Lab Objective: NumPy is a powerful Python package for manipulating data with multi-dimensional vectors. Its versatility and speed makes Python an ideal language for applied and computational mathematics. In this lab we introduce basic NumPy data structures and operations as a first step to numerical computing in Python.

Arrays

In many algorithms, data can be represented mathematically as a vector or a matrix. Conceptually, a vector is just a list of numbers and a matrix is a two-dimensional list of numbers. Therefore, we might try to represent a vector as a Python list and a matrix as a list of lists. However, even basic linear algebra operations like matrix multiplication are cumbersome to implement and slow to execute when we store data this way. The NumPy module offers a much better solution.

The basic object in NumPy is the array, which is conceptually similar to a matrix. The NumPy array class is called ndarray (for “n-dimensional array”). The simplest way to explicitly create a 1-D ndarray is to define a list, then cast that list as an ndarray with NumPy’s array() function.

```python
>>> import numpy as np
# Create a 1-D array by passing a list into NumPy's array() function.
>>> np.array([8, 4, 6, 0, 2])
array([8, 4, 6, 0, 2])
```

The alias “np” is standard in the Python community.

An ndarray can have arbitrarily many dimensions. A 2-D array is a 1-D array of 1-D arrays, and more generally, an n-dimensional array is a 1-D array of \((n - 1)\)-dimensional arrays. Each dimension is called an axis. For a 2-D array, the 0-axis indexes the rows and the 1-axis indexes the columns. Elements are accessed using brackets and indices (like a regular list), and the axes are separated by commas.

---

1 NumPy is not part of the standard library, but it is included in most Python distributions.
Create a 2-D array by passing a list of lists into array().

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

Access elements of the array with brackets.

```python
>>> print A[0, 1], A[1, 2]
2 6
```

The elements of a 2-D array are 1-D arrays.

```python
>>> A[0]
array([1, 2, 3])
```

Problem 1. NumPy’s dot() function performs matrix multiplication. Write a function that defines the following matrices as NumPy arrays.

\[
A = \begin{bmatrix}
3 & -1 & 4 \\
1 & 5 & -9
\end{bmatrix}
\quad B = \begin{bmatrix}
2 & 6 & -5 & 3 \\
5 & -8 & 9 & 7 \\
9 & -3 & -2 & -3
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Return the matrix product \(AB\).

NumPy has excellent documentation. For examples of array initialization and matrix multiplication, use IPython’s object introspection feature to look up the documentation for np.ndarray, np.array() and np.dot().

```python
In [1]: import numpy as np
In [2]: np.array? # press 'Enter'
```

Basic Array Operations

NumPy arrays behave differently with respect to the binary arithmetic operators + and * than Python lists do. For lists, + concatenates two lists and * replicates a list by a scalar amount (strings also behave this way).

```python
>>> x = [1, 2, 3]
>>> y = [4, 5, 6]

# Addition performs list concatenation.
>>> x + y
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]

# Multiplication concatenates a list with itself a given number of times.
>>> x * 4
[1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3]
```

In contrast, these operations are component-wise for NumPy arrays. Thus arrays behave the same way that vectors and matrices behave mathematically.
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3])
>>> y = np.array([4, 5, 6])

# Addition or multiplication by a scalar acts on each element of the array.
>>> x + 10
array([11, 12, 13])
>>> x * 4
array([ 4,  8, 12])

# Add two arrays together (component-wise).
>>> x + y
array([5, 7, 9])

# Multiply two arrays together (component-wise).
>>> x * y
array([ 4, 10, 18])

Problem 2. Write a function that defines the following matrix as a NumPy array.

\[
A = \begin{bmatrix}
  3 & 1 & 4 \\
  1 & 5 & 9 \\
 -5 & 3 & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Return the matrix \(-A^3 + 9A^2 - 15A\).

In this context, \(A^2 = AA\) (the matrix product). The somewhat surprising result is a demonstration of the Cayley-Hamilton theorem.

Array Attributes

An ndarray object has several attributes, some of which are listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dtype</td>
<td>The type of the elements in the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndim</td>
<td>The number of axes (dimensions) of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shape</td>
<td>A tuple of integers indicating the size in each dimension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size</td>
<td>The total number of elements in the array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

>>> A = np.array([[1, 2, 3],[4, 5, 6]])
>>> A.ndim
2
>>> A.shape
(2, 3)
>>> A.size
6

Note that the ndim is the number of entries in shape, and the the size of the array is the product of the entries of shape.
Array Creation Routines

In addition to casting other structures as arrays via `np.array()`, NumPy provides efficient ways to create certain commonly-used arrays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Returns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>arange()</code></td>
<td>An array of evenly spaced values within a given interval (like <code>range()</code>).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>eye()</code></td>
<td>A 2-D array with ones on the diagonal and zeros elsewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ones()</code></td>
<td>A new array of given shape and type, filled with ones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ones_like()</code></td>
<td>An array of ones with the same shape and type as a given array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>zeros()</code></td>
<td>A new array of given shape and type, filled with zeros.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>zeros_like()</code></td>
<td>An array of zeros with the same shape and type as a given array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>full()</code></td>
<td>A new array of given shape and type, filled with a specified value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>full_like()</code></td>
<td>A full array with the same shape and type as a given array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of these functions accepts the keyword argument `dtype` to specify the data type. Common types include `np.bool_`, `np.int64`, `np.float64`, and `np.complex128`.

```python
# A 1-D array of 5 zeros.
>>> np.zeros(5)
array([ 0., 0., 0., 0., 0.])

# A 2x5 matrix (2-D array) of integer ones.
>>> np.ones((2,5), dtype=np.int)
array([[1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
[1, 1, 1, 1, 1]])

# The 2x2 identity matrix.
>>> I = np.eye(2)
>>> print(I)
[[1. 0.]
[0. 1.]]

# An array of 3s the same size as 'I'.
>>> np.full_like(I, 3)  # Equivalent to np.full(I.shape, 3).
array([[3., 3.],
[3., 3.]])
```

All elements of a NumPy array must be of the same data type. To change an existing array’s data type, use the array’s `astype()` method.

```python
# A list of integers becomes an array of integers.
>>> x = np.array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> print(x)
[0 1 2 3 4]
>>> x.dtype
dtype('int64')

# Change the data type to one of NumPy's float types.
>>> x = x.astype(np.float64)
>>> print(x)
[ 0.  1.  2.  3.  4.]
>>> x.dtype
dtype('float64')
```
Once we have an array, we might want to extract its diagonal or get the upper or lower portion of the array. The following functions are very helpful for this.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>diag()</code></td>
<td>Extract a diagonal or construct a diagonal array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tril()</code></td>
<td>Get the lower-triangular portion of an array by replacing entries above the diagonal with zeros.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>triu()</code></td>
<td>Get the upper-triangular portion of an array by replacing entries below the diagonal with zeros.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

# Get the diagonal entries of 'A' as a 1-D array.
>>> np.diag(A)
array([1, 5, 9])

# Get only the upper triangular entries of 'A'.
>>> np.triu(A)
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [0, 5, 6],
       [0, 0, 9]])

# `diag()` can also be used to create a diagonal matrix from a 1-D array.
>>> np.diag([1, 11, 111])
array([[ 1, 0, 0],
       [ 0, 11, 0],
       [ 0, 0, 111]])
```

See [http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/reference/routines.array-creation.html](http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/reference/routines.array-creation.html) for the official documentation on NumPy’s array creation routines.

**Problem 3.** Write a function that defines the following matrices as NumPy arrays. Use the functions presented in this section instead of `np.array()` to construct the matrices, then calculate the matrix product $ABA$. Change the data type of the resulting matrix to `np.int64`, then return it.

\[
A = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
B = \begin{bmatrix}
-1 & 5 & 5 & 5 & 5 & 5 \\
-1 & -1 & 5 & 5 & 5 & 5 \\
-1 & -1 & -1 & 5 & 5 & 5 \\
-1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 5 & 5 \\
-1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 5 \\
-1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Data Access

Array Slicing

Indexing for a 1-D NumPy array works exactly like indexing for a Python list. To access a single entry of a multi-dimensional array, say a 3-D array, use the syntax `f[i, j, k]`. While the syntax `f[i][j][k]` will also work, it is significantly slower because each bracket returns an array slice.

In slicing syntax, the colon `:` separates the arguments `start`, `stop`, and `step`. If there is no colon, a single entry of that dimension is accessed. With a colon, a range of values is accessed.

```python
# Make an array of the integers from 0 to 10 (exclusive).
>>> x = np.arange(10)
>>> x
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])

# Access a elements of the array with slicing syntax.
>>> x[3]  # The element at index 3.
3
>>> x[:3]  # Everything up to index 3.
array([0, 1, 2])
>>> x[3:]  # Everything from index 3 on.
array([3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
>>> x[3:8]  # The elements from index 3 to 8.
array([3, 4, 5, 6, 7])

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

# Use a comma to separate the dimensions for multi-dimensional arrays.
>>> A[1, 2]  # The element at row one, column 2.
7
>>> A[:, 2:]  # All of the rows, from column 2 on.
array([[2, 3, 4],
       [7, 8, 9]])
```

See Appendix ?? for visual examples of slicing.

Note

NumPy has two ways of returning an array: as a view and as a copy. A view of an array is distinct from the original array in Python, but it references the same place in memory. Thus changing a array view also change the array it references. In other words, arrays are mutable.

A copy of an array is a separate array with its own place in memory. Changes to a copy of an array does not affect the original array, but copying an array uses more time and memory than getting a view. An array can be copied using `np.copy()` or the array’s `copy()` method.
Fancy Indexing

So-called “fancy indexing” is a second way to access elements of an array. Instead of providing indices to obtain a slice of an array, we provide either an array of integers or an array of boolean values (called a mask).

```python
# Make an array of every 10th integer from 0 to 50 (exclusive).
>>> x = np.arange(0, 50, 10)
>>> x
array([ 0, 10, 20, 30, 40])

# An array of integers extracts the entries of 'x' at the given indices.
>>> index = np.array([3, 1, 4])
>>> x[index]
array([30, 10, 40])

# A boolean array extracts the elements of 'x' at the same places as 'True'.
>>> mask = np.array([True, False, False, True, False])
>>> x[mask]
array([ 0, 30])
```

Fancy indexing is especially useful for extracting or changing the values of an array that meet some sort of criterion. Comparison operators like < and == may be used to create masks.

```python
# Make an array of every other integer from 10 to 20 (exclusive).
>>> y = np.arange(10, 20, 2)
>>> y
array([10, 12, 14, 16, 18])

# Extract the values of 'y' larger than 15.
>>> mask = y > 15
>>> mask
array([False, False, False, True, True], dtype=bool)
>>> y[mask]
array([16, 18])

# If the mask doesn't need to be saved, use this very readable syntax.
>>> y[y > 15]
array([16, 18])

# Change the values of 'y' larger than 15 to 0.
>>> y[mask] = 0
>>> print(y)
[10 12 14 0 0]
```

Note that slice operations and indexing always return a view and fancy indexing always returns a copy.

**Problem 4.** Write a function that accepts a single array as input. Make a copy of the array, then use fancy indexing to set all negative entries of the copy to 0. Return the copy.
Array Manipulation

Shaping

Recall that arrays have a shape attribute that describes the dimensions of the array. We can change the shape of an array with np.reshape() or the array’s reshape() method. The total number of entries in the old array and the new array must be the same in order for the shaping to work correctly. A -1 in the new shape tuple makes the specified dimension as long as necessary.

# Make an array of the integers from 0 to 12 (exclusive).
>>> A = np.arange(12)
>>> print(A)
[ 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11]

# 'A' has 12 entries, so it can be reshaped into a 3x4 matrix.
>>> A.reshape((3,4))  # The new shape is specified as a tuple.
array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3],
       [ 4, 5, 6, 7],
       [ 8, 9, 10, 11]])

# Reshape 'A' into an array with 2 rows and the appropriate number of columns.
>>> A.reshape((2,-1))
array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5],
       [ 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11]])

Use np.ravel() to flatten a multi-dimensional array into a (flat) 1-D array and np.transpose() to transpose a 2-D array (in the matrix sense). Transposition can also be done with an array’s T attribute.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>reshape()</td>
<td>Return a view of the array with a changed shape.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ravel()</td>
<td>Make a flattened version of an array, return a view if possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transpose()</td>
<td>Permute the dimensions of the array (also ndarray.T).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hstack()</td>
<td>Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vstack()</td>
<td>Stack arrays in sequence vertically (row wise).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>column_stack()</td>
<td>Stack 1-D arrays as columns into a 2-D array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

>>> A = np.arange(12).reshape((3,4))
>>> A
array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3],
       [ 4, 5, 6, 7],
       [ 8, 9, 10, 11]])

# Flatten 'A' into a one-dimensional array.
>>> np.ravel(A)  # Equivalent to A.reshape(A.size)
array([ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11])

# Transpose the matrix 'A'.
>>> A.T  # Equivalent to np.transpose(A).
array([[ 0, 4, 8],
       [ 1, 5, 9],
       [ 2, 6, 10],
       [ 3, 7, 11]])
Note

By default, all NumPy arrays that can be represented by a single dimension, including column slices, are automatically reshaped into “flat” 1-D arrays. Therefore an array will usually have 10 elements instead of 10 arrays with one element each. Though we usually represent vectors vertically in mathematical notation, NumPy methods such as \texttt{dot()} are implemented purposefully to play nicely with 1-D “row arrays”.

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

# Slicing out a column of A still produces a "flat" 1-D array.
```python
>>> x = A[:,1]
>>> x
array([1, 6])
>>> x.shape
(2,)
>>> x.ndim
1
```

Occasionally it is necessary to change a 1-D array into a “column array”. Use \texttt{np.reshape()}, \texttt{np.vstack()}, or slice the array and put \texttt{np.newaxis} on the second axis. Note that \texttt{np.transpose()} does not alter 1-D arrays.

```python
>>> x = np.arange(3)
>>> x
array([0, 1, 2])
>>> x.reshape((3,1))
 arrays([[0],
         [1],
         [2]])
```

Stacking

Suppose we have two or more matrices that we would like to join together into a single block matrix. NumPy has functions for \textit{stacking} arrays with similar dimensions together for this very purpose. Each of these methods takes in a single tuple of arrays to be stacked in sequence.

```python
>>> A = np.arange(6).reshape((3,2))
>>> B = np.ones((3,4))
```

# hstack() stacks arrays horizontally (column-wise).
```python
>>> np.hstack((A,B,A))
 array([[ 0.,  1.,  1.,  1.,  1.,  0.,  1.,  0.,  1.],
       [ 2.,  3.,  1.,  1.,  1.,  2.,  3.,  2.,  3.],
       [ 4.,  5.,  1.,  1.,  1.,  4.,  5.,  4.,  5.]])
```
```python
>>> A = np.arange(6).reshape((2,3))
>>> B = np.zeros((4,3))

# vstack() stacks arrays vertically (row-wise).

>>> np.vstack((A,B,A))
array([[ 0., 1., 2.],
       [ 3., 4., 5.],
       [ 0., 0., 0.],
       [ 0., 0., 0.],
       [ 0., 0., 0.],
       [ 0., 0., 0.],
       [ 0., 0., 0.],
       [ 0., 1., 2.],
       [ 3., 4., 5.]]
```

See Appendix ?? for more visual examples of stacking, and visit [http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy-1.10.1/reference/routines.array-manipulation.html](http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy-1.10.1/reference/routines.array-manipulation.html) for more array manipulation routines and documentation.

**Problem 5.** Write a function that defines the following matrices as NumPy arrays.

\[
A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Use NumPy’s stacking functions to create and return the block matrix:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & A^T & I \\
A & 0 & 0 \\
B & 0 & C
\end{bmatrix},
\]

where \(I\) is the identity matrix of the appropriate size and each 0 is a matrix of all zeros, also of appropriate sizes.

A block matrix of this form is used in the Interior Point method for linear optimization.

**Array Broadcasting**

Many matrix operations make sense only when the two operands have the same shape, such as element-wise addition. *Array broadcasting* extends such operations to accept some (but not all) operands with different shapes, and occurs automatically whenever possible.

Suppose, for example, that we would like to add different values to the different columns of an \(m \times n\) matrix \(A\). Adding a 1-D array \(x\) with the \(n\) entries to \(A\) will automatically do this correctly. To add different values to the different rows of \(A\), we must first reshape a 1-D array of \(m\) values into a column array. Broadcasting then correctly takes care of the operation.
Broadcasting can also occur between two 1-D arrays, once they are reshaped appropriately.

```python
>>> A = np.arange(12).reshape((4,3))
>>> x = np.arange(3)
>>> A
array([[ 0,  1,  2],
       [ 3,  4,  5],
       [ 6,  7,  8],
       [ 9, 10, 11]])
>>> x
array([0, 1, 2])
# Add the entries of 'x' to the corresponding columns of 'A'.
>>> A + x
array([[ 0,  2,  4],
       [ 3,  5,  7],
       [ 6,  8, 10],
       [ 9, 11, 13]])

>>> y = np.arange(0, 40, 10).reshape((4,1))
>>> y
array([[  0],
       [ 10],
       [ 20],
       [ 30]])
# Add the entries of 'y' to the corresponding rows of 'A'.
>>> A + y
array([[ 0,  1,  2],
       [13, 14, 15],
       [26, 27, 28],
       [39, 40, 41]])

# Add 'x' and 'y' together with array broadcasting.
>>> x + y
array([[ 0,  1,  2],
       [10, 11, 12],
       [20, 21, 22],
       [30, 31, 32]])
```

Numerical Computing with NumPy

Universal Functions

A universal function is one that operates on an entire array element-wise. Using a universal function is almost always significantly more efficient than iterating through the array.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abs() / absolute()</td>
<td>Calculate the absolute value element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exp() / log()</td>
<td>Exponential (e^x) / natural log element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maximum() / minimum()</td>
<td>Element-wise maximum / minimum of two arrays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sqrt()</td>
<td>The positive square-root, element-wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sin(), cos(), tan(), etc.</td>
<td>Element-wise trigonometric operations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Many scalar functions from the Python standard library have a corresponding universal function in NumPy. If you have a simple operation to perform element-wise on an array, check if NumPy has a universal function for it (it probably does). See [http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/reference/ufuncs.html#available-ufuncs](http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/reference/ufuncs.html#available-ufuncs) for a more comprehensive list of universal functions.

Other Array Methods

Often the easiest way to compute information is by using methods of the `np.ndarray` class on existing arrays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Returns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>all()</td>
<td>True if all elements evaluate to True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>any()</td>
<td>True if any elements evaluate to True.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>argmax()</td>
<td>Index of the maximum value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>argmin()</td>
<td>Index of the minimum value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>argsort()</td>
<td>Indices that would sort the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max()</td>
<td>The maximum element of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mean()</td>
<td>The average value of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>min()</td>
<td>The minimum element of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sort()</td>
<td>Return nothing; sort the array in-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>std()</td>
<td>The standard deviation of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sum()</td>
<td>The sum of the elements of the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>var()</td>
<td>The variance of the array.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of these `np.ndarray` methods has a corresponding (and equivalent) NumPy function. Thus `A.max()` and `np.max(A)` are equivalent. The one exception is the `sort()` function: `np.sort()` returns a sorted copy of the array, while `A.sort()` sorts the array in-place and returns nothing.

Every method listed above has the option to operate along an axis via the keyword argument `axis`. If `axis` is specified for a method on an `n`-D array, the return value is an `(n - 1)`-D array, the specified axis having been collapsed in the evaluation process. If `axis` is not specified, the return value is usually a scalar.

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

# Find the maximum value in the entire array.
>>> A.max()
8

# Find the minimum value of each column.
>>> A.min(axis=0)                   # np.array([min(A[:,i]) for i in xrange(3)])
array([0, 1, 2])

# Compute the sum of each row.
>>> A.sum(axis=1)                   # np.array([sum(A[i,:]) for i in xrange(3)])
array([3, 12, 21])
```
A more comprehensive list of array methods can be found at [http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/reference/generated/numpy.ndarray.html](http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/reference/generated/numpy.ndarray.html). See Appendix ?? for visual examples of the axis keyword argument.

**Problem 6.** A matrix is called *row-stochastic* if its rows each sum to 1. Stochastic matrices are fundamentally important for finite discrete random processes and some machine learning algorithms.

Write a function that accepts a matrix (as a 2-D array). Divide each row of the matrix by the row sum and return the new row-stochastic matrix. Use array broadcasting instead of a loop, and be careful to avoid integer division.

*Similarly, a matrix is called *column-stochastic* if its columns each sum to 1.*

**Problem 7.** This problem comes from [https://projecteuler.net](https://projecteuler.net).

In the 20 × 20 grid below, four numbers along a diagonal line have been marked in red.

08 02 22 97 38 15 00 40 00 75 04 05 07 78 52 12 50 77 91 08  
49 49 99 40 17 81 18 57 60 87 17 40 98 43 69 48 04 56 62 00  
81 49 31 73 55 79 14 29 93 71 40 67 53 88 30 03 49 13 36 65  
52 70 95 23 04 60 11 42 69 24 68 56 01 32 56 71 37 02 36 91  
22 31 16 71 51 67 63 89 41 92 36 54 22 40 40 28 66 33 13 80  
24 47 32 60 99 03 45 02 44 75 33 53 78 36 84 20 35 17 12 50  
32 98 81 28 64 23 67 10 26 38 40 67 59 54 70 66 18 38 64 70  
67 26 20 68 02 62 12 20 95 63 94 39 63 08 40 91 66 49 94 21  
24 55 58 05 66 73 99 26 97 17 78 78 96 83 14 88 34 89 63 72  
21 36 23 09 75 00 76 44 20 45 35 14 00 61 33 97 34 31 33 95  
78 17 53 28 22 75 31 67 15 94 03 80 04 62 16 14 09 53 56 92  
16 39 05 42 96 35 31 47 55 58 88 24 00 17 54 24 36 29 85 57  
86 56 00 48 35 71 89 07 05 44 44 37 44 60 21 58 51 54 17 58  
19 80 81 68 05 94 47 69 28 73 92 13 86 52 17 77 04 89 55 40  
04 52 08 83 97 35 99 16 07 97 57 32 16 26 26 79 33 27 98 66  
88 36 68 87 57 62 20 72 03 46 33 67 46 55 12 32 63 93 53 69  
04 42 16 73 38 25 39 11 24 94 72 18 08 46 29 32 40 62 76 36  
20 69 36 41 72 30 23 88 34 62 99 69 82 67 59 85 74 04 36 16  
20 73 35 29 78 31 90 01 74 31 49 71 48 86 81 16 23 57 05 54  
01 70 54 71 83 51 54 69 16 92 33 48 61 43 52 01 89 19 67 48

The product of these numbers is $26 \times 63 \times 78 \times 14 = 1788696$. Write a function that returns the greatest product of four adjacent numbers in the same direction (up, down, left, right, or diagonally) in the grid.

For convenience, this array has been saved in the file `grid.npy`. Use the following syntax to extract the array:

```python
>>> grid = np.load("grid.npy")
```

One way to approach this problem is to iterate through the rows and columns of the array, checking small slices of the array at each iteration and updating the current largest product. Array slicing, however, provides a much more efficient solution.
The naïve method for computing the greatest product of four adjacent numbers in a horizontal row might be as follows:

```python
>>> winner = 0
>>> for i in xrange(20):
...     for j in xrange(17):
...         winner = max(np.prod(grid[i,j:j+4]), winner)
... >>> winner
48477312
```

Instead, use array slicing to construct a single array where the \((i,j)\)th entry is the product of the four numbers to the right of the \((i,j)\)th entry in the original grid. Then find the largest element in the new array.

```python
>>> np.max(grid[:,:-3] * grid[:,1:-2] * grid[:,2:-1] * grid[:,3:])
48477312
```

Use slicing to similarly find the greatest products of four vertical, right diagonal, and left diagonal adjacent numbers.

(Hint: Consider drawing the portions of the grid that each slice in the above code covers, like the examples in the visual guide. Then draw the slices that produce vertical, right diagonal, or left diagonal sequences, and translate the pictures into slicing syntax.)
Additional Material

Random Sampling

The submodule `np.random` holds many functions for creating arrays of random values chosen from probability distributions such as the uniform, normal, and multinomial distributions. It also contains some utility functions for getting non-distributional random samples, such as random integers or random samples from a given array.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>choice()</td>
<td>Take random samples from a 1-D array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>random()</td>
<td>Uniformly distributed floats over [0, 1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>randint()</td>
<td>Random integers over a half-open interval.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>random_integers()</td>
<td>Random integers over a closed interval.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>randn()</td>
<td>Sample from the standard normal distribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>permutation()</td>
<td>Randomly permute a sequence / generate a random sequence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>beta()</td>
<td>Beta distribution over [0, 1].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binomial()</td>
<td>Binomial distribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exponential()</td>
<td>Exponential distribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gamma()</td>
<td>Gamma distribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>geometric()</td>
<td>Geometric distribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multinomial()</td>
<td>Multivariate generalization of the binomial distribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multivariate_normal()</td>
<td>Multivariate generalization of the normal distribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>normal()</td>
<td>Normal / Gaussian distribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poisson()</td>
<td>Poisson distribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uniform()</td>
<td>Uniform distribution.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
# 5 uniformly distributed values in the interval [0, 1).
>>> np.random.random(5)
array([ 0.21845499, 0.73352537, 0.28064456, 0.66878454, 0.44138609])

# A 2x5 matrix (2-D array) of integers in the interval [10, 20).
>>> np.random.randint(10, 20, (2,5))
array([[17, 12, 13, 13, 18],
       [16, 10, 12, 18, 12]])
```

Saving and Loading Arrays

It is often useful to save an array as a file. NumPy provides several easy methods for saving and loading array data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>save()</td>
<td>Save a single array to a .npy file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>savez()</td>
<td>Save multiple arrays to a .npz file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>savetxt()</td>
<td>Save a single array to a .txt file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>load()</td>
<td>Load and return an array or arrays from a .npy or .npz file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loadtxt()</td>
<td>Load and return an array from a text file.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Save a 100x100 matrix of uniformly distributed random values.
>>> x = np.random.random((100,100))
>>> np.save("uniform.npy", x) # Or np.savetxt("uniform.txt", x).

# Read the array from the file and check that it matches the original.
>>> y = np.load("uniform.npy") # Or np.loadtxt("uniform.txt").
>>> np.allclose(x, y) # Check that x and y are close entry-wise.
True

To save several arrays to a single file, specify a keyword argument for each array in np.savez(). Then np.load() will return a dictionary-like object with the keyword parameter names from the save command as the keys.

# Save two 100x100 matrices of normally distributed random values.
>>> x = np.random.randn(100,100)
>>> y = np.random.randn(100,100)
>>> np.savez("normal.npz", first=x, second=y)

# Read the arrays from the file and check that they match the original.
>>> arrays = np.loadz("normal.npz")
>>> np.allclose(x, arrays["first"])
True
>>> np.allclose(y, arrays["second"])
True

**Iterating Through Arrays**

Iterating through an array (using a `for` loop) negates most of the advantages of using NumPy. Avoid iterating through arrays as much as possible by using array broadcasting and universal functions. When absolutely necessary, use `np.nditer()` to create an efficient iterator for the array. See [http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/reference/arrays.nditer.html](http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/reference/arrays.nditer.html) for details.