SymPy & SciPy

— An Appetizer —

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Contents

Chapter 1

Preliminary Remarks

This tutorial demonstrates some of the most important features of *SymPy* and *SciPy*. *SymPy* and *SciPy* are modules that extend the programming language *Python*.

1. *SymPy* supports symbolic mathematics, i.e. it can be used to solve equations symbolically, or for symbolic integration.

2. *SciPy* implements a large number of numerical routines.

Both of the packages can be used without prior knowledge of the programming language *Python*. In this short paper we do not have the time to describe either *SymPy* or *SciPy* exhaustively. Rather, the idea is to arise the curiosity of the reader by describing some of the most interesting features.

1.1   Installation

This tutorial assumes that both *Python* and *SymPy* have been installed. *Python* can be installed by following the instructions given on

https://www.python.org/download/.

The module *SymPy* can be found at

http://docs.sympy.org/latest/install.html

and the module *SciPy* is available at

http://www.scipy.org/install.html

Alternatively, *Python*, *SciPy*, and *SymPy* can be installed via *Anaconda*. This is a lot simpler than installing *Python*, *SciPy*, and *SymPy* separately. The reason is that many systems (notably *Linux* and *Mac OS X*) already have *Python* preinstalled, since a lot of other packages depend on it. Fiddling around with the preinstalled version of *Python* can compromise the stability of the system.

Chapter 2

Introduction to *SymPy*

SymPy is the module that supports symbolic computation. In particular, *SymPy* is able to

1. perform symbolic differentiation and integration,

2. compute limits,

3. compute the Taylor series of a given function,

4. compute closed expressions for both finite sums and infinite series,

5. solve ordinary equations, recurrence equations, and differential equations.

We will demonstrate all these features in the following subsections.

To start *SymPy*, start a python interpreter by typing either the command `python` or `ipython` on the command line and issue the following command:

```
import sympy as sym
```

Now all functions $f()$ defined in the package `sympy` can be accessed as

```
sym.f().
```

Alternatively, we can also import everything of `sympy` into the global namespace via the following command :

```
from sympy import *
```

In this short tutorial, we will use the second method for the sake of brevity. This is a valid approach as long as we only intend to use *SymPy* as a symbolic calculator. If our intention had been to develop complex software that is built on top of *SymPy*, it would be far better to avoid the pollution of the namespace that is the consequence of importing everythong from `sympy`. In that case we really should use the `import` declaration presented first.

To get started, we need to define some symbolic variables. The commands

```
x = symbols("x")
y = symbols("y")
```

define two new symbolic variables that have the names "x" and "y". These symbolic variables are assigned to the *Python* variables `x` and `y`, respectively. There is a shorthand available to declare several symbolic variables simultaneously: In order to declare both "x" and "y" as symbolic variables, we could have used the following command:

```
x, y = symbols("x y")
```

Let us verify the first Binomial formula using the variable `x` and `y`. To do this, we issue the command

```
expand((x + y) * (x + y))
```

As the function `expand` tries to expand its argument, *SymPy* will respond with the expression

```
x**2 + 2*x*y + y**2.
```

This shows that the equation

$$(x + y) \cdot (x + y) = x^2 + 2 \cdot x \cdot y + y^2$$

is valid. For a more impressive result, we issue the command

```
expand((x + y) ** 5
```

The result is

```
x**5 + 5*x**4*y + 10*x**3*y**2 + 10*x**2*y**3 + 5*x*y**4 + y**5.
```

Since *Python* has a `for`-loop, we can also compute Pascal's triangle in one fell swoop by writing

```
for n in range(1, 7):   expand((x+y)**n)
```

Note that we have to press `return` two times when entering this command. This is necessary in order to notify *Python* that the `for` loop is finished. The result is:

```
x + y
x**2 + 2*x*y + y**2
x**3 + 3*x**2*y + 3*x*y**2 + y**3
x**4 + 4*x**3*y + 6*x**2*y**2 + 4*x*y**3 + y**4
x**5 + 5*x**4*y + 10*x**3*y**2 + 10*x**2*y**3 + 5*x*y**4 + y**5
x**6 + 6*x**5*y + 15*x**4*y**2 + 20*x**3*y**3 + 15*x**2*y**4 + 6*x*y**5 + y**6
```

The opposite of the command `expand` is the command `factor`. Suppose we want to know the solution of the equation

$$x^2 - 8 \cdot x + 15 = 0$$

and we suspect that the solutions are, in fact, integers. The command

```
factor(x ** 2 - 8 * x + 15)
```

yields the result

```
(x - 5)*(x - 3)
```

and thereby shows that

$$x^2 - 8 \cdot x + 15 = (x - 5) \cdot (x - 3).$$

2.1 Differentiation and Integration

In order to compute the derivative of

$$x \cdot \sin(x)$$

with respect to x we can write

```
diff(x * sin(x), x)
```

SymPy will compute the result

```
x*cos(x) + sin(x).
```

Symbolic integration is possible, too: To compute the indefinite integral

$$\int x \cdot \sin(x) \, dx$$

we issue the command

```
integrate(x * sin(x), x)
```

The result is

```
-x*cos(x) + sin(x).
```

Sympy can compute definite integrals. To compute the integral

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} \, dx$$

we issue the command

```
integrate(exp(-x ** 2), (x, -oo, oo))
```

The result is

```
sqrt(pi).
```

This show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} \, dx = \sqrt{\pi}.$$

Note the ∞ is represented as the variable `oo` in the module `sympy`.

2.2   Computation of Limits

SymPy supports the computation of limits. In order to verify that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n} = 0$$

we can issue the command

```
limit(sqrt(x+1) - sqrt(x), x, oo)
```

SmyPy indeed returns `0` as the result. As another example, the command

```
limit(sin(x)/x, x, 0)
```

shows that

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = 0.$$

2.3   Taylor Series

Many interesting functions can be approximated via a Taylor series. If $f(x)$ can be written as

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \cdot x^n,$$

then the coefficients a_n are given as

$$a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{n!}$$

where $f^{(n)}(x)$ denotes the n-th derivative of f. For example, the exponential function can be written as

$$\exp(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \cdot x^n$$

SymPy can compute the Taylor series of a given function up to a given value of n. For example,

to compute the Taylor series of the exponential function we can declare x to be a variable and then use the command

```
series(exp(x), x).
```

In this case, *SymPy* returns

```
1 + x + x**2/2 + x**3/6 + x**4/24 + x**5/120 + O(x**6),
```

showing the first 6 terms of the Taylor series. In order to compute the terms up to and including the term containing x^{10} we have to use the command

```
series(exp(x), x, n = 11)
```

In this case, *SymPy* returns the result

```
1 + x + x**2/2 + x**3/6 + x**4/24 + x**5/120 + x**6/720 + x**7/5040 +
x**8/40320 + x**9/362880 + x**10/3628800 + O(x**11).
```

2.4   Finite Sums and Infinite Series

In order to compute an analytical expression for the sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^3$$

we can issue the following commands:

```
i = symbols("i")
n = symbols("n")
summation(i**3, (i, 1, n))
```

The result is

```
n**4/4 + n**3/2 + n**2/4.
```

Therefore, we have shown that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^3 = \frac{n^4}{4} + \frac{n^3}{2} + \frac{n^2}{4}$$

holds. The command

```
summation(q**i, (i, 0, n))
```

yields the result

```
Piecewise((n + 1, q == 1), ((-q**(n + 1) + 1)/(-q + 1), True))
```

which shows that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} q^i = \begin{cases} n+1 & \text{for } q = 1; \\ \dfrac{1 - q^{n+1}}{1 - q} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that *SymPy* has discovered that the case $q = 1$ needs to be treated differently from the general case.

SymPy can evaluate infinite series. For example, the expression

```
summation(1/i ** 2, (i, 1, oo))
```

yields the result

```
pi**2/6
```

showing that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^2} = \frac{\pi}{6}.$$

2.5 Solving Equations

In order to solve the quadratic equation

$$x^2 - x - 1 = 0$$

we use the command

```
solve(x**2 - x - 1, x)
```

Since there are two solutions, the result is the list

```
[1/2 + sqrt(5)/2, -sqrt(5)/2 + 1/2].
```

To solve the system of linear equations

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x + y & = & 1 \\ x - y & = & -1 \end{array}$$

we can use the command

```
solve({x + y - 1, x - y + 1}, {x,y})
```

Note that we have to specify the equations as terms that are equal to 0. Therefore, the equation $x + y = 1$ has to be converted into $x + y - 1 = 0$. Also note that both the equations to solve and the variables to solve for have to be specified as sets.

2.6 Solving Recurrence Equations

Suppose we want to solve the recurrence equation

$$a(n + 2) = a(n + 1) + a(n) \quad \text{with the initial values } a(0) = 0 \text{ and } a(1) = 1.$$

To solve this recurrence equation, the following commands can be used:

```
a = Function('a')
n = symbols('n')
rsolve(a(n+2) - a(n+1) - a(n), a(n), { a(0):0, a(1):1 })
```

This function call solves the equation

```
a(n+2) - a(n+1) - a(n) = 0
```

for the function `a(n)` where the initial values are given as

```
a(0) = 0   and   a(1) = 1.
```

The solution that is computed is

```
sqrt(5)*(1/2 + sqrt(5)/2)**n/5 - sqrt(5)*(-sqrt(5)/2 + 1/2)**n/5.
```

When converted into LaTeX, this prints as

$$a(n) = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{5} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \frac{\sqrt{5}}{5} \left(-\frac{\sqrt{5}}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right)^n.$$

Incidentally, $a(n)$ is the n-th *Fibonacci number*.

2.7   Solving Differential Equations

In order to solve the differential equation

$$x \cdot \frac{df}{dx} - f(x) = x^2$$

we first declare f to be a function using the command

```
f = Function("f")
```

Then, issuing the command

```
dsolve(Eq(x * f(x).diff(x) - f(x), x), f(x))
```

yields the solution

```
x*(C1 + x)
```

which shows that for any $c_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ the function

$$f(x) = x \cdot (c_1 + x)$$

is a solution for the given differential equation.

2.8   Substitution and Simplification

In order to substitute a value for a variable, we can use the function `subs`. For example, after declaring `n` as a symbolic variable via

```
n = symbols("n")
```

we can define

```
expr = n * (n+1) / 2
```

and then use the function `subs` to substitute `n+1` for `n` as follows:

```
expr.subs(n, n+1).
```

This yields the result

```
(n + 1)*(n + 2)/2.
```

We can simplify an expression using the function `simplify`. Figure 2.1 shows a short program that can be used to verify a formula like

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i \cdot (i+1)} = \frac{n}{n+1} \tag{1}$$

by induction. We discuss this function line by line.

1. The purpose of the function call

   $$\texttt{verifySum}(s, e, i, n)$$

   is to prove the formula

   $$\sum_{i=1}^{n} e = s \tag{2}$$

   by mathematical induction. Here, e denotes an expression containing the variable i, while s is an expression containing the variable n. For example,

   ```
   verifySum(n / (n + 1), 1/(i*(i+1)), i, n)
   ```

   would try to verify the formula (1) by mathematical induction.

```
1   from sympy import *
2
3   n = symbols("n")
4   i = symbols("i")
5
6   def verifySum(s, e, i, n):
7       """
8       check by induction whether the folowing equation holds:
9               sum(e(i), i=1..n) == s
10      """
11      lhs = e.subs(i, 1)
12      rhs = s.subs(n, 1)
13      base_case = simplify(lhs - rhs)
14      lhs = s + e.subs(i, n+1)
15      rhs = s.subs(n, n + 1)
16      induction_step = simplify(lhs - rhs)
17      return base_case == 0 and induction_step == 0
18
19  def test(s, e, i, n):
20      if verifySum(s, e, i, n):
21          print "sum(" + str(e) + ", " + str(i) + "= 1.." + str(n) + ") = " + str(s)
22      else:
23          print "unable to prove:"
24          print "sum(" + str(e) + ", " + str(i) + "= 1.." + str(n) + ") == " + str(s)
25
26  s = n / (n + 1)
27  test(s, 1/(i*(i+1)), i, n)
```

Figure 2.1: A function to prove a summation formula by induction.

2. In order to verify the base case, we have to substitute the number 1 for the variable `i` in the expression `e` and and we have to substitute the number 1 for the variable `n` in the expression `s`. The resulting expressions are called `lhs` and `rhs` in line 11 and line 12 of Figure 2.1, respectively. In order to check that these expressin have the same value, we simplify their difference using the function call

   > `simplify(lhs - rhs).`

   If this function call returns 0, we can be sure that `lhs` and `rhs` have the same value.

3. For the induction step, we have to substitute `n+1` for the variable `i` in the expression `e` and add the resulting expression to the expression `s`. If the resulting expression is the same as the expression we get when substituting `n+1` for `n` in `s`, then the formula (2) has been proven by mathematical induction.

2.9   Miscellaneous

In the following subsections we discuss some minor issues and helper functions.

2.9.1   Dealing with Rational Numbers

In *Python*, an expression of the form

```
1/3
```

is not interpreted as the rational number $\frac{1}{3}$. Instead, in *Python* 2, this is truncated to 0, while *Python* 3 converts this into the floating point number 0.3333333333333333. Neither of these behaviors is acceptable when doing symbolic computations. In order to avoid this pitfall, we should use the expression

```
Rational(1,3)
```

This creates the rational number $\dfrac{1}{3}$ which is printed as `1/3`.

2.9.2   Converting output to LaTeX

Sometimes it is useful to convert the output produced by a *SymPy* function into LaTeX. For example, the command

```
solve(x**3 + 2 * x + 1, x)
```

produces the following output:

```
[2/(3*(-1/2 - sqrt(3)*I/2)*(1/2 + sqrt(177)/18)**(1/3)) -
 (-1/2 - sqrt(3)*I/2)*(1/2 + sqrt(177)/18)**(1/3),
 -(-1/2 + sqrt(3)*I/2)*(1/2 + sqrt(177)/18)**(1/3) +
 2/(3*(-1/2 + sqrt(3)*I/2)*(1/2 + sqrt(177)/18)**(1/3)),
 -(1/2 + sqrt(177)/18)**(1/3) +
 2/(3*(1/2 + sqrt(177)/18)**(1/3))
]
```

Since this is hard to read, we might want to convert this into LaTeX using the command

```
latex(solve(x**3 + 2 * x + 1, x))
```

This will produce LaTeX output that can be typeset as

$$z_1 \;=\; \frac{2}{3\left(-\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}i}{2}\right)\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{177}}{18}}} - \left(-\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}i}{2}\right)\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{177}}{18}},$$

$$z_2 \;=\; -\left(-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}i}{2}\right)\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{177}}{18}} + \frac{2}{3\left(-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}i}{2}\right)\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{177}}{18}}},$$

$$z_3 \;=\; -\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{177}}{18}} + \frac{2}{3\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{177}}{18}}},$$

where z_1, z_2, and z_3 are the three solutions to the third order equation

$$z^3 + 2 \cdot z + 1 = 0.$$

In this case, I had to massage the output produced by the function `latex` manually, but I only had to do minor edits to achieve the result displayed above.

Chapter 3

Introduction to *SciPy*

In this short section we will show how *SciPy* can be used for

1. solving equations numerically,

2. numerical integration, and

3. linear algebra.

3.1 Solving Equations

Suppose we want to solve the equation

$$\cos(x) - x = 0$$

numerically. Since the function $f(x) := \cos(x) - x$ has a sign change in the intervall $[0, \pi/2]$ the *intermediate value theorem* tells us that a solution to this equation exists. In order to solve this equation, we can use the following commands:

```
from scipy import *
from scipy.optimize import root
root(lambda x:  x - cos(x), 0)
```

This will produce the following output:

```
 status: 1
success: True
    qtf: array([  2.66786593e-13])
   nfev: 9
      r: array([-1.67361202])
    fun: array([ 0.])
      x: array([ 0.73908513])
message: 'The solution converged.'
   fjac: array([[-1.]])
```

This shows that the equation has the solution x = 0.73908513.

3.2 Numerical Integration

Suppose we need to evaluate the integral

$$\int\limits_{0}^{1} e^{\sin(x)} dx$$

Unfortunately, this integral can not be evaluated symbolically. If we would try *SymPy*'s `integrate` command, we would be left with the result

```
Integral(exp(sin(x)), (x, 0, 1)).
```

This result indicates that *SymPy* is not able to evaluate this integral in closed terms. In order to evaluate this integral at least numerically, we first import the modules needed via the commmands

```
from scipy import *
from scipy.integrate import quad
```

Then, we can use the command

```
quad(lambda x:  exp(sin(x)), 0, 1)
```

The result of this command is the pair

```
(1.6318696084180513, 1.8117392124517587e-14).
```

The first component of this pair is the value of the integral, while the second value is the precision.

3.3 Linear Algebra

Assume we have been given the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and we want to compute the inverse of A as well as the eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors. In order to do so, we first import the module `numpy` via the command

```
import numpy as np
```

Then, we can define the matrix A as follows:

```
A = np.mat("[3 1 3; 1 3 1; 3 1 0]")
```

Next, we import the `linalg` module that contains the functions supporting linear algebra:

```
from scipy import linalg
```

Then, the command

```
linalg.inv(A)
```

yields the output

```
array([[ 0.04166667, -0.125      ,  0.33333333],
       [-0.125      ,  0.375      ,  0.        ],
       [ 0.33333333,  0.          , -0.33333333]])
```

This shows that

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{24} & -\frac{1}{8} & \frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{8} & \frac{3}{8} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & 0 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Next let us compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We define A via the following command:

```
A = np.mat("[4 1; 1 4]")
```

To compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A we can use the command:

```
linalg.eig(A)
```

This will produce the output

```
(array([ 5.+0.j,   3.+0.j]),
 array([[ 0.70710678, -0.70710678],
        [ 0.70710678,  0.70710678]])).
```

The first array contains the eigenvalues. These are 5 and 3, respectively. Note that their imaginary component is zero. In *Python*, the complex number $z = a + b \cdot i$ is written as

$$a + b\texttt{j}$$

where a is the real part while b is the complex part. The second array contains the corresponding eigenvectors. The length of the eigenvectors is 1. Effectively, the eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue 5 is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

while the eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue 3 is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Chapter 4

Plotting using `Matplotlib`

Python has a module called `matplotlib` that is capable of producing high quality plots of data. In order to use it, we have to use the following import declarations:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
```

The module `numpy` provides some basic numerical routines that come in handy when plotting functions. As an example, let us plot the sine function in the interval from $-2 \cdot \pi$ to $2 \cdot \pi$. In order to do this, we first create an array of x-values via the command

```
xs = np.linspace(-2*np.pi, 2*np.pi, 200)
```

This command creates an array of a 200 values evenly spaced between $-2 \cdot \pi$ and $2 \cdot \pi$. Next, we need to compute the corresponding values of the sine function. This can be done using the command

```
ys = [np.sin(x) for x in xs]
```

Now we are ready to start some plotting. Since we would like to have the plot appear immediately after typing the `plot` command, we activate the *interactive mode* via the command:

```
plt.ion()
```

This enables us to build a plot incrementally. Then, we create a plot of the sine in the intervall $[-2 \cdot \pi, 2 \cdot \pi]$ using the command:

```
plt.plot(xs, ys)
```

This command causes a window to pop up that contains the plot shown in Figure . If we had not used the command `plt.ion()` to turn on interactive mode we would have to issue the command

```
plt.show()
```

to make the plot visible.

We can add a plot of the cosine to the plot of the sine using the commands:

```
zs = np.cos(xs)
```

```
plt.plot(xs, zs)
```

The resulting plot is shown in Figure .

We should add some decorations to the plot. For example, the plot still needs a title and we should put labels at the axis. All this is done using the following commands:

```
plt.title("The function sin(x)")
plt.xlabel("x")
```
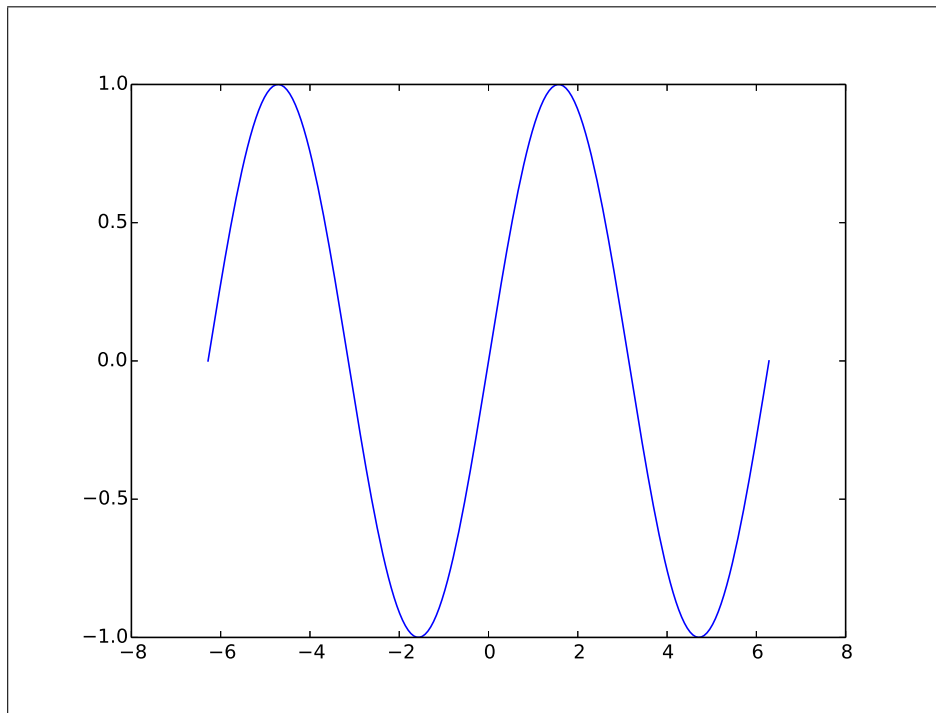
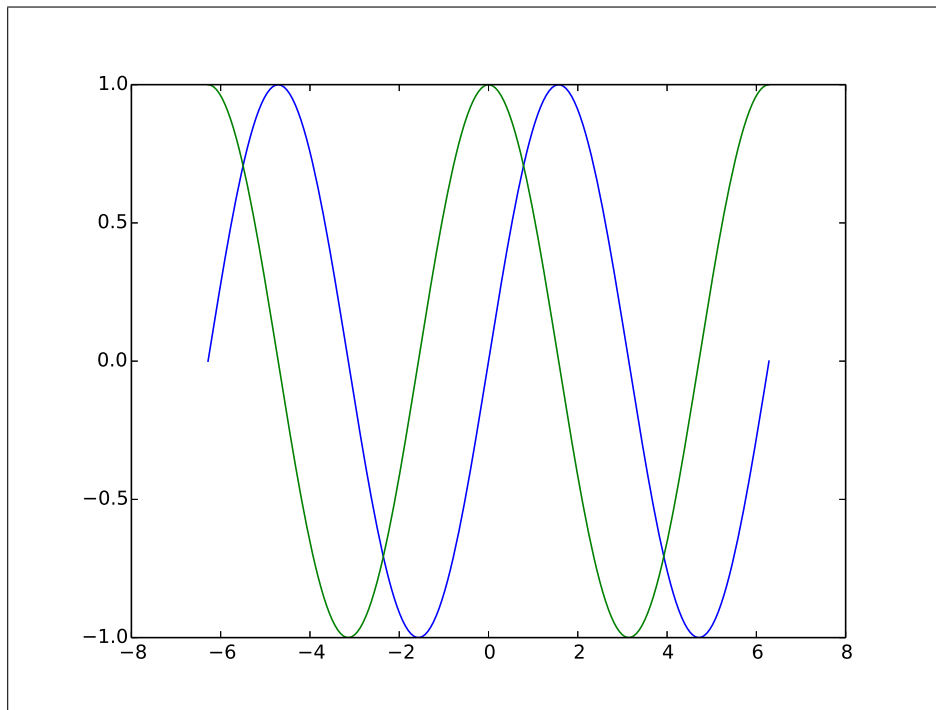Figure 4.1: A plot of the naked sine function in the interval $[-2 \cdot \pi, 2 \cdot \pi]$.

Figure 4.2: A plot of the sine and cosine functions in the interval $[-2 \cdot \pi, 2 \cdot \pi]$.

```
plt.ylabel("sin(x) vs.  cos(x)")
```
Finally, the command

```
plt.savefig("sine-and-cosine.eps")
```

will save the plot as an encapsulated postscript file. We can also store the plot in other formats like, e.g. `jpg` or `png`. The resulting plot is shown in Figure 4.3.
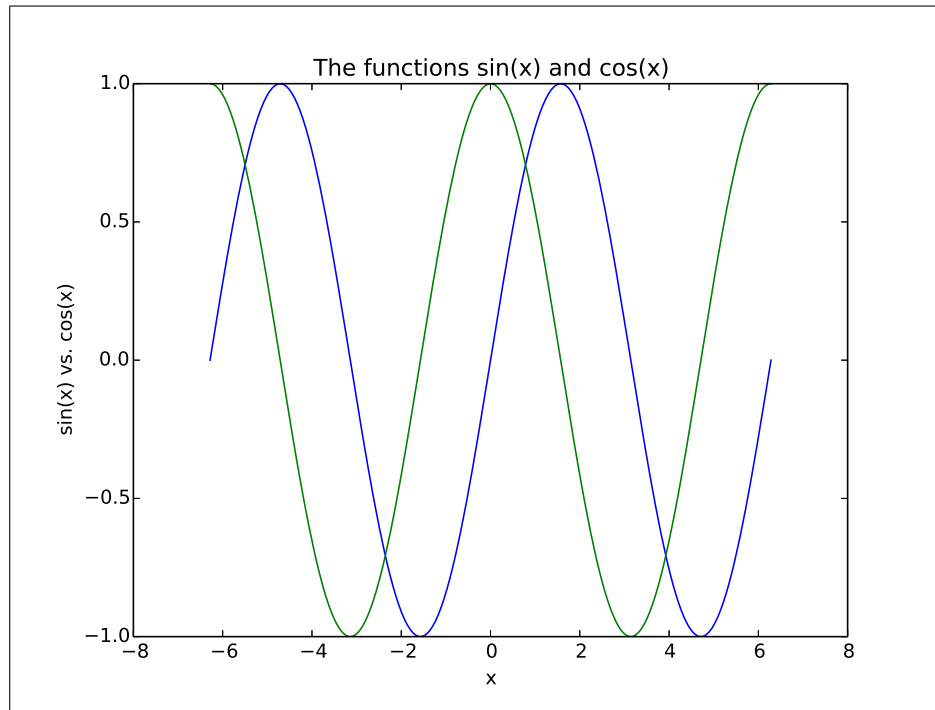

Figure 4.3: A plot of the sine function in the interval $[-\pi, \pi]$.

There are lots of options to tweak the figures produced with `matplotlib`. Unfortunately, we do not have the time to cover this topic in more depth. Instead, I would encourage you to visit

http://matplotlib.org

for further information.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

The combination of *Python*, *SymPy*, *Scipy*, and *Matplotlib* is a very powerful and versatile toolbox. Unfortunately, this short paper can only serve as an appetizer. In order to get a deeper understanding of the above mentioned tools, the lectures of J.R. Johansson, which are available at

<div align="center">

http://github.com/jrjohansson/scientific-python-lectures,

</div>

are a good starting point for further investigations.