no longer needed.

This code has a significant amount of error handling. Note the \texttt{SWIG\_fail} is a macro for \texttt{goto fail}, referring to the label at line 28. If the user provides the wrong number of arguments, this will be caught at line 10. If construction of the NumPy array fails or produces an array with the wrong number of dimensions, these errors are caught at line 17. And finally, if an error is detected, memory is still managed correctly at line 30.

Note that if the C function signature was in a different order:

\begin{verbatim}
double rms(int n, double* seq);
\end{verbatim}

that \textsc{SWIG} would not match the typemap signature given above with the argument list for \texttt{rms}. Fortunately, \texttt{numpy.i} has a set of typemaps with the data pointer given last:

\begin{verbatim}
\%apply (int DIM1, double* IN_ARRAY1) {((int n, double* seq));
\end{verbatim}

This simply has the effect of switching the definitions of \texttt{arg1} and \texttt{arg2} in lines 3 and 4 of the generated code above, and their assignments in lines 19 and 20.

\subsection*{12.0.2 Using \texttt{numpy.i}}

The \texttt{numpy.i} file is currently located in the \texttt{tools/swig} sub-directory under the \texttt{numpy} installation directory. Typically, you will want to copy it to the directory where you are developing your wrappers.

A simple module that only uses a single \textsc{SWIG} interface file should include the following:

\begin{verbatim}
\{
#define SWIG\_FILE\_WITH\_INIT
\}
#include "numpy.i"
\init %{
import_array();
}%
\end{verbatim}

Within a compiled Python module, \texttt{import\_array()} should only get called once. This could be in a C/C++ file that you have written and is linked to the module. If this is the case, then none of your interface files should \texttt{#define SWIG\_FILE\_WITH\_INIT or call import\_array()}. Or, this initialization call could be in a wrapper file generated by \textsc{SWIG} from an interface file that has the \texttt{\%init} block as above. If this is the case, and you have more than one \textsc{SWIG} interface file, then only one interface file should \texttt{#define SWIG\_FILE\_WITH\_INIT and call import\_array()}.
12.0.3 Available Typemaps

The typemap directives provided by *numpy.i* for arrays of different data types, say `double` and `int`, and dimensions of different types, say `int` or `long`, are identical to one another except for the C and NumPy type specifications. The typemaps are therefore implemented (typically behind the scenes) via a macro:

```
%numpy_typemaps(DATA_TYPE, DATA_TYPECODE, DIM_TYPE)
```

that can be invoked for appropriate `(DATA_TYPE, DATA_TYPECODE, DIM_TYPE)` triplets. For example:

```
%numpy_typemaps(double, NPY_DOUBLE, int)
%numpy_typemaps(int, NPY_INT , int)
```

The *numpy.i* interface file uses the `%numpy_typemaps` macro to implement typemaps for the following C data types and `int` dimension types:

- signed char
- unsigned char
- short
- unsigned short
- int
- unsigned int
- long
- unsigned long
- long long
- unsigned long long
- float
- double

In the following descriptions, we reference a generic `DATA_TYPE`, which could be any of the C data types listed above, and `DIM_TYPE` which should be one of the many types of integers.

The typemap signatures are largely differentiated on the name given to the buffer pointer. Names with FARRAY are for Fortran-ordered arrays, and names with ARRAY are for C-ordered (or 1D arrays).

### Input Arrays

Input arrays are defined as arrays of data that are passed into a routine but are not altered in-place or returned to the user. The Python input array is therefore allowed to be almost any Python sequence (such as a list) that can be converted to the requested type of array. The input array signatures are

1D:

- `( DATA_TYPE IN_ARRAY1[ANY] )`
- `( DATA_TYPE* IN_ARRAY1, int DIM1 )`
- `( int DIM1, DATA_TYPE* IN_ARRAY1 )`

2D:

- `( DATA_TYPE IN_ARRAY2[ANY][ANY] )`
• (DATA_TYPE* IN_ARRAY2, int DIM1, int DIM2)
• (int DIM1, int DIM2, DATA_TYPE* IN_ARRAY2)
• (DATA_TYPE* IN_FARRAY2, int DIM1, int DIM2)
• (int DIM1, int DIM2, DATA_TYPE* IN_FARRAY2)

3D:
• (DATA_TYPE IN_ARRAY3[ANY][ANY][ANY])
• (DATA_TYPE* IN_ARRAY3, int DIM1, int DIM2, int DIM3)
• (int DIM1, int DIM2, int DIM3, DATA_TYPE* IN_ARRAY3)
• (DATA_TYPE* IN_FARRAY3, int DIM1, int DIM2, int DIM3)
• (int DIM1, int DIM2, int DIM3, DATA_TYPE* IN_FARRAY3)

4D:
• (DATA_TYPE IN_ARRAY4[ANY][ANY][ANY][ANY])
• (DATA_TYPE* IN_ARRAY4, DIM_TYPE DIM1, DIM_TYPE DIM2, DIM_TYPE DIM3, DIM_TYPE DIM4)
• (DIM_TYPE DIM1, DIM_TYPE DIM2, DIM_TYPE DIM3, DIM_TYPE DIM4, DATA_TYPE* IN_ARRAY4)
• (DATA_TYPE* IN_FARRAY4, DIM_TYPE DIM1, DIM_TYPE DIM2, DIM_TYPE DIM3, DIM_TYPE DIM4)
• (DIM_TYPE DIM1, DIM_TYPE DIM2, DIM_TYPE DIM3, DIM_TYPE DIM4, DATA_TYPE* IN_FARRAY4)

The first signature listed, (DATA_TYPE IN_ARRAY[ANY]) is for one-dimensional arrays with hard-coded dimensions. Likewise, (DATA_TYPE IN_ARRAY2[ANY][ANY]) is for two-dimensional arrays with hard-coded dimensions, and similarly for three-dimensional.

In-Place Arrays

In-place arrays are defined as arrays that are modified in-place. The input values may or may not be used, but the values at the time the function returns are significant. The provided Python argument must therefore be a NumPy array of the required type. The in-place signatures are

1D:
• (DATA_TYPE INPLACE_ARRAY1[ANY])
• (DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_ARRAY1, int DIM1)
• (int DIM1, DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_ARRAY1)

2D:
• (DATA_TYPE INPLACE_ARRAY2[ANY][ANY])
• (DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_ARRAY2, int DIM1, int DIM2)
• (int DIM1, int DIM2, DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_ARRAY2)
• (DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_FARRAY2, int DIM1, int DIM2)
• (int DIM1, int DIM2, DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_FARRAY2)

3D:
• (DATA_TYPE INPLACE_ARRAY3[ANY][ANY][ANY])
• (DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_ARRAY3, int DIM1, int DIM2, int DIM3)
• (int DIM1, int DIM2, int DIM3, DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_ARRAY3)
• (DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_FARRAY3, int DIM1, int DIM2, int DIM3)
• (int DIM1, int DIM2, int DIM3, DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_FARRAY3)

4D:
• (DATA_TYPE INPLACE_ARRAY4[ANY][ANY][ANY][ANY])
• (DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_ARRAY4, DIM_TYPE DIM1, DIM_TYPE DIM2, DIM_TYPE DIM3, DIM_TYPE DIM4)
• (DIM_TYPE DIM1, DIM_TYPE DIM2, DIM_TYPE DIM3, DIM_TYPE DIM4, DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_ARRAY4)
• (DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_FARRAY4, DIM_TYPE DIM1, DIM_TYPE DIM2, DIM_TYPE DIM3, DIM_TYPE DIM4)
• (DIM_TYPE DIM1, DIM_TYPE DIM2, DIM_TYPE DIM3, DIM_TYPE DIM4, DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_FARRAY4)

These typemaps now check to make sure that the INPLACE_ARRAY arguments use native byte ordering. If not, an exception is raised.

There is also a “flat” in-place array for situations in which you would like to modify or process each element, regardless of the number of dimensions. One example is a “quantization” function that quantizes each element of an array in-place, be it 1D, 2D or whatever. This form checks for continuity but allows either C or Fortran ordering.

ND:
• (DATA_TYPE* INPLACE_ARRAY_FLAT, DIM_TYPE DIM_FLAT)

**Argout Arrays**

Argout arrays are arrays that appear in the input arguments in C, but are in fact output arrays. This pattern occurs often when there is more than one output variable and the single return argument is therefore not sufficient. In Python, the conventional way to return multiple arguments is to pack them into a sequence (tuple, list, etc.) and return the sequence. This is what the argout typemaps do. If a wrapped function that uses these argout typemaps has more than one return argument, they are packed into a tuple or list, depending on the version of Python. The Python user does not pass these arrays in, they simply get returned. For the case where a dimension is specified, the python user must provide that dimension as an argument. The argout signatures are

1D:
• (DATA_TYPE ARGOUT_ARRAY1[ANY])
• (DATA_TYPE* ARGOUT_ARRAY1, int DIM1)
• (int DIM1, DATA_TYPE* ARGOUT_ARRAY1)

2D:
• (DATA_TYPE ARGOUT_ARRAY2[ANY][ANY])

3D:
• (DATA_TYPE ARGOUT_ARRAY3[ANY][ANY][ANY])

4D:
• ( DATA_TYPE ARGOUT_ARRAY4[ANY][ANY][ANY][ANY] )

These are typically used in situations where in C/C++, you would allocate a(n) array(s) on the heap, and call the function to fill the array(s) values. In Python, the arrays are allocated for you and returned as new array objects.

Note that we support DATA_TYPE* argout typemaps in 1D, but not 2D or 3D. This is because of a quirk with the SWIG typemap syntax and cannot be avoided. Note that for these types of 1D typemaps, the Python function will take a single argument representing DIM1.

Argout View Arrays

Argoutview arrays are for when your C code provides you with a view of its internal data and does not require any memory to be allocated by the user. This can be dangerous. There is almost no way to guarantee that the internal data from the C code will remain in existence for the entire lifetime of the NumPy array that encapsulates it. If the user destroys the object that provides the view of the data before destroying the NumPy array, then using that array may result in bad memory references or segmentation faults. Nevertheless, there are situations, working with large data sets, where you simply have no other choice.

The C code to be wrapped for argoutview arrays are characterized by pointers: pointers to the dimensions and double pointers to the data, so that these values can be passed back to the user. The argoutview typemap signatures are therefore

1D:

• ( DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_ARRAY1, DIM_TYPE* DIM1 )
• ( DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_ARRAY1 )

2D:

• ( DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_ARRAY2, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2 )
• ( DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_ARRAY2 )
• ( DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_FARRAY2, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2 )
• ( DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_FARRAY2 )

3D:

• ( DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_ARRAY3, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3)
• ( DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_ARRAY3)
• ( DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_FARRAY3, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3)
• ( DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_FARRAY3)

4D:

• (DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_ARRAY4, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DIM_TYPE* DIM4)
• (DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DIM_TYPE* DIM4, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_ARRAY4)
• (DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_FARRAY4, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DIM_TYPE* DIM4)
• (DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DIM_TYPE* DIM4, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEW_FARRAY4)
Note that arrays with hard-coded dimensions are not supported. These cannot follow the double pointer signatures of these typemaps.

Memory Managed Argout View Arrays

A recent addition to `numpy.i` are typemaps that permit argout arrays with views into memory that is managed. See the discussion here.

1D:

- `(DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_ARRAY1, DIM_TYPE* DIM1)`
- `(DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_ARRAY1)`

2D:

- `(DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_ARRAY2, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2)`
- `(DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_ARRAY2)`
- `(DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_FARRAY2, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2)`
- `(DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_FARRAY2)`

3D:

- `(DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_ARRAY3, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3)`
- `(DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_ARRAY3)`
- `(DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_FARRAY3, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3)`
- `(DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_FARRAY3)`

4D:

- `(DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_ARRAY4, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DIM_TYPE* DIM4)`
- `(DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DIM_TYPE* DIM4, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_ARRAY4)`
- `(DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_FARRAY4, DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DIM_TYPE* DIM4)`
- `(DIM_TYPE* DIM1, DIM_TYPE* DIM2, DIM_TYPE* DIM3, DIM_TYPE* DIM4, DATA_TYPE** ARGOUTVIEWM_FARRAY4)`
Output Arrays

The `numpy.i` interface file does not support typemaps for output arrays, for several reasons. First, C/C++ return arguments are limited to a single value. This prevents obtaining dimension information in a general way. Second, arrays with hard-coded lengths are not permitted as return arguments. In other words:

```
double[3] newVector(double x, double y, double z);
```

is not legal C/C++ syntax. Therefore, we cannot provide typemaps of the form:

```
\typemap(out) (TYPE[ANY]);
```

If you run into a situation where a function or method is returning a pointer to an array, your best bet is to write your own version of the function to be wrapped, either with `%extend` for the case of class methods or `%ignore` and `%rename` for the case of functions.

Other Common Types: bool

Note that C++ type `bool` is not supported in the list in the Available Typemaps section. NumPy bools are a single byte, while the C++ `bool` is four bytes (at least on my system). Therefore:

```
\numpy_typemaps(bool, NPY_BOOL, int)
```

will result in typemaps that will produce code that reference improper data lengths. You can implement the following macro expansion:

```
\numpy_typemaps(bool, NPY_UINT, int)
```

to fix the data length problem, and Input Arrays will work fine, but In-Place Arrays might fail type-checking.

Other Common Types: complex

Typemap conversions for complex floating-point types is also not supported automatically. This is because Python and NumPy are written in C, which does not have native complex types. Both Python and NumPy implement their own (essentially equivalent) `struct` definitions for complex variables:

```
/* Python */
typedef struct {double real; double imag;} Py_complex;

/* NumPy */
typedef struct {float real, imag;} npy_cfloat;
typedef struct {double real, imag;} npy_cdouble;
```

We could have implemented:

```
\numpy_typemaps(Py_complex , NPY_CDOUBLE, int)
\numpy_typemaps(npy_cfloat , NPY_CFLOAT , int)
\numpy_typemaps(npy_cdouble, NPY_CDOUBLE, int)
```

which would have provided automatic type conversions for arrays of type `Py_complex`, `npy_cfloat` and `npy_cdouble`. However, it seemed unlikely that there would be any independent (non-Python, non-NumPy) application code that people would be using SWIG to generate a Python interface to, that also used these definitions for complex types. More likely, these application codes will define their own complex types, or in the case of C++, use `std::complex`. Assuming these data structures are compatible with Python and NumPy complex types, `%numpy_typemap` expansions as above (with the user's complex type substituted for the first argument) should work.
12.0.4 NumPy Array Scalars and SWIG

SWIG has sophisticated type checking for numerical types. For example, if your C/C++ routine expects an integer as input, the code generated by SWIG will check for both Python integers and Python long integers, and raise an overflow error if the provided Python integer is too big to cast down to a C integer. With the introduction of NumPy scalar arrays into your Python code, you might conceivably extract an integer from a NumPy array and attempt to pass this to a SWIG-wrapped C/C++ function that expects an int, but the SWIG type checking will not recognize the NumPy array scalar as an integer. (Often, this does in fact work – it depends on whether NumPy recognizes the integer type you are using as inheriting from the Python integer type on the platform you are using. Sometimes, this means that code that works on a 32-bit machine will fail on a 64-bit machine.)

If you get a Python error that looks like the following:

```
TypeError: in method 'MyClass_MyMethod', argument 2 of type 'int'
```

and the argument you are passing is an integer extracted from a NumPy array, then you have stumbled upon this problem. The solution is to modify the SWIG type conversion system to accept NumPy array scalars in addition to the standard integer types. Fortunately, this capability has been provided for you. Simply copy the file:

```
pyfragments.swg
```

to the working build directory for your project, and this problem will be fixed. It is suggested that you do this anyway, as it only increases the capabilities of your Python interface.

Why is There a Second File?

The SWIG type checking and conversion system is a complicated combination of C macros, SWIG macros, SWIG typemaps and SWIG fragments. Fragments are a way to conditionally insert code into your wrapper file if it is needed, and not insert it if not needed. If multiple typemaps require the same fragment, the fragment only gets inserted into your wrapper code once.

There is a fragment for converting a Python integer to a C long. There is a different fragment that converts a Python integer to a C int, that calls the routine defined in the long fragment. We can make the changes we want here by changing the definition for the long fragment. SWIG determines the active definition for a fragment using a “first come, first served” system. That is, we need to define the fragment for long conversions prior to SWIG doing it internally. SWIG allows us to do this by putting our fragment definitions in the file pyfragments.swg. If we were to put the new fragment definitions in numpy.i, they would be ignored.

12.0.5 Helper Functions

The numpy.i file contains several macros and routines that it uses internally to build its typemaps. However, these functions may be useful elsewhere in your interface file. These macros and routines are implemented as fragments, which are described briefly in the previous section. If you try to use one or more of the following macros or functions, but your compiler complains that it does not recognize the symbol, then you need to force these fragments to appear in your code using:

```
\fragment("NumPy_Fragments");
```

in your SWIG interface file.
**Macros**

*is_array(a)*

Evaluates as true if *a* is non-NULL and can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`.

*array_type(a)*

Evaluates to the integer data type code of *a*, assuming *a* can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`.

*array_numdims(a)*

Evaluates to the integer number of dimensions of *a*, assuming *a* can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`.

*array_dimensions(a)*

Evaluates to an array of type `npy_intp` and length `array_numdims(a)`, giving the lengths of all of the dimensions of *a*, assuming *a* can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`.

*array_size(a,i)*

Evaluates to the *i*-th dimension size of *a*, assuming *a* can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`.

*array_strides(a)*

Evaluates to an array of type `npy_intp` and length `array_numdims(a)`, giving the strides of all of the dimensions of *a*, assuming *a* can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`. A stride is the distance in bytes between an element and its immediate neighbor along the same axis.

*array_stride(a,i)*

Evaluates to the *i*-th stride of *a*, assuming *a* can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`.

*array_data(a)*

Evaluates to a pointer of type `void` that points to the data buffer of *a*, assuming *a* can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`.

*array_descr(a)*

Returns a borrowed reference to the dtype property (`PyArray_Descr`) of *a*, assuming *a* can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`.

*array_flags(a)*

Returns an integer representing the flags of *a*, assuming *a* can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`.

*array_enableflags(a,f)*

Sets the flag represented by *f* of *a*, assuming *a* can be cast to a `PyArrayObject`.

*array_is_contiguous(a)*

Evaluates as true if *a* is a contiguous array. Equivalent to `(PyArray_ISCONTIGUOUS(a))`.

*array_is_native(a)*

Evaluates as true if the data buffer of *a* uses native byte order. Equivalent to `(PyArray_ISNOTSWAPPED(a))`.

*array_is_fortran(a)*

Evaluates as true if *a* is FORTRAN ordered.
Routines

pytype_string()

Return type: const char*
Arguments:
- PyObject* py_obj, a general Python object.

Return a string describing the type of py_obj.

typecode_string()

Return type: const char*
Arguments:
- int typecode, a NumPy integer typecode.

Return a string describing the type corresponding to the NumPy typecode.

type_match()

Return type: int
Arguments:
- int actual_type, the NumPy typecode of a NumPy array.
- int desired_type, the desired NumPy typecode.

Make sure that actual_type is compatible with desired_type. For example, this allows character and byte types, or int and long types, to match. This is now equivalent to PyArray_EquivTypenums().

obj_to_array_no_conversion()

Return type: PyArrayObject*
Arguments:
- PyObject* input, a general Python object.
- int typecode, the desired NumPy typecode.

Cast input to a PyArrayObject* if legal, and ensure that it is of type typecode. If input cannot be cast, or the typecode is wrong, set a Python error and return NULL.

obj_to_array_allow_conversion()

Return type: PyArrayObject*
Arguments:
- PyObject* input, a general Python object.
- int typecode, the desired NumPy typecode of the resulting array.
- int* is_new_object, returns a value of 0 if no conversion performed, else 1.

Convert input to a NumPy array with the given typecode. On success, return a valid PyArrayObject* with the correct type. On failure, the Python error string will be set and the routine returns NULL.

make_contiguous()
Return type: PyArrayObject*

Arguments:
- PyArrayObject* ary, a NumPy array.
- int* is_new_object, returns a value of 0 if no conversion performed, else 1.
- int min_dims, minimum allowable dimensions.
- int max_dims, maximum allowable dimensions.

Check to see if ary is contiguous. If so, return the input pointer and flag it as not a new object. If it is not contiguous, create a new PyArrayObject* using the original data, flag it as a new object and return the pointer.

make_fortran()

Return type: PyArrayObject*

Arguments:
- PyArrayObject* ary, a NumPy array.
- int* is_new_object, returns a value of 0 if no conversion performed, else 1.

Check to see if ary is Fortran contiguous. If so, return the input pointer and flag it as not a new object. If it is not Fortran contiguous, create a new PyArrayObject* using the original data, flag it as a new object and return the pointer.

obj_to_array_contiguous_allow_conversion()

Return type: PyArrayObject*

Arguments:
- PyObject* input, a general Python object.
- int typecode, the desired NumPy typecode of the resulting array.
- int* is_new_object, returns a value of 0 if no conversion performed, else 1.

Convert input to a contiguous PyArrayObject* of the specified type. If the input object is not a contiguous PyArrayObject*, a new one will be created and the new object flag will be set.

obj_to_array_fortran_allow_conversion()

Return type: PyArrayObject*

Arguments:
- PyObject* input, a general Python object.
- int typecode, the desired NumPy typecode of the resulting array.
- int* is_new_object, returns a value of 0 if no conversion performed, else 1.

Convert input to a Fortran contiguous PyArrayObject* of the specified type. If the input object is not a Fortran contiguous PyArrayObject*, a new one will be created and the new object flag will be set.

require_contiguous()

Return type: int

Arguments:
- PyArrayObject* ary, a NumPy array.
Test whether `ary` is contiguous. If so, return 1. Otherwise, set a Python error and return 0.

`require_native()`

Return type: `int`

Arguments:

- `PyArray_Object* ary`, a NumPy array.

Require that `ary` is not byte-swapped. If the array is not byte-swapped, return 1. Otherwise, set a Python error and return 0.

`require_dimensions()`

Return type: `int`

Arguments:

- `PyArrayObject* ary`, a NumPy array.
- `int exact_dimensions`, the desired number of dimensions.

Require `ary` to have a specified number of dimensions. If the array has the specified number of dimensions, return 1. Otherwise, set a Python error and return 0.

`require_dimensions_n()`

Return type: `int`

Arguments:

- `PyArrayObject* ary`, a NumPy array.
- `int* exact_dimensions`, an array of integers representing acceptable numbers of dimensions.
- `int n`, the length of `exact_dimensions`.

Require `ary` to have one of a list of specified number of dimensions. If the array has one of the specified number of dimensions, return 1. Otherwise, set the Python error string and return 0.

`require_size()`

Return type: `int`

Arguments:

- `PyArrayObject* ary`, a NumPy array.
- `npy_int* size`, an array representing the desired lengths of each dimension.
- `int n`, the length of `size`.

Require `ary` to have a specified shape. If the array has the specified shape, return 1. Otherwise, set the Python error string and return 0.

`require_fortran()`

Return type: `int`

Arguments:

- `PyArrayObject* ary`, a NumPy array.

Require the given `PyArrayObject` to be Fortran ordered. If the `PyArrayObject` is already Fortran ordered, do nothing. Else, set the Fortran ordering flag and recompute the strides.
12.0.6 Beyond the Provided Typemaps

There are many C or C++ array/NumPy array situations not covered by a simple `#include "numpy.i"` and subsequent `#apply` directives.

**A Common Example**

Consider a reasonable prototype for a dot product function:

```
double dot(int len, double* vec1, double* vec2);
```

The Python interface that we want is:

```
def dot(vec1, vec2):
    """
    dot(PyObject,PyObject) -> double
    """
```

The problem here is that there is one dimension argument and two array arguments, and our typemaps are set up for dimensions that apply to a single array (in fact, SWIG does not provide a mechanism for associating `len` with `vec2` that takes two Python input arguments). The recommended solution is the following:

```
%apply (int DIM1, double* IN_ARRAY1) {(int len1, double* vec1),
    (int len2, double* vec2)}
%rename (dot) my_dot;
%exception my_dot {
    $action
    if (PyErr_Occurred()) SWIG_fail;
}
%inline %{
    double my_dot(int len1, double* vec1, int len2, double* vec2) {
        if (len1 != len2) {
            PyErr_Format(PyExc_ValueError,
                "Arrays of lengths (%d,%d) given",
                len1, len2);
            return 0.0;
        }
        return dot(len1, vec1, vec2);
    }
}
```

If the header file that contains the prototype for `double dot()` also contains other prototypes that you want to wrap, so that you need to `#include` this header file, then you will also need a `#ignore dot;` directive, placed after the `#rename` and before the `#include` directives. Or, if the function in question is a class method, you will want to use `#extend` rather than `#inline` in addition to `#ignore`.

**A note on error handling:** Note that `my_dot` returns a `double` but that it can also raise a Python error. The resulting wrapper function will return a Python float representation of 0.0 when the vector lengths do not match. Since this is not NULL, the Python interpreter will not know to check for an error. For this reason, we add the `#exception` directive above for `my_dot` to get the behavior we want (note that `$action` is a macro that gets expanded to a valid call to `my_dot`). In general, you will probably want to write a SWIG macro to perform this task.
Other Situations

There are other wrapping situations in which `numpy.i` may be helpful when you encounter them.

- In some situations, it is possible that you could use the `%numpy_typemaps` macro to implement typemaps for your own types. See the Other Common Types: bool or Other Common Types: complex sections for examples. Another situation is if your dimensions are of a type other than `int` (say `long` for example):

```
%numpy_typemaps(double, NPY_DOUBLE, long)
```

- You can use the code in `numpy.i` to write your own typemaps. For example, if you had a five-dimensional array as a function argument, you could cut-and-paste the appropriate four-dimensional typemaps into your interface file. The modifications for the fourth dimension would be trivial.

- Sometimes, the best approach is to use the `%extend` directive to define new methods for your classes (or overload existing ones) that take a `PyObject*` (that either is or can be converted to a `PyArrayObject*`) instead of a pointer to a buffer. In this case, the helper routines in `numpy.i` can be very useful.

- Writing typemaps can be a bit nonintuitive. If you have specific questions about writing SWIG typemaps for NumPy, the developers of `numpy.i` do monitor the Numpy-discussion and Swig-user mail lists.

A Final Note

When you use the `%apply` directive, as is usually necessary to use `numpy.i`, it will remain in effect until you tell SWIG that it shouldn’t be. If the arguments to the functions or methods that you are wrapping have common names, such as `length` or `vector`, these typemaps may get applied in situations you do not expect or want. Therefore, it is always a good idea to add a `%clear` directive after you are done with a specific typemap:

```
%apply (double* IN_ARRAY1, int DIM1) {(double* vector, int length)}
#include "my_header.h"
%c当地 (double* vector, int length);
```

In general, you should target these typemap signatures specifically where you want them, and then clear them after you are done.

12.0.7 Summary

Out of the box, `numpy.i` provides typemaps that support conversion between NumPy arrays and C arrays:

- That can be one of 12 different scalar types: `signed char`, `unsigned char`, `short`, `unsigned short`, `int`, `unsigned int`, `long`, `unsigned long`, `long long`, `unsigned long long`, `float` and `double`.

- That support 74 different argument signatures for each data type, including:
  - One-dimensional, two-dimensional, three-dimensional and four-dimensional arrays.
  - Input-only, in-place, argout, argoutview, and memory managed argoutview behavior.
  - Both C-ordering (“last dimension fastest”) or Fortran-ordering (“first dimension fastest”) support for 2D, 3D and 4D arrays.

The `numpy.i` interface file also provides additional tools for wrapper developers, including:
• A SWIG macro (%numpy_typemaps) with three arguments for implementing the 74 argument signatures for the user’s choice of (1) C data type, (2) NumPy data type (assuming they match), and (3) dimension type.

• Fourteen C macros and fifteen C functions that can be used to write specialized typemaps, extensions, or inlined functions that handle cases not covered by the provided typemaps. Note that the macros and functions are coded specifically to work with the NumPy C/API regardless of NumPy version number, both before and after the deprecation of some aspects of the API after version 1.6.

12.1 Testing the numpy.i Typemaps

12.1.1 Introduction

Writing tests for the numpy.i SWIG interface file is a combinatorial headache. At present, 12 different data types are supported, each with 74 different argument signatures, for a total of 888 typemaps supported “out of the box”. Each of these typemaps, in turn, might require several unit tests in order to verify expected behavior for both proper and improper inputs. Currently, this results in more than 1,000 individual unit tests executed when make test is run in the numpy/tools/swig subdirectory.

To facilitate this many similar unit tests, some high-level programming techniques are employed, including C and SWIG macros, as well as Python inheritance. The purpose of this document is to describe the testing infrastructure employed to verify that the numpy.i typemaps are working as expected.

12.1.2 Testing Organization

There are three independent testing frameworks supported, for one-, two-, and three-dimensional arrays respectively. For one-dimensional arrays, there are two C++ files, a header and a source, named:

| Vector.h |
| Vector.cxx |

that contain prototypes and code for a variety of functions that have one-dimensional arrays as function arguments. The file:

| Vector.i |

is a SWIG interface file that defines a python module Vector that wraps the functions in Vector.h while utilizing the typemaps in numpy.i to correctly handle the C arrays.

The Makefile calls swig to generate Vector.py and Vector_wrap.cxx, and also executes the setup.py script that compiles Vector_wrap.cxx and links together the extension module _Vector.so or _Vector.dylib, depending on the platform. This extension module and the proxy file Vector.py are both placed in a subdirectory under the build directory.

The actual testing takes place with a Python script named:

| testVector.py |

that uses the standard Python library module unittest, which performs several tests of each function defined in Vector.h for each data type supported.

Two-dimensional arrays are tested in exactly the same manner. The above description applies, but with Matrix substituted for Vector. For three-dimensional tests, substitute Tensor for Vector. For four-dimensional tests, substitute SuperTensor for Vector. For flat in-place array tests, substitute Flat for Vector. For the descriptions that follow, we will reference the Vector tests, but the same information applies to Matrix, Tensor and SuperTensor tests.
The command `make test` will ensure that all of the test software is built and then run all three test scripts.

### 12.1.3 Testing Header Files

`Vector.h` is a C++ header file that defines a C macro called `TEST_FUNC_PROTOS` that takes two arguments: `TYPE`, which is a data type name such as `unsigned int`; and `SNAME`, which is a short name for the same data type with no spaces, e.g. `uint`. This macro defines several function prototypes that have the prefix `SNAME` and have at least one argument that is an array of type `TYPE`. Those functions that have return arguments return a `TYPE` value.

`TEST_FUNC_PROTOS` is then implemented for all of the data types supported by `numpy.i`:

- `signed char`
- `unsigned char`
- `short`
- `unsigned short`
- `int`
- `unsigned int`
- `long`
- `unsigned long`
- `long long`
- `unsigned long long`
- `float`
- `double`

### 12.1.4 Testing Source Files

`Vector.cxx` is a C++ source file that implements compilable code for each of the function prototypes specified in `Vector.h`. It defines a C macro `TEST_FUNCS` that has the same arguments and works in the same way as `TEST_FUNC_PROTOS` does in `Vector.h`. `TEST_FUNCS` is implemented for each of the 12 data types as above.

### 12.1.5 Testing SWIG Interface Files

`Vector.i` is a SWIG interface file that defines python module `Vector`. It follows the conventions for using `numpy.i` as described in this chapter. It defines a SWIG macro `%apply_numpy_typemaps` that has a single argument `TYPE`. It uses the SWIG directive `%apply` to apply the provided typemaps to the argument signatures found in `Vector.h`. This macro is then implemented for all of the data types supported by `numpy.i`. It then does a `%include "Vector.h"` to wrap all of the function prototypes in `Vector.h` using the typemaps in `numpy.i`.
12.1.6 Testing Python Scripts

After make is used to build the testing extension modules, testVector.py can be run to execute the tests. As with other scripts that use unittest to facilitate unit testing, testVector.py defines a class that inherits from unittest.TestCase:

```python
class VectorTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
```

However, this class is not run directly. Rather, it serves as a base class to several other python classes, each one specific to a particular data type. The VectorTestCase class stores two strings for typing information:

- **self.typeStr**
  - A string that matches one of the SNAME prefixes used in `Vector.h` and `Vector.cxx`. For example, "double".

- **self.typeCode**
  - A short (typically single-character) string that represents a data type in numpy and corresponds to `self.typeStr`. For example, if `self.typeStr` is "double", then `self.typeCode` should be "d".

Each test defined by the VectorTestCase class extracts the python function it is trying to test by accessing the `Vector` module’s dictionary:

```python
length = Vector.__dict__[self.typeStr + "Length"]
```

In the case of double precision tests, this will return the python function `Vector.doubleLength`.

We then define a new test case class for each supported data type with a short definition such as:

```python
class doubleTestCase(VectorTestCase):
    def __init__(self, methodName="runTest"):  
        VectorTestCase.__init__(self, methodName)
        self.typeStr = "double"
        self.typeCode = "d"
```

Each of these 12 classes is collected into a unittest.TestSuite, which is then executed. Errors and failures are summed together and returned as the exit argument. Any non-zero result indicates that at least one test did not pass.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Large parts of this manual originate from Travis E. Oliphant’s book Guide to NumPy (which generously entered Public Domain in August 2008). The reference documentation for many of the functions are written by numerous contributors and developers of NumPy.
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