

SymPy: Symbolic Computing in Python

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53 ABSTRACT

54 SymPy is an open source computer algebra system written in pure Python. It is built with a focus on
55 extensibility and ease of use, through both interactive and programmatic applications. These characteristics
56 have led SymPy to become a popular symbolic library for the scientific Python ecosystem. This paper
57 presents the architecture of SymPy, a description of its features, and a discussion of select domain specific
58 submodules.

59 Keywords: Keyword1, Keyword2, Keyword3

60 1 INTRODUCTION

61 SymPy is a full featured computer algebra system (CAS) written in the Python programming
62 language [25]. It is free and open source software, licensed under the 3-clause BSD license [37].
63 The SymPy project was started by Ondřej Čertík in 2005, and it has since grown to over 500
64 contributors. Currently, SymPy is developed on GitHub using a bazaar community model [33].
65 The accessibility of the codebase and the open community model allow SymPy to rapidly respond
66 to the needs of users and developers.

67 Python is a dynamically typed programming language that has a focus on ease of use and
68 readability. Due in part to this focus, it has become a popular language for scientific computing
69 and data science, with a broad ecosystem of libraries [28]. SymPy is itself used by many libraries
70 and tools to support research within a variety of domains, such as Sage [40] (pure mathematics),
71 yt [45] (astronomy and astrophysics), PyDy [15] (multibody dynamics), and SfePy [10] (finite
72 elements).

73 Unlike many CASs, SymPy does not invent its own programming language. Python itself
74 is used both for the internal implementation and end user interaction. By using the operator
75 overloading functionality of Python, SymPy follows the embedded domain specific language
76 paradigm proposed by Hudak [20]. The exclusive usage of a single programming language makes
77 it easier for people already familiar with that language to use or develop SymPy. Simultaneously,
78 it enables developers to focus on mathematics, rather than language design.

79 SymPy is designed with a strong focus on usability as a library. Extensibility is important in
80 its application program interface (API) design. Thus, SymPy makes no attempt to extend the
81 Python language itself. The goal is for users of SymPy to be able to include SymPy alongside
82 other Python libraries in their workflow, whether that be in an interactive environment or as a
83 programmatic part in a larger system.

84 As a library, SymPy does not have a built-in graphical user interface (GUI). However, SymPy
85 exposes a rich interactive display system, and supports registering printers with Jupyter [30]
86 frontends, including the Notebook and Qt Console, which will render SymPy expressions using
87 MathJax [9] or \LaTeX .

88 The remainder of this paper discusses key components of the SymPy software. Section 2
89 discusses the architecture of SymPy. Section 3 enumerates the features of SymPy and takes
90 a closer look at some of the important ones. The section 4 looks at the numerical features of
91 SymPy and its dependency library, mpmath. Section 5 looks at the domain specific physics
92 submodules for performing symbolic and numerical calculations in classical mechanics and
93 quantum mechanics. Conclusions and future directions for SymPy are given in section 6.

94 2 ARCHITECTURE

95 Software architecture is of central importance in any large software project because it establishes
96 predictable patterns of usage and development [39]. This section describes the essential structural
97 components of SymPy, provides justifications for the design decisions that have been made, and
98 gives example user-facing code as appropriate.

2.1 Basic Usage

The following statement imports all SymPy functions into the global Python namespace. From here on, all examples in this paper assume that this statement has been executed.

```
>>> from sympy import *
```

Symbolic variables, called symbols, must be defined and assigned to Python variables before they can be used. This is typically done through the `symbols` function, which may create multiple symbols in a single function call. For instance,

```
>>> x, y, z = symbols('x y z')
```

creates three symbols representing variables named x , y , and z . In this particular instance, these symbols are all assigned to Python variables of the same name. However, the user is free to assign them to different Python variables, while representing the same symbol, such as `a`, `b`, `c = symbols('x y z')`. In order to minimize potential confusion, though, all examples in this paper will assume that the symbols x , y , and z have been assigned to Python variables identical to their symbolic names.

Expressions are created from symbols using Python's mathematical syntax. For instance, the following Python code creates the expression $(x^2 - 2x + 3)/y$.

```
>>> (x**2 - 2*x + 3)/y
(x**2 - 2*x + 3)/y
```

Importantly, SymPy expressions are immutable. This simplifies the design of SymPy by allowing expression interning. It also enables expressions to be hashed and stored in Python dictionaries, thereby permitting features such as caching.

2.2 The Core

A computer algebra system (CAS) represents mathematical expressions as data structures. For example, the mathematical expression $x + y$ is represented as a tree with three nodes, $+$, x , and y , where x and y are ordered children of $+$. As users manipulate mathematical expressions with traditional mathematical syntax, the CAS manipulates the underlying data structures. Automated optimizations and computations such as integration, simplification, etc. are all functions that consume and produce expression trees.

In SymPy every symbolic expression is an instance of a Python `Basic` class, a superclass of all SymPy types providing common methods to all SymPy tree-elements, such as traversals. The children of a node in the tree are held in the `args` attribute. A terminal or leaf node in the expression tree has empty `args`.

For example, consider the expression $xy + 2$:

```
>>> expr = x*y + 2
```

By order of operations, the parent of the expression tree for `expr` is an addition, so it is of type `Add`. The child nodes of `expr` are 2 and `x*y`.

```
>>> type(expr)
<class 'sympy.core.add.Add'>
>>> expr.args
(2, x*y)
```

Descending further down into the expression tree yields the full expression. For example, the next child node (given by `expr.args[0]`) is 2. Its class is `Integer`, and it has an empty `args` tuple, indicating that it is a leaf node.

```
>>> expr.args[0]
2
>>> type(expr.args[0])
<class 'sympy.core.numbers.Integer'>
>>> expr.args[0].args
()
```

A useful way to view an expression tree is using the `srepr` function, which returns a string representation of an expression as valid Python code with all the nested class constructor calls to create the given expression.

```
>>> srepr(expr)
"Add(Mul(Symbol('x'), Symbol('y')), Integer(2))"
```

Every SymPy expression satisfies a key identity invariant:

```
expr.func(*expr.args) == expr
```

This means that expressions are rebuildable from their `args`.¹ Note that in SymPy the `==` operator represents exact structural equality, not mathematical equality. This allows testing if any two expressions are equal to one another as expression trees. For example, even though $(x+1)^2$ and x^2+2x+1 are equal mathematically, SymPy gives

```
>>> (x + 1)**2 == x**2 + 2*x + 1
False
```

because they are different as expression trees (the former is a `Pow` object and the latter is an `Add` object).

Python allows classes to override mathematical operators. The Python interpreter translates the above `x*y + 2` to, roughly, `(x.__mul__(y)).__add__(2)`. Both `x` and `y`, returned from the `symbols` function, are `Symbol` instances. The `2` in the expression is processed by Python as a literal, and is stored as Python's built in `int` type. When `2` is passed to the `__add__` method of `Symbol`, it is converted to the SymPy type `Integer(2)` before being stored in the resulting expression tree. In this way, SymPy expressions can be built in the natural way using Python operators and numeric literals.

2.3 Assumptions

SymPy performs logical inference through its assumptions system. The assumptions system allows users to specify that symbols have certain common mathematical properties, such as being positive, imaginary, or integral. SymPy is careful to never perform simplifications on an expression unless the assumptions allow them. For instance, the identity $\sqrt{t^2} = t$ holds if t is nonnegative ($t \geq 0$). However, for general complex t , no such identity holds.

By default, SymPy performs all calculations assuming that symbols are complex valued. This assumption makes it easier to treat mathematical problems in full generality.

```
>>> t = Symbol('t')
>>> sqrt(t**2)
sqrt(t**2)
```

By assuming the most general case, that symbols are complex by default, SymPy avoids performing mathematically invalid operations. However, in many cases users will wish to simplify expressions containing terms like $\sqrt{t^2}$.

Assumptions are set on `Symbol` objects when they are created. For instance `Symbol('t', positive=True)` will create a symbol named `t` that is assumed to be positive.

```
>>> t = Symbol('t', positive=True)
>>> sqrt(t**2)
t
```

Some of the common assumptions that SymPy allows are `positive`, `negative`, `real`, `nonpositive`, `integer`, `prime` and `commutative`.² Assumptions on any object can be checked with the `is_assumption` attributes, like `t.is_positive`.

Assumptions are only needed to restrict a domain so that certain simplifications can be performed. They are not required to make the domain match the input of a function. For instance,

¹`expr.func` is used instead of `type(expr)` to allow the function of an expression to be distinct from its actual Python class. In most cases the two are the same.

²If A and B are Symbols created with `commutative=False` then SymPy will keep $A \cdot B$ and $B \cdot A$ distinct.

one can create the object $\sum_{n=0}^m f(n)$ as `Sum(f(n), (n, 0, m))` without setting `integer=True` when creating the `Symbol` object `n`.

The assumptions system additionally has deductive capabilities. The assumptions use a three-valued logic using the Python built in objects `True`, `False`, and `None`. Note that `False` is returned if the `SymPy` object doesn't or can't have the assumption. For example, both `I.is_real` and `I.is_prime` return `False` for the imaginary unit `I`.

`None` represents the “unknown” case. This could mean that given assumptions do not unambiguously specify the truth of an attribute. For instance, `Symbol('x', real=True).is_positive` will give `None` because a real symbol might be positive or negative. The `None` could also mean that not enough is known or implemented to compute the given fact. For instance, `(pi + E).is_irrational` gives `None`, because determining whether $\pi + e$ is rational or irrational is an open problem in mathematics [24].

Basic implications between the facts are used to deduce assumptions. For instance, the assumptions system knows that being an integer implies being rational, so `Symbol('x', integer=True).is_rational` returns `True`. Furthermore, expressions compute the assumptions on themselves based on the assumptions of their arguments. For instance, if `x` and `y` are both created with `positive=True`, then `(x + y).is_positive` will be `True` whereas `(x - y).is_positive` will be `None`.

2.4 Extensibility

While the core of `SymPy` is relatively small, it has been extended to a wide variety of domains by a broad range of contributors. This is due in part because the same language, Python, is used both for the internal implementation and the external usage by users. All of the extensibility capabilities available to users are also utilized by `SymPy` itself. This eases the transition pathway from `SymPy` user to `SymPy` developer.

The typical way to create a custom `SymPy` object is to subclass an existing `SymPy` class, usually `Basic`, `Expr`, or `Function`. All `SymPy` classes used for expression trees³ should be subclasses of the base class `Basic`, which defines some basic methods for symbolic expression trees. `Expr` is the subclass for mathematical expressions that can be added and multiplied together. Instances of `Expr` typically represent complex numbers, but may also include other “rings” like matrix expressions. Not all `SymPy` classes are subclasses of `Expr`. For instance, logic expressions such as `And(x, y)` are subclasses of `Basic` but not of `Expr`.

The `Function` class is a subclass of `Expr` which makes it easier to define mathematical functions called with arguments. This includes named functions like $\sin(x)$ and $\log(x)$ as well as undefined functions like $f(x)$. Subclasses of `Function` should define a class method `eval`, which returns a canonical form of the function application (usually an instance of some other class, i.e. a `Number`) or `None`, if for given arguments that function should not be automatically evaluated.

Many `SymPy` functions perform various evaluations down the expression tree. Classes define their behavior in such functions by defining a relevant `_eval_*` method. For instance, an object can indicate to the `diff` function how to take the derivative of itself by defining the `_eval_derivative(self, x)` method, which may in turn call `diff` on its args. (Subclasses of `Function` should implement `fdiff` method instead, it returns the derivative of the function without considering the chain rule.) The most common `_eval_*` methods relate to the assumptions: `_eval_is_assumption` is used to deduce *assumption* on the object.

As an example of the notions presented in this section, Listing 1 presents a minimal version of the gamma function $\Gamma(x)$ from `SymPy`, which evaluates itself on positive integer arguments, has the positive and real assumptions defined, can be rewritten in terms of factorial with `gamma(x).rewrite(factorial)`, and can be differentiated. `self.func` is used throughout instead of referencing `gamma` explicitly so that potential subclasses of `gamma` can reuse the methods.

Listing 1. A minimal implementation of `sympy.gamma`.

```
from sympy import Integer, Function, floor, factorial, polygamma

class gamma(Function)
```

³Some internal classes, such as those used in the polynomial module, do not follow this rule for efficiency reasons.

```

244     @classmethod
245     def eval(cls, arg):
246         if isinstance(arg, Integer) and arg.is_positive:
247             return factorial(arg - 1)
248
249     def _eval_is_positive(self):
250         x = self.args[0]
251         if x.is_positive:
252             return True
253         elif x.is_noninteger:
254             return floor(x).is_even
255
256     def _eval_is_real(self):
257         x = self.args[0]
258         # noninteger means real and not integer
259         if x.is_positive or x.is_noninteger:
260             return True
261
262     def _eval_rewrite_as_factorial(self, z):
263         return factorial(z - 1)
264
265     def fdiff(self, argindex=1):
266         from sympy.core.function import ArgumentIndexError
267         if argindex == 1:
268             return self.func(self.args[0])*polygamma(0, self.args[0])
269         else:
270             raise ArgumentIndexError(self, argindex)

```

271 The gamma function implemented in SymPy has many more capabilities than the above listing,
272 such as evaluation at rational points and series expansion.

273 3 FEATURES

274 Although SymPy's extensive feature set cannot be covered in-depth in this paper, calculus and
275 other bedrock areas are discussed in their own subsections. Additionally, Table 1 gives a compact
276 listing of all major capabilities present in the SymPy codebase. This grants a sampling from the
277 breadth of topics and application domains that SymPy services. Unless stated otherwise, all
278 features noted in Table 1 are symbolic in nature. Numeric features are discussed in Section 4.

Table 1. SymPy Features and Descriptions

Feature	Description
Calculus	Algorithms for computing derivatives, integrals, and limits.
Category Theory	Representation of objects, morphisms, and diagrams. Tools for drawing diagrams with Xy-pic.
Code Generation	Generation of compilable and executable code in a variety of different programming languages from expressions directly. Target languages include C, Fortran, Julia, JavaScript, Mathematica, MATLAB and Octave, Python, and Theano.
Combinatorics & Group Theory	Permutations, combinations, partitions, subsets, various permutation groups (such as polyhedral, Rubik, symmetric, and others), Gray codes [27], and Prufer sequences [4].
Concrete Math	Summation, products, tools for determining whether summation and product expressions are convergent, absolutely convergent, hypergeometric, and for determining other properties; computation of Gosper's normal form [32] for two univariate polynomials.

Cryptography	Block and stream ciphers, including shift, Affine, substitution, Vigenère's, Hill's, bifid, RSA, Kid RSA, linear-feedback shift registers, and Elgamal encryption.
Differential Geometry	Representations of manifolds, metrics, tensor products, and coordinate systems in Riemannian and pseudo-Riemannian geometries [41].
Geometry	Representations of 2D geometrical entities, such as lines and circles. Enables queries on these entities, such as asking the area of an ellipse, checking for collinearity of a set of points, or finding the intersection between objects.
Lie Algebras	Representations of Lie algebras and root systems.
Logic	Boolean expressions, equivalence testing, satisfiability, and normal forms.
Matrices	Tools for creating matrices of symbols and expressions. Both sparse and dense representations, as well as symbolic linear algebraic operations (e.g., inversion and factorization), are supported.
Matrix Expressions	Matrices with symbolic dimensions (unspecified entries). Block matrices.
Number Theory	Prime number generation, primality testing, integer factorization, continued fractions, Egyptian fractions, modular arithmetic, quadratic residues, partitions, binomial and multinomial coefficients, prime number tools, hexadecimal digits of π , and integer factorization.
Plotting	Hooks for visualizing expressions via matplotlib [21] or as text drawings when lacking a graphical back-end. 2D function plotting, 3D function plotting, and 2D implicit function plotting are supported.
Polynomials	Polynomial algebras over various coefficient domains. Functionality ranges from simple operations (e.g., polynomial division) to advanced computations (e.g., Gröbner bases [1] and multivariate factorization over algebraic number domains).
Printing	Functions for printing SymPy expressions in the terminal with ASCII or Unicode characters and converting SymPy expressions to \LaTeX and MathML.
Quantum Mechanics	Quantum states, bra-ket notation, operators, basis sets, representations, tensor products, inner products, outer products, commutators, anticommutators, and specific quantum system implementations.
Series	Series expansion, sequences, and limits of sequences. This includes Taylor, Laurent, and Puiseux series as well as special series, such as Fourier and formal power series.
Sets	Representations of empty, finite, and infinite sets. This includes special sets such as for all natural, integer, and complex numbers. Operations on sets such as union, intersection, Cartesian product, and building sets from other sets are supported.
Simplification	Functions for manipulating and simplifying expressions. Includes algorithms for simplifying hypergeometric functions, trigonometric expressions, rational functions, combinatorial functions, square root denesting, and common subexpression elimination.
Solvers	Functions for symbolically solving equations, systems of equations, both linear and non-linear, inequalities, ordinary differential equations, partial differential equations, Diophantine equations, and recurrence relations.

Special Functions	Implementations of a number of well known special functions, including Dirac delta, Gamma, Beta, Gauss error functions, Fresnel integrals, Exponential integrals, Logarithmic integrals, Trigonometric integrals, Bessel, Hankel, Airy, B-spline, Riemann Zeta, Dirichlet eta, polylogarithm, Lerch transcendent, hypergeometric, elliptic integrals, Mathieu, Jacobi polynomials, Gegenbauer polynomial, Chebyshev polynomial, Legendre polynomial, Hermite polynomial, Laguerre polynomial, and spherical harmonic functions.
Statistics	Support for a random variable type as well as the ability to declare this variable from prebuilt distribution functions such as Normal, Exponential, Coin, Die, and other custom distributions [36].
Tensors	Symbolic manipulation of indexed objects.
Vectors	Basic operations on vectors and differential calculus with respect to 3D Cartesian coordinate systems.

3.1 Simplification

The generic way to simplify an expression is by calling the `simplify` function. It must be emphasized that simplification is not a rigorously defined mathematical operation [8]. The `simplify` function applies several simplification routines along with heuristics to make the output expression “simple”.⁴

It is often preferable to apply more directed simplification functions. These apply very specific rules to the input expression and are typically able to make guarantees about the output. For instance, the `factor` function, given a polynomial with rational coefficients in several variables, is guaranteed to produce a factorization into irreducible factors. Table 2 lists common simplification functions.

Table 2. Some SymPy Simplification Functions

<code>expand</code>	expand the expression
<code>factor</code>	factor a polynomial into irreducibles
<code>collect</code>	collect polynomial coefficients
<code>cancel</code>	rewrite a rational function as p/q with common factors canceled
<code>apart</code>	compute the partial fraction decomposition of a rational function
<code>trigsimp</code>	simplify trigonometric expressions [14]
<code>hyperexpand</code>	expand hypergeometric functions [34, 35]

3.2 Calculus

Integrals are calculated with the `integrate` function. SymPy implements a combination of the Risch algorithm [6], table lookups, a reimplement of Manuel Bronstein’s “Poor Man’s Integrator” [5], and an algorithm for computing integrals based on Meijer G-functions [34, 35]. These allow SymPy to compute a wide variety of indefinite and definite integrals. The Meijer G-function algorithm and the Risch algorithm are respectively demonstrated below by the computation of

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} \log(t) dt = -\frac{\log(s) + \gamma}{s}$$

and

$$\int \frac{-2x^2 (\log(x) + 1) e^{x^2} + (e^{x^2} + 1)^2}{x (e^{x^2} + 1)^2 (\log(x) + 1)} dx = \log(\log(x) + 1) + \frac{1}{e^{x^2} + 1}.$$

⁴The `measure` parameter of the `simplify` function lets specify the Python function used to determine how complex an expression is. The default measure function returns the total number of operations in the expression.


```

290 >>> s, t = symbols('s t', positive=True)
291 >>> integrate(exp(-s*t)*log(t), (t, 0, oo)).simplify()
292 -(log(s) + EulerGamma)/s
293 >>> integrate((-2*x**2*(log(x) + 1)*exp(x**2) +
294 ... (exp(x**2) + 1)**2)/(x*(exp(x**2) + 1)**2*(log(x) + 1)), x)
295 log(log(x) + 1) + 1/(exp(x**2) + 1)

```

Derivatives are computed with the `diff` function, which recursively uses the various differentiation rules.

```

296 >>> diff(sin(x)*exp(x), x)
297 exp(x)*sin(x) + exp(x)*cos(x)

```

Summations are computed with `summation` using a combination of Gosper's algorithm [17], an algorithm that uses Meijer G-functions [34, 35], and heuristics. Products are computed with `product` function via a suite of heuristics.

```

300 >>> i, n = symbols('i n')
301 >>> summation(2**i, (i, 0, n - 1))
302 2**n - 1
303 >>> summation(i*factorial(i), (i, 1, n))
304 n*factorial(n) + factorial(n) - 1

```

Limits are computed with the `limit` function, using the Gruntz algorithm [18] for computing symbolic limits and heuristics (a description of the Gruntz algorithm may be found in the supplement). For example, the following computes $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \sin(\frac{1}{x}) = 1$. Note that SymPy denotes ∞ as `oo`.

```

310 >>> limit(x*sin(1/x), x, oo)
311 1

```

As a more complex example, SymPy computes

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(2e^{\frac{1 - \cos(x)}{\sin(x)}} - 1 \right)^{\frac{\sinh(x)}{\operatorname{atan}^2(x)}} = e.$$

```

314 >>> limit((2*E**((1-cos(x))/sin(x))-1)**(sinh(x)/atan(x)**2), x, 0)
315 E

```

Integrals, derivatives, summations, products, and limits that cannot be computed return unevaluated objects. These can also be created directly if the user chooses.

```

316 >>> integrate(x**x, x)
317 Integral(x**x, x)
318 >>> Sum(2**i, (i, 0, n - 1))
319 Sum(2**i, (i, 0, n - 1))

```

3.3 Polynomials

SymPy implements a suite of algorithms for polynomial manipulation, which ranges from relatively simple algorithms for doing arithmetic of polynomials, to advanced methods for factoring multivariate polynomials into irreducibles, symbolically determining real and complex root isolation intervals, or computing Gröbner bases.

Polynomial manipulation is useful in its own right. Within SymPy, though, it is mostly used indirectly as a tool in other areas of the library. In fact, many mathematical problems in symbolic computing are first expressed using entities from the symbolic core, preprocessed, and then transformed into a problem in the polynomial algebra, where generic and efficient algorithms are used to solve the problem. The solutions to the original problem are subsequently recovered from the results. This is a common scheme in symbolic integration or summation algorithms.

334 SymPy implements dense and sparse polynomial representations.⁵ Both are used in the uni-
 335 variate and multivariate cases. The dense representation is the default for univariate polynomials.
 336 For multivariate polynomials, the choice of representation is based on the application. The most
 337 common case for the sparse representation is algorithms for computing Gröbner bases (Buchberger,
 338 F4, and F5) [7, 11, 12]. This is because different monomial orderings can be expressed easily in
 339 this representation. However, algorithms for computing multivariate GCDs or factorizations, at
 340 least those currently implemented in SymPy [29], are better expressed when the representation
 341 is dense. The dense multivariate representation is specifically a recursively-dense representation,
 342 where polynomials in $K[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$ are viewed as a polynomials in $K[x_0][x_1] \dots [x_n]$. Note
 343 that despite this, the coefficient domain K , can be a multivariate polynomial domain as well.
 344 The dense recursive representation in Python gets inefficient as the number of variables increases.
 345 Some examples for the `sympy.polys` module can be found in the supplement.

346 3.4 Printers

347 SymPy has a rich collection of expression printers. By default, an interactive Python session will
 348 render the `str` form of an expression, which has been used in all the examples in this paper so
 349 far. The `str` form of an expression is valid Python and roughly matches what a user would type
 350 to enter the expression.

```
351 >>> phi0 = Symbol('phi0')
352 >>> str(Integral(sqrt(phi0), phi0))
353 'Integral(sqrt(phi0), phi0)'
```

354 Expressions can be printed with 2D, monospace fonts via `pprint`. Unicode characters are
 355 used for rendering mathematical symbols such as integral signs, square roots, and parentheses.
 356 Greek letters and subscripts in symbol names that have Unicode code points associated are also
 357 rendered automatically.

```
>>> pprint(Integral(sqrt(phi0 + 1), phi0))
```

$$\int \sqrt{\varphi_0 + 1} \, d(\varphi_0)$$

358
 359 Alternately, the `use_unicode=False` flag can be set, which causes the expression to be printed
 360 using only ASCII characters.

```
361 >>> pprint(Integral(sqrt(phi0 + 1), phi0), use_unicode=False)
362 /
363 |
364 | _____
365 | \ / phi0 + 1 d(phi0)
366 |
367 /
```

368 The function `latex` returns a \LaTeX representation of an expression.

```
369 >>> print(latex(Integral(sqrt(phi0 + 1), phi0)))
370 \int \sqrt{\phi_{0} + 1}\, d\phi_{0}
```

371 Users are encouraged to run the `init_printing` function at the beginning of interactive
 372 sessions, which automatically enables the best pretty printing supported by their environment.
 373 In the Jupyter Notebook or Qt Console [30], the \LaTeX printer is used to render expressions
 374 using MathJax or \LaTeX , if it is installed on the system. The 2D text representation is used
 375 otherwise.

376 Other printers such as MathML are also available. SymPy uses an extensible printer subsystem
 377 for customizing any given printer, and allows custom objects to define their printing behavior for
 378 any printer. The code generation functionality of SymPy relies on this subsystem to convert
 379 expressions into code in various target programming languages.

⁵In a dense representation, the coefficients for all terms up to the degree of each variable are stored in memory. In a sparse representation, only the nonzero coefficients are stored.

3.5 Solvers

SymPy has a module of equation solvers that can handle ordinary differential equations, recurrence relationships, Diophantine equations, and algebraic equations. There is also rudimentary support for simple partial differential equations.

There are two functions for solving algebraic equations in SymPy: `solve` and `solveset`. `solveset` has several design changes with respect to the older `solve` function. This distinction is present in order to resolve the usability issues with the previous `solve` function API while maintaining backward compatibility with earlier versions of SymPy. `solveset` only requires essential input information from the user. The function signatures of `solve` and `solveset` are

```
solve(f, *symbols, **flags)
solveset(f, symbol, domain=S.Complexes)
```

The `domain` parameter is typically either `S.Complexes` (the default) or `S.Reals`; the latter causes `solveset` to only return real solutions.

An important difference between the two functions is that the output API of `solve` varies with input (sometimes returning a Python list and sometimes a Python dictionary) whereas `solveset` always returns a SymPy set object.

Both functions implicitly assume that expressions are equal to 0. For instance, `solveset(x - 1, x)` solves $x - 1 = 0$ for x .

`solveset` is under active development as a planned replacement for `solve`. There are certain features which are implemented in `solve` that are not yet implemented in `solveset`, including multivariate systems, and some transcendental equations.

More examples of `solveset` and `solve` can be found in the supplement.

3.6 Matrices

Besides being an important feature in its own right, computations on matrices with symbolic entries are important for many algorithms within SymPy. The following code shows some basic usage of the `Matrix` class.

```
>>> A = Matrix(2, 2, [x, x + y, y, x])
>>> A
Matrix([
[x, x + y],
[y,      x]])
```

SymPy matrices support common symbolic linear algebra manipulations, including matrix addition, multiplication, exponentiation, computing determinants, solving linear systems, and computing inverses using LU decomposition, LDL decomposition, Gauss-Jordan elimination, Cholesky decomposition, Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse, and adjugate matrix.

All operations are performed symbolically. For instance, eigenvalues are computed by generating the characteristic polynomial using the Berkowitz algorithm and then solving it using polynomial routines.

```
>>> A.eigenvals()
{x - sqrt(y*(x + y)): 1, x + sqrt(y*(x + y)): 1}
```

Internally these matrices store the elements as lists of lists, making it a dense representation.⁶ For storing sparse matrices, the `SparseMatrix` class can be used. Sparse matrices store their elements as a dictionary of keys.

SymPy also supports matrices with symbolic dimension values. `MatrixSymbol` represents a matrix with dimensions $m \times n$, where m and n can be symbolic. Matrix addition and multiplication, scalar operations, matrix inverse, and transpose are stored symbolically as matrix expressions.

⁶Similar to the polynomials module, dense here means that all entries are stored in memory, contrasted with a sparse representation where only nonzero entries are stored.

Block matrices are also implemented in SymPy. `BlockMatrix` elements can be any matrix expression, including explicit matrices, matrix symbols, and other block matrices. All functionalities of matrix expressions are also present in `BlockMatrix`.

When symbolic matrices are combined with the assumptions module for logical inference, they provide powerful reasoning over invertibility, semi-definiteness, orthogonality, etc., which are valuable in the construction of numerical linear algebra systems.

More examples for `Matrix` and `BlockMatrix` may be found in the supplement.

4 NUMERICS

Floating point numbers in SymPy are implemented by the `Float` class, which represents an arbitrary-precision binary floating-point number by storing its value and precision (in bits). This representation is distinct from the Python built-in `float` type, which is a wrapper around machine `double` types and uses a fixed precision (53-bit).

Because Python `float` literals are limited in precision, strings should be used to input precise decimal values:

```
>>> Float(1.1)
1.1000000000000000
>>> Float(1.1, 30) # precision equivalent to 30 digits
1.100000000000000008881784197001
>>> Float("1.1", 30)
1.10000000000000000000000000000000
```

The `evalf` method converts a constant symbolic expression to a `Float` with the specified precision, here 25 digits:

```
>>> (pi + 1).evalf(25)
4.141592653589793238462643
```

`Float` numbers do not track their accuracy, and should be used with caution within symbolic expressions since familiar dangers of floating-point arithmetic apply [16]. A notorious case is that of catastrophic cancellation:

```
>>> cos(exp(-100)).evalf(25) - 1
0
```

Applying the `evalf` method to the whole expression solves this problem. Internally, `evalf` estimates the number of accurate bits of the floating-point approximation for each sub-expression, and adaptively increases the working precision until the estimated accuracy of the final result matches the sought number of decimal digits:

```
>>> (cos(exp(-100)) - 1).evalf(25)
-6.919482633683687653243407e-88
```

The `evalf` method works with complex numbers and supports more complicated expressions, such as special functions, infinite series, and integrals. The internal error tracking does not provide rigorous error bounds (in the sense of interval arithmetic) and cannot be used to accurately track uncertainty in measurement data; the sole purpose is to mitigate loss of accuracy that typically occurs when converting symbolic expressions to numerical values.

4.1 The mpmath library

The implementation of arbitrary-precision floating-point arithmetic is supplied by the `mpmath` library. Originally, it was developed as a SymPy module but has subsequently been moved to a standalone pure-Python package. The basic datatypes in `mpmath` are `mpf` and `mpc`, which respectively act as multiprecision substitutes for Python's `float` and `complex`. The floating-point precision is controlled by a global context:

5.1.1 Vector Algebra

The `sympy.physics.vector` package provides reference frame-, time-, and space-aware vector and dyadic objects that allow for three-dimensional operations such as addition, subtraction, scalar multiplication, inner and outer products, and cross products. Both of these objects can be written in very compact notation that make it easy to express the vectors and dyadics in terms of multiple reference frames with arbitrarily defined relative orientations. The vectors are used to specify the positions, velocities, and accelerations of points; orientations, angular velocities, and angular accelerations of reference frames; and forces and torques. The dyadics are essentially reference frame-aware 3×3 tensors [42]. The vector and dyadic objects can be used for any one-, two-, or three-dimensional vector algebra, and they provide a strong framework for building physics and engineering tools.

The following Python code demonstrates how a vector is created using the orthogonal unit vectors of three reference frames that are oriented with respect to each other, and the result of expressing the vector in the A frame. The B frame is oriented with respect to the A frame using Z-X-Z Euler Angles of magnitude π , $\frac{\pi}{2}$, and $\frac{\pi}{3}$ rad, respectively, whereas the C frame is oriented with respect to the B frame through a simple rotation about the B frame's X unit vector through $\frac{\pi}{2}$ rad.

```
>>> from sympy.physics.vector import ReferenceFrame
>>> A = ReferenceFrame('A')
>>> B = ReferenceFrame('B')
>>> C = ReferenceFrame('C')
>>> B.orient(A, 'body', (pi, pi/3, pi/4), 'zxz')
>>> C.orient(B, 'axis', (pi/2, B.x))
>>> v = 1*A.x + 2*B.z + 3*C.y
>>> v
A.x + 2*B.z + 3*C.y
>>> v.express(A)
A.x + 5*sqrt(3)/2*A.y + 5/2*A.z
```

5.1.2 Mechanics

The `sympy.physics.mechanics` package utilizes the `sympy.physics.vector` package to populate time-aware particle and rigid-body objects to fully describe the kinematics and kinetics of a rigid multi-body system. These objects store all of the information needed to derive the ordinary differential or differential algebraic equations that govern the motion of the system, i.e., the equations of motion. These equations of motion abide by Newton's laws of motion and can handle arbitrary kinematic constraints or complex loads. The package offers two automated methods for formulating the equations of motion based on Lagrangian Dynamics [23] and Kane's Method [22]. Lastly, there are automated linearization routines for constrained dynamical systems [31].

5.2 Quantum Mechanics

The `sympy.physics.quantum` package has extensive capabilities for performing symbolic quantum mechanics, using Python objects to represent the different mathematical objects relevant in quantum theory [38]: states (bras and kets), operators (unitary, Hermitian, etc.), and basis sets, as well as operations on these objects such as representations, tensor products, inner products, outer products, commutators, and anticommutators. The base objects are designed in the most general way possible to enable any particular quantum system to be implemented by subclassing the base operators and defining the relevant class methods to provide system-specific logic.

Symbolic quantum operators and states may be defined, and one can perform a full range of operations with them.

```
>>> from sympy.physics.quantum import Commutator, Dagger, Operator
>>> from sympy.physics.quantum import Ket, qapply
>>> A = Operator('A')
>>> B = Operator('B')
>>> C = Operator('C')
>>> D = Operator('D')
```

```

577 >>> a = Ket('a')
578 >>> comm = Commutator(A, B)
579 >>> comm
580 [A,B]
581 >>> qapply(Dagger(comm*a)).doit()
582 -<a|*(Dagger(A)*Dagger(B) - Dagger(B)*Dagger(A))

```

583 Commutators can be expanded using common commutator identities:

```

584 >>> Commutator(C+B, A*D).expand(commutator=True)
585 -[A,B]*D - [A,C]*D + A*[B,D] + A*[C,D]

```

586 On top of this set of base objects, a number of specific quantum systems have been implemented
587 in a fully symbolic framework. These include:

- 588 • Many of the exactly solvable quantum systems, including simple harmonic oscillator states
589 and raising/lowering operators, infinite square well states, and 3D position and momentum
590 operators and states.
- 591 • Second quantized formalism of non-relativistic many-body quantum mechanics [13].
- 592 • Quantum angular momentum [46]. Spin operators and their eigenstates can be represented
593 in any basis and for any quantum numbers. A rotation operator representing the Wigner-D
594 matrix, which may be defined symbolically or numerically, is also implemented to rotate
595 spin eigenstates. Functionality for coupling and uncoupling of arbitrary spin eigenstates is
596 provided, including symbolic representations of Clebsch-Gordon coefficients and Wigner
597 symbols.
- 598 • Quantum information and computing [26]. Multidimensional qubit states, and a full
599 set of one- and two-qubit gates are provided and can be represented symbolically or as
600 matrices/vectors. With these building blocks, it is possible to implement a number of basic
601 quantum algorithms including the quantum Fourier transform, quantum error correction,
602 quantum teleportation, Grover's algorithm, dense coding, etc. In addition, any quantum
603 circuit may be plotted using the `circuit_plot` function (Figure 1).

604 Here are a few short examples of the quantum information and computing capabilities in
605 `sympy.physics.quantum`. Start with a simple four-qubit state and flip the second qubit from the
606 right using a Pauli-X gate:

```

607 >>> from sympy.physics.quantum.qubit import Qubit
608 >>> from sympy.physics.quantum.gate import XGate
609 >>> q = Qubit('0101')
610 >>> q
611 |0101>
612 >>> X = XGate(1)
613 >>> qapply(X*q)
614 |0111>

```

615 Qubit states can also be used in adjoint operations, tensor products, inner/outer products:

```

616 >>> Dagger(q)
617 <0101|
618 >>> ip = Dagger(q)*q
619 >>> ip
620 <0101|0101>
621 >>> ip.doit()
622 1

```

623 Quantum gates (unitary operators) can be applied to transform these states and then classical
624 measurements can be performed on the results:

```

625 >>> from sympy.physics.quantum.qubit import measure_all
626 >>> from sympy.physics.quantum.gate import H, X, Y, Z
627 >>> c = H(0)*H(1)*Qubit('00')
628 >>> c
629 H(0)*H(1)*|00>
630 >>> q = qapply(c)
631 >>> measure_all(q)
632 [(|00>, 1/4), (|01>, 1/4), (|10>, 1/4), (|11>, 1/4)]

```

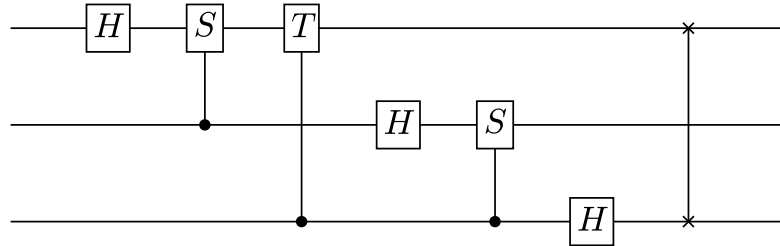


Figure 1. The circuit diagram for a three-qubit quantum Fourier transform generated by SymPy.

633 Lastly, the following example demonstrates creating a three-qubit quantum Fourier transform,
 634 decomposing it into one- and two-qubit gates, and then generating a circuit plot for the sequence
 635 of gates (see Figure 1).

```

636 >>> from sympy.physics.quantum.qft import QFT
637 >>> from sympy.physics.quantum.circuitplot import circuit_plot
638 >>> fourier = QFT(0,3).decompose()
639 >>> fourier
640 SWAP(0,2)*H(0)*C((0),S(1))*H(1)*C((0),T(2))*C((1),S(2))*H(2)
641 >>> c = circuit_plot(fourier, nqubits=3)

```

642 6 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

643 SymPy is a robust computer algebra system that provides a wide spectrum of features both in
 644 traditional computer algebra and in a plethora of scientific disciplines. This allows SymPy to be
 645 used in a first-class way with other Python projects, including the scientific Python stack. Unlike
 646 many other CASs, SymPy is designed to be used in an extensible way: both as an end-user
 647 application and as a library.

648 SymPy expressions are immutable trees of Python objects. SymPy uses Python both as the
 649 internal language and the user language. This permits users to access to the same methods that
 650 the library implements in order to extend it for their needs. Additionally, SymPy has a powerful
 651 assumptions system for declaring and deducing mathematical properties of expressions.

652 SymPy has submodules for many areas of mathematics. This includes functions for simplify-
 653 ing expressions, performing common calculus operations, pretty printing expressions, solving
 654 equations, and representing symbolic matrices. Other included areas are discrete math, concrete
 655 math, plotting, geometry, statistics, polynomials, sets, series, vectors, combinatorics, group
 656 theory, code generation, tensors, Lie algebras, cryptography, and special functions. Additionally,
 657 SymPy contains submodules targeting certain specific domains, such as classical mechanics and
 658 quantum mechanics. This breadth of domains has been engendered by a strong and vibrant user
 659 community. Anecdotally, these users likely chose SymPy because of its ease of access.

Some of the planned future work for SymPy includes work on improving code generation, improvements to the speed of SymPy (one area of work in this direction is SymEngine, a C++ symbolic manipulation library that is planned to be usable as a alternative core for SymPy), improving the assumptions system, and improving the solvers module.

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