

SYMPY: SYMBOLIC COMPUTING IN PYTHON

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1. Introduction. SymPy is a full featured computer algebra system (CAS) written in the Python programming language. It is open source, licensed under the extremely permissive 3-clause BSD license, which allows anyone to reuse SymPy or its source code, even for commercial purposes. SymPy was started by Ondřej Čertík in 2005, and it has since grown into a large open source project, with over 500 contributors. SymPy is developed on GitHub using a bazaar community model. [25] The accessibility of the codebase and the bazaar community model allow SymPy to rapidly respond to the needs of the community of users, and has made the large contributor count possible.

SymPy is written entirely in the Python programming language, which is also the language used to interact with it, both programmatically and interactively. Python is a popular dynamically typed programming language that has a focus on ease of use and readability. It also a very popular language for scientific computing and data science, with a wide range of useful libraries. Unlike many CASs, SymPy does not invent its own programming language. Python is used both for the internal implementation and the user interaction. Exclusively using Python in this way makes it easier for people already familiar with the language to use SymPy, or to do development on it. It also lets the SymPy developers focus on mathematics, rather than language design.

SymPy is designed with a strong focus that it be usable as a library. This means that extensibility is important in its API design. This is also one of the reasons SymPy makes no attempt to extend the Python language itself. The goal is for users of SymPy to be able to import SymPy alongside other Python libraries in their workflow, whether that is an interactive workflow or programmatic use as part of a larger library.

SymPy does not have a built in graphical user interface (GUI), however, when used in the Jupyter Notebook SymPy expressions will pretty print using MathJax.

2. Architecture.

2.1. Basic Usage. All symbols in SymPy must be instantiated and assigned to a variable before they can be used. This is typically done through the `symbols` function, which creates multiple symbols at once. For instance,

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

creates three symbols named `x`, `y`, and `z`, assigned to Python variables of the same name. The Python variable names that symbols are assigned to are immaterial—we could have just as well have written `a, b, c = symbol('x y z')`.

Expressions are created from symbols using Python syntax, which mirrors usual mathematical notation. Note that in Python, exponentiation is `**`.

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

2.2. The Core. The core of a computer algebra system (CAS) refers to the module that is in charge of resending symbolic expressions and performing basic ma-

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nipulations with them. In SymPy, every symbolic expression is an instance of a Python class. Expressions are represented by expression trees. The operators are represented by the type of an expression and the child nodes are stored in the `args` attribute. A leaf node in the expression tree has an empty `args`. The `args` attribute is provided by the class `Basic`, which is a superclass of all SymPy objects and provides common methods to all SymPy tree-elements. For example, consider the expression $xy + 2$:

```
>>> from sympy import *
>>> x, y = symbols('x y')
>>> expr = x*y + 2
```

The expression `expr` is an addition, so it is of type `Add`. The child nodes of `expr` are `x*y` and `2`.

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

We can dig further into the expression tree to see the full expression. For example, the first child node, given by `expr.args[0]` is `2`. Its class is `Integer`, and it has empty `args`, indicating that it is a leaf node.

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

The function `srepr` gives a string representing a valid Python code, containing 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 invariant, namely, `expr.func(*expr.args) == expr`.¹ This means that expressions are rebuildable from their `args`.¹ Here, we note that in SymPy, the `==` operator represents exact structural equality, not mathematical equality. This allows one to test if any two expressions are equal to one another as expression trees.

Python allows classes to overload operators. The Python interpreter translates the above `x*y + 2` to, roughly, `(x.__mul__(y)).__add__(2)`. `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 builtin `int` type. When `2` is called by the `__add__` method, it is converted to the SymPy type `Integer(2)`. In this way, SymPy expressions can be built in the natural way using Python operators and numeric literals.

One must be careful in one particular instance. Python does not have a builtin rational literal type. Given a fraction of integers such as `1/2`, Python will perform floating point division and produce `0.5`.² Python uses eager evaluation, so expressions like `x + 1/2` will produce `x + 0.5`, and by the time any SymPy function sees the `1/2` it has already been converted to `0.5` by Python. However, for a CAS like SymPy,

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.

²This is the behavior in Python 3. In Python 2, `1/2` will perform integer division and produce `0`, unless one uses `from __future__ import division`.

one typically wants to work with exact rational numbers whenever possible. Working around this is simple, however: one can wrap one of the integers with `Integer`, like `x + Integer(1)/2`, or using `x + Rational(1, 2)`. SymPy provides a function `S` which can be used to convert objects to SymPy types with minimal typing, such as `x + S(1)/2`. This gotcha is a small downside to using Python directly instead of a custom domain specific language (DSL), and we consider it to be worth it for the advantages listed above.

2.3. Assumptions. An important feature of the SymPy core is the assumptions system. The assumptions system allows users to specify that symbols have certain common mathematical properties, such as being positive, imaginary, or integer. SymPy is careful to never perform simplifications on an expression unless the assumptions allow them. For instance, the identity $\sqrt{x^2} = x$ holds if x is nonnegative ($x \geq 0$). If x is real, the identity $\sqrt{x^2} = |x|$ holds. However, for general complex x , no such identity holds.

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

```
>>> x = Symbol('x')
>>> sqrt(x**2)
sqrt(x**2)
```

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

Assumptions are set on `Symbol` objects when they are created. For instance `Symbol('x', positive=True)` will create a symbol named `x` that is assumed to be positive.

```
>>> x = Symbol('x', positive=True)
>>> sqrt(x**2)
x
```

Some common assumptions that SymPy allows are `positive`, `negative`, `real`, `nonpositive`, `nonnegative`, `real`, `integer`, and `commutative`³. Assumptions on any object can be checked with the `is_assumption` attributes, like `x.is_positive`.

Assumptions are only needed to restrict a domain so that certain simplifications can be performed. It is not required to make the domain match the input of a function. For instance, 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 builtin objects `True`, `False`, and `None`. `None` represents the “unknown” case. This could mean that the given assumption could be either true or false under the given information, for instance, `Symbol('x', real=True).is_positive` will give `None` because a real symbol might be positive or it might not. It could also mean not enough is implemented to compute the given fact, for instance, `(pi + E).is_irrational` gives `None`, because SymPy does not know how to determine if $\pi + e$ is rational or irrational, indeed, it is an open problem in mathematics.

Basic implications between the facts are used to deduce assumptions. For instance, the assumptions system knows that being an integer implies being rational,

³If A and B are Symbols created with `commutative=False` then SymPy will keep $A \cdot B$ and $B \cdot A$ distinct.

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`.

SymPy also has an experimental assumptions system where facts are stored separate from objects, and deductions are made with a SAT solver. We will not discuss this system here.

2.4. Extensibility. Extensibility is an important feature for SymPy. Because the same language, Python, is used both for the internal implementation and the external usage by users, all the extensibility capabilities available to users are also used by functions that are part of SymPy.

The typical way to create a custom SymPy object is to subclass an existing SymPy class, generally either `Basic`, `Expr`, or `Function`. All SymPy classes used for expression trees⁴ 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 values for which the function should be automatically evaluated, and `None` for arguments that shouldn’t be automatically evaluated.

The behavior of classes in SymPy with various other SymPy functions is defined by defining a relevant `_eval_*` method on the class. For instance, an object can tell SymPy’s `diff` function how to take the derivative of itself by defining the `_eval_derivative(self, x)` method. The most common `_eval_*` methods relate to the assumptions. `_eval_is_assumption` defines the assumptions for *assumption*.

As an example of the notions presented in this section, we present below a stripped down 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. `fdiff` is a convenience method for subclasses of `Function`. `fdiff` returns the derivative of the function without worrying about the chain rule. `self.func` is used throughout instead of referencing `gamma` explicitly so that potential subclasses of `gamma` can reuse the methods.

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

```
class gamma(Function)
    @classmethod
    def eval(cls, arg):
        if isinstance(arg, Integer) and arg.is_positive:
            return factorial(arg - 1)

    def _eval_is_real(self):
```

⁴Some internal classes, such as those used in the polynomial module, do not follow this rule for efficiency reasons.

The **evalf** method works with complex numbers and supports more complicated expressions, such as special functions, infinite series and integrals.

SymPy does not track the accuracy of approximate numbers outside of `evalf`. The familiar dangers of floating-point arithmetic apply [14], and symbolic expressions containing floating-point numbers should be treated with some caution. This approach is similar to Maple and Maxima.

By contrast, Mathematica uses a form of significance arithmetic [26] for approximate numbers. This offers further protection against numerical errors, but leads to non-obvious semantics while still not being mathematically rigorous (for a critique of significance arithmetic, see Fateman [11]). SymPy’s `evalf` internals are non-rigorous in the same sense, but have no bearing on the semantics of floating-point numbers in the rest of the system.

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

```
>>> import mpmath
>>> mpmath.mp.dps = 30      # 30 digits of precision
>>> mpmath.mpf("0.1") + mpmath.exp(-50)
mpf('0.1000000000000000000000000000192874984794')
>>> print(_)               # pretty-printed
0.1000000000000000000000000000192874985
```

For pure numerical computing, it is convenient to use `mpmath` directly with `from mpmath import *` (it is best to avoid such an import statement when using SymPy simultaneously, since numerical functions such as `exp` will shadow the symbolic counterparts in SymPy).

Like SymPy, mpmath is a pure Python library. Internally, mpmath represents a floating-point number $(-1)^s \cdot 2^y$ by a tuple (s, x, y, b) where x and y are arbitrary-size Python integers and the redundant integer b stores the bit length of x for quick access. If GMPY [17] is installed, mpmath automatically switches to using the `gmpy.mpz` type for x and using GMPY helper methods to perform rounding-related operations, improving performance.

The mpmath library includes support for special functions, root-finding, linear algebra, polynomial approximation, and numerical computation of limits, derivatives, integrals, infinite series, and ODE solutions. All features work in arbitrary precision and use algorithms that support computing hundreds of digits rapidly, except in degenerate cases.

The double exponential (tanh-sinh) quadrature is used for numerical integration by default. For smooth integrands, this algorithm usually converges extremely rapidly, even when the integration interval is infinite or singularities are present at the endpoints [27, 4]. However, for good performance, singularities in the middle of the interval must be specified by the user. To evaluate slowly converging limits and infinite series, mpmath automatically attempts to apply Richardson extrapolation and the Shanks transformation (Euler-Maclaurin summation can also be used) [5]. A function to evaluate oscillatory integrals by means of convergence acceleration is also available.

A wide array of higher mathematical functions are implemented with full support for complex values of all parameters and arguments, including complete and incomplete gamma functions, Bessel functions, orthogonal polynomials, elliptic functions and integrals, zeta and polylogarithm functions, the generalized hypergeometric function, and the Meijer G-function.

Most special functions are implemented as linear combinations of the generalized hypergeometric function ${}_pF_q$, which is computed by a combination of direct summation, argument transformations (for ${}_2F_1$, ${}_3F_2$, ...) and asymptotic expansions (for ${}_0F_1$, ${}_1F_1$, ${}_1F_2$, ${}_2F_2$, ${}_2F_3$) to cover the whole complex domain. Numerical integration and generic convergence acceleration are also used in a few special cases.

In general, linear combinations and argument transformations give rise to singularities that have to be removed for certain combinations of parameters. A typical example is the modified Bessel function of the second kind

$$K_\nu(z) = \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\frac{z}{2} \right)^{-\nu} \Gamma(\nu) {}_0F_1 \left(1 - \nu, \frac{z^2}{4} \right) - \left(\frac{z}{2} \right)^\nu \frac{\pi}{\nu \sin(\pi\nu) \Gamma(\nu)} {}_0F_1 \left(\nu + 1, \frac{z^2}{4} \right) \right]$$

where the limiting value $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} K_{n+\epsilon}(z)$ has to be computed when $\nu = n$ is an integer. A generic algorithm is used to evaluate hypergeometric-type linear combinations of the above type. This algorithm automatically detects cancellation problems, and computes limits numerically by perturbing parameters whenever internal singularities occur (the perturbation size is automatically decreased until the result is detected to converge numerically).

Due to this generic approach, particular combinations of hypergeometric functions can be specified easily. The implementation of the Meijer G-function takes only a few dozen lines of code, yet covers the whole input domain in a robust way. The Meijer G-function instance $G_{1,3}^{3,0} \left(0; \frac{1}{2}, -1, -\frac{3}{2} | x \right)$ is a good test case [28]; past versions of both Maple and Mathematica produced incorrect numerical values for large $x > 0$. Here, mpmath automatically removes the internal singularity and compensates for cancellations (amounting to 656 bits of precision when $x = 10000$), giving correct values:

```
>>> mpmath.mp.dps = 15
>>> mpmath.meijerg([], [0]], [[-0.5, -1, -1.5], []], 10000)
mpf('2.4392576907199564e-94')
```

Equivalently, with SymPy's interface this function can be evaluated as:

```
>>> meijerg([], [0]], [[-S(1)/2, -1, -S(3)/2], []], 10000).evalf()
2.43925769071996e-94
```

We highlight the generalized hypergeometric functions and the Meijer G-function, due to those functions' frequent appearance in closed forms for integrals and sums [todo: crossref symbolic integration]. Via mpmath, SymPy has relatively good support for evaluating sums and integrals numerically, using two complementary approaches: direct numerical evaluation, or first computing a symbolic closed form involving special functions. [example?]

3.2. Numerical simplification. The `nsimplify` function in SymPy (a wrapper of `identify` in mpmath) attempts to find a simple symbolic expression that evaluates to the same numerical value as the given input. It works by applying a few simple transformations (including square roots, reciprocals, logarithms and exponentials) to the input and, for each transformed value, using the PSLQ algorithm [12] to search for a matching algebraic number or optionally a linear combination of user-provided


```

323 base constants (such as  $\pi$ ).
324 >>> x = 1 / (sin(pi/5)+sin(2*pi/5)+sin(3*pi/5)+sin(4*pi/5))*2
325 >>> nsimplify(x)
326 -2*sqrt(5)/5 + 1
327 >>> nsimplify(pi, tolerance=0.01)
328 22/7
329 >>> nsimplify(1.783919626661888, [pi], tolerance=1e-12)
330 pi/(-1/3 + 2*pi/3)

```

331 **4. Features.** SymPy has an extensive feature set that encompasses too much to
332 cover in-depth here. Bedrock areas, such a Calculus, receive their own sub-sections
333 below. Additionally, Table 1 describes other capabilities present in the SymPy code
334 base. This gives a sampling from the breadth of topics and application domains that
335 SymPy services.

Table 1: SymPy Features and Descriptions

Feature	Description
Discrete Math	Summations, products, binomial coefficients, prime number tools, integer factorization, Diophantine equation solving, and boolean logic representation, equivalence testing, and inference.
Concrete Math	Tools for determining whether summation and product expressions are convergent, absolutely convergent, hypergeometric, and other properties. May also compute Gosper’s normal form [24] for two univariate polynomials.
Plotting	Hooks for visualizing expressions via matplotlib [?] or as text drawings when lacking a graphical back-end.
Geometry	Allows the creation of 2D geometrical entities, such as lines and circles. Enables queries on these entities, including asking the area of an ellipse, checking for collinearity of a set of points, or finding the intersection between two lines.
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.
Polynomials	Computes polynomial algebras over various coefficient domains ranging from the simple (e.g., polynomial division) to the advanced (e.g., Gröbner bases [3] and multivariate factorization over algebraic number domains).
Sets	Representations of empty, finite, and infinite sets. This includes special sets such as for all natural, integer, and complex numbers.
Series	Implements series expansion, sequences, and limit of sequences. This includes special series, such as Fourier and power series.
Vectors	Provides basic vector math and differential calculus with respect to 3D Cartesian coordinate systems.

Matrices	Tools for creating matrices of symbols and expressions. This is capable of both sparse and dense representations and performing symbolic linear algebraic operations (e.g., inversion and factorization).
Combinatorics & Group Theory	Implements permutations, combinations, partitions, subsets, various permutation groups (such as polyhedral, Rubik, symmetric, and others), Gray codes [21], and Prufer sequences [6].
Code Generation	Enables generation of compilable and executable code in a variety of different programming languages directly from expressions. Target languages include C, Fortran, Julia, JavaScript, Mathematica, Matlab and Octave, Python, and Theano.
Tensors	Symbolic manipulation of indexed objects.
Lie Algebras	Represents Lie algebras and root systems.
Cryptography	Represents block and stream ciphers, including shift, Affine, substitution, Vigenere's, Hill's, bifid, RSA, Kid RSA, linear-feedback shift registers, and Elgamal encryption
Special Functions	Implements 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.

4.1. Simplification. The generic way to simplify an expression is by calling the `simplify` function. It must be emphasized that simplification is not an unambiguously defined mathematical operation [10]. The `simplify` function applies several simplification routines along with some heuristics to make the output expression as “simple” as possible.

It is often preferable to apply more directed simplification functions. These apply very specific rules to the input expression, and are often 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 4.1 lists some common 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 [13]

Substitutions are performed through the `.subs` method, which is sensible to some mathematical properties while matching, such as associativity, commutativity, additive and multiplicative inverses, and matching of powers.

350 **4.2. Calculus.** Derivatives can be computed with the `diff` function.

```
351 >>> diff(sin(x), x)
352 cos(x)
```

353 Unevaluated `Derivative` objects are also supported.

```
354 >>> expr = Derivative(sin(x), x)
355 >>> expr
356 Derivative(sin(x), x)
```

357 Unevaluated expressions can be evaluated with the `doit` method.

```
358 In [5]: expr.doit()
359 Out[5]: cos(x)
```

360 Integrals can be analogously calculated either with the `integrate` function, or the unevaluated `Integral` objects.

```
362 >>> integrate(sin(x), x)
363 -cos(x)
364 >>> expr = Integral(sin(x), x)
365 >>> expr
366 Integral(sin(x), x)
367 >>> expr.doit()
368 -cos(x)
```

369 Definite integration can be calculated with the same method, by specifying a range of the integration variable. The following computes $\int_0^1 \sin(x) dx$.

```
371 >>> integrate(sin(x), (x, 0, 1))
372 -cos(1) + 1
```

373 SymPy implements a combination of the Risch algorithm [9], table lookups, a reimplementation of Manuel Bronstein’s “Poor Man’s Integrator” [8], and an algorithm for computing integrals based on Meijer G-functions. These allow SymPy to compute a wide variety of indefinite and definite integrals.

377 Summations and products are also supported, via the evaluated `summation` and `product` and unevaluated `Sum` and `Product`, and use the same syntax as `integrate`.

379 Summations are computed using a combination of Gosper’s algorithm and an algorithm that uses Meijer G-functions. Products are computed via some heuristics.

381 **4.3. Limits.** The limit module implements the Gruntz algorithm [15].

382 Examples:

```
383 In [1]: limit(sin(x)/x, x, 0)
384 Out[1]: 1
```

```
386 In [2]: limit((2*E**((1-cos(x))/sin(x))-1)*(sinh(x)/atan(x)**2), x, 0)
387 Out[2]: E
```

388 We first define comparability classes by calculating L :

389 (1)
$$L \equiv \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log |f(x)|}{\log |g(x)|}$$

390 And then we define the $<$, $>$ and \sim operations as follows: $f > g$ when $L = \pm\infty$ (f is more rapidly varying than g , i.e., f goes to ∞ or 0 faster than g , f is greater than any power of g), $f < g$ when $L = 0$ (f is less rapidly varying than g) and $f \sim g$ when $L \neq 0, \pm\infty$ (both f and g are bounded from above and below by suitable integral powers of the other).

Examples:

$$2 < x < e^x < e^{x^2} < e^{e^x}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
2 &\sim 3 \sim -5 \\
x &\sim x^2 \sim x^3 \sim \frac{1}{x} \sim x^m \sim -x \\
e^x &\sim e^{-x} \sim e^{2x} \sim e^{x+e^{-x}} \\
f(x) &\sim \frac{1}{f(x)}
\end{aligned}$$

The Gruntz algorithm, on an example:

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x) &= e^{x+2e^{-x}} - e^x + \frac{1}{x} \\
\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) &=?
\end{aligned}$$

395 Strategy: mrv set: the set of most rapidly varying subexpressions $\{e^x, e^{-x}, e^{x+2e^{-x}}\}$,
396 the same comparability class. Take an item ω from mrv, converging to 0 at infinity.
397 Here $\omega = e^{-x}$. If not present in the mrv set, use the relation $f(x) \sim \frac{1}{f(x)}$.

Rewrite the mrv set using ω : $\{\frac{1}{\omega}, \omega, \frac{1}{\omega}e^{2\omega}\}$, substitute back into $f(x)$ and expand in ω :

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{\omega} + \frac{1}{\omega}e^{2\omega} = 2 + \frac{1}{x} + 2\omega + O(\omega^2)$$

The core idea of the algorithm: ω is from the mrv set, so in the limit $\omega \rightarrow 0$:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{\omega} + \frac{1}{\omega}e^{2\omega} = 2 + \frac{1}{x} + 2\omega + O(\omega^2) \rightarrow 2 + \frac{1}{x}$$

398 We iterate until we get just a number, the final limit. Gruntz proved this algo-
399 rithm always works and converges in his Ph.D. thesis [15].

Generally:

$$f(x) = O\left(\frac{1}{\omega^3}\right) + \underbrace{\frac{C_{-2}(x)}{\omega^2}}_{\infty} + \underbrace{\frac{C_{-1}(x)}{\omega}}_{\infty} + C_0(x) + \underbrace{C_1(x)\omega}_0 + \underbrace{O(\omega^2)}_0$$

400 we look at the lowest power of ω . The limit is one of: 0, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} C_0(x)$, ∞ .

401 **4.4. Printers.** SymPy has a rich collection of expression printers for displaying
402 expressions to the user. By default, an interactive Python session will render the `str`
403 form of an expression, which has been used in all the examples in this paper so far.

```
404 >>> phi0 = Symbol('phi0')
405 >>> str(Integral(sqrt(phi0), phi0))
406 Integral(sqrt(phi0 + 1), x)
```

407 Expressions can be printed with 2D monospace text with `pprint`. This uses
408 Unicode characters to render mathematical symbols such as integral signs, square
409 roots, and parentheses. Greek letters and subscripts in symbol names are rendered
410 automatically.

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

```
413 >>> pprint(Integral(sqrt(phi0 + 1), phi0), use_unicode=False)
414 /
415 |
416 | -----
```

```

417 | \ / phi0 + 1 d(phi0)
418 |
419 /

```

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

```

421 >>> print(latex(Integral(sqrt(phi0 + 1), phi0)))
422 \int \sqrt{\phi_0 + 1} \, d\phi_0

```

423 Users are encouraged to run the `init_printing` function at the beginning of
 424 interactive sessions, which automatically enables the best pretty printing supported
 425 by their environment. In the Jupyter notebook or qtconsole [22] the \LaTeX printer is
 426 used to render expressions using MathJax or \LaTeX if it is installed on the system.
 427 The 2D text representation is used otherwise.

428 Other printers such as MathML are also available. SymPy uses an extensible
 429 printer subsystem which allows users to customize the printing for any given printer,
 430 and for custom objects to define their printing behavior for any printer. SymPy’s
 431 code generation capabilities, which we will not discuss in-depth here, use the same
 432 printer model.

433 **4.5. Sets.** SymPy supports representation of a wide variety of mathematical
 434 sets. This is achieved by first defining abstract representations of atomic set classes
 435 and then combining and transforming them using various set operations.

436 Each of the set classes inherits from the base class `Set` and defines methods to
 437 check membership and calculate unions, intersections, and set differences. When these
 438 methods are not able to evaluate to atomic set classes, they are represented as abstract
 439 unevaluated objects.

440 SymPy has the following atomic set classes:

- 441 • `EmptySet` represents the empty set \emptyset .
- 442 • `UniversalSet` is an abstract “universal set” for which everything is a mem-
 443 ber. The union of the universal set with any set gives the universal set and
 444 the intersection gives to the other set itself.
- 445 • `FiniteSet` is functionally equivalent to Python’s built `inset` object. Its mem-
 446 bers can be any SymPy object including other sets themselves.
- 447 • `Integers` represents the set of Integers \mathbb{Z} .
- 448 • `Naturals` represents the set of Natural numbers \mathbb{N} , i.e., the set of positive
 449 integers.
- 450 • `Naturals0` represents the whole numbers, which are all the non-negative in-
 451 tegers.
- 452 • `Range` represents a range of integers. A range is defined by specifying a start
 453 value, an end value, and a step size. Range is functionally equivalent to
 454 Python’s `range` except it supports infinite endpoints, allowing the represen-
 455 tation of infinite ranges.
- 456 • `Interval` represents an interval of real numbers. It is specified by giving the
 457 start and end point and specifying if it is open or closed in the respective
 458 ends.

459 Other than unevaluated classes of Union, Intersection and Set Difference opera-
 460 tions, we have following set classes.

- 461 • `ProductSet` defines the Cartesian product of two or more sets. The product
 462 set is useful when representing higher dimensional spaces. For example to
 463 represent a three-dimensional space we simply take the Cartesian product of
 464 three real sets.
- 465 • `ImageSet` represents the image of a function when applied to a particular

set. In notation, the image set of a function F with respect to a set S is $\{F(x)|x \in S\}$. SymPy uses image sets to represent sets of infinite solutions equations such as $\sin(x) = 0$.

- **ConditionSet** represents subset of a set whose members satisfies a particular condition. In notation, the condition set of the set S with respect to the condition H is $\{x|H(x), x \in S\}$. SymPy uses condition sets to represent the set of solutions of equations and inequalities, where the equation or the inequality is the condition and the set is the domain being solved over.

A few other classes are implemented as special cases of the classes described above. The set of real numbers, **Reals** is implemented as a special case of **Interval**, $(-\infty, \infty)$. **ComplexRegion** is implemented as a special case of **ImageSet**. **ComplexRegion** supports both polar and rectangular representation of regions on the complex plane.

4.6. Solvers. SymPy has module of equation solvers for symbolic equations.

There are two submodules to solve algebraic equations in SymPy, referred to as old solve function, **solve**, and new solve function, **solveset**. Solveset is introduced with several design changes with respect to old **solve** function to resolve the issues with old **solve** function, for example old **solve** function's input API has many flags which are not needed and they make it hard for the user and the developers to work on solvers. In contrast to old solve function, the **solveset** has a clean input API, It only asks for the much needed information from the user, following are the function signatures of old and new solve function:

```
solve(f, *symbols, **flags) # old solve function
solveset(f, symbol, domain) # new solve function
```

The old **solve** function has an inconsistent output API for various types of inputs, whereas the **solveset** has a canonical output API which is achieved using sets. It can consistently return various types of solutions.

- Single solution

```
>>> solveset(x - 1)
{1}
```

- Finite set of solution, quadratic equation

```
>>> solveset(x**2 - pi**2, x)
{-pi, pi}
```

- No Solution

```
>>> solveset(1, x)
EmptySet()
```

- Interval of solution

```
>>> solveset(x**2 - 3 > 0, x, domain=S.Reals)
(-oo, -sqrt(3)) U (sqrt(3), oo)
```

- Infinitely many solutions

```
>>> solveset(sin(x) - 1, x, domain=S.Reals)
ImageSet(Lambda(_n, 2*_n*pi + pi/2), Integers())
>>> solveset(x - x, x, domain=S.Reals)
(-oo, oo)
>>> solveset(x - x, x, domain=S.Complexes)
S.Complexes
```

- Linear system: finite and infinite solution for determined, under determined and over determined problems.

```
>>> A = Matrix([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 10]])
>>> b = Matrix([3, 6, 9])
```

```

515 >>> linsolve((A, b), x, y, z)
516 {(-1,2,0)}
517 >>> linsolve(Matrix([[1, 1, 1, 1], [1, 1, 2, 3]]), (x, y, z))
518 {(-y - 1, y, 2)}

```

519 The new solve i.e. **solveset** is under active development and is a planned replace-
520 ment for **solve**. Hence there are some features which are implemented in solve and is
521 not yet implemented in solveset. The table below show the current state of old and
522 new solve functions.

523

Solveset vs Solve		
Feature	solve	solveset
Consistent Output API	No	Yes
Consistent Input API	No	Yes
Univariate	Yes	Yes
Linear System	Yes	Yes (linsolve)
Non Linear System	Yes	Not yet
Transcendental	Yes	Not yet

524

525

526

527 Below are some of the examples of old **solve** function:

528 • Non Linear (multivariate) System of Equation: Intersection of a circle and a
529 parabola.

```

530 >>> solve([x**2 + y**2 - 16, 4*x - y**2 + 6], x, y)
531 [(-2 + sqrt(14), -sqrt(-2 + 4*sqrt(14))),
532  (-2 + sqrt(14), sqrt(-2 + 4*sqrt(14))),
533  (-sqrt(14) - 2, -I*sqrt(2 + 4*sqrt(14))),
534  (-sqrt(14) - 2, I*sqrt(2 + 4*sqrt(14)))]

```

535 • Transcendental Equation

```

536 >>> solve(x + log(x)**2 - 5*(x + log(x)) + 6, x)
537 [LambertW(exp(2)), LambertW(exp(3))]
538 >>> solve(x**3 + exp(x))
539 [-3*LambertW((-1)**(2/3)/3)]

```

540 Diophantine equations play a central and an important role in number theory. A
541 Diophantine equation has the form, $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 0$ where $n \geq 2$ and x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n
542 are integer variables. If we can find n integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n such that $x_1 = a_1, x_2 =$
543 $a_2, \dots, x_n = a_n$ satisfies the above equation, we say that the equation is solvable.

544 Currently, following five types of Diophantine equations can be solved using
545 SymPy's Diophantine module.

- 546 • Linear Diophantine equations: $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = b$
- 547 • General binary quadratic equation: $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 + dx + ey + f = 0$
- 548 • Homogeneous ternary quadratic equation: $ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + dxy + eyz + fzx = 0$
- 549 • Extended Pythagorean equation: $a_1x_1^2 + a_2x_2^2 + \dots + a_nx_n^2 = a_{n+1}x_{n+1}^2$
- 550 • General sum of squares: $x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = k$

551 When an equation is fed into Diophantine module, it factors the equation (if
552 possible) and solves each factor separately. Then all the results are combined to create
553 the final solution set. Following examples illustrate some of the basic functionalities
554 of the Diophantine module.

```

555 >>> from sympy import symbols
556 >>> x, y, z = symbols("x, y, z", integer=True)

```

557

```

558 >>> diophantine(2*x + 3*y - 5)
559 set([(3*t_0 - 5, -2*t_0 + 5)])
560
561 >>> diophantine(2*x + 4*y - 3)
562 set()
563
564 >>> diophantine(x**2 - 4*x*y + 8*y**2 - 3*x + 7*y - 5)
565 set([(2, 1), (5, 1)])
566
567 >>> diophantine(x**2 - 4*x*y + 4*y**2 - 3*x + 7*y - 5)
568 set([(-2*t**2 - 7*t + 10, -t**2 - 3*t + 5)])
569
570 >>> diophantine(3*x**2 + 4*y**2 - 5*z**2 + 4*x*y - 7*y*z + 7*z*x)
571 set([(-16*p**2 + 28*p*q + 20*q**2, 3*p**2 + 38*p*q - 25*q**2, 4*p**2 - 24*p*q + 68*q**2)])
572
573 >>> from sympy.abc import a, b, c, d, e, f
574 >>> diophantine(9*a**2 + 16*b**2 + c**2 + 49*d**2 + 4*e**2 - 25*f**2)
575 set([(70*t1**2 + 70*t2**2 + 70*t3**2 + 70*t4**2 - 70*t5**2, 105*t1*t5, 420*t2*t5, 60*t3*t5, 210*t4*t5, 4
576
577 >>> diophantine(a**2 + b**2 + c**2 + d**2 + e**2 + f**2 - 112)
578 set([(8, 4, 4, 4, 0, 0)])

```

579 **4.7. Matrices.** SymPy supports matrices with symbolic expressions as elements.■

```

580 >>> x, y = symbols('x y')
581 >>> A = Matrix(2, 2, [x, x + y, y, x])
582 >>> A
583 Matrix([
584 [ x, x + y],
585 [ y, x]])

```

586 All SymPy matrix types can do linear algebra including matrix addition, multipli-
587 cation, exponentiation, computing determinant, solving linear systems and comput-
588 ing inverses using LU decomposition, LDL decomposition, Gauss-Jordan elimination,
589 Cholesky decomposition, Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse, and adjugate matrix.

590 All operations are computed are computed symbolically. Eigenvalues are com-
591 puted by generating the characteristic polynomial using the Berkowitz algorithm and
592 then solving it using polynomial routines. Diagonalizable matrices can be diagonalized
593 first to compute the eigenvalues.

```

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

```

596 Internally these matrices store the elements as a list making it a dense repre-
597 sentation. For storing sparse matrices, the `SparseMatrix` class can be used. Sparse
598 matrices store the elements in a dictionary of keys (DoK) format.

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

```

603 >>> m, n, p = symbols("m, n, p", integer=True)
604 >>> R = MatrixSymbol("R", m, n)
605 >>> S = MatrixSymbol("S", n, p)
606 >>> T = MatrixSymbol("t", m, p)

```



```

607 >>> U = R*S + 2*T
608 >>> u.shape
609 (m, p)
610 >>> U[0, 1]
611 2*T[0, 1] + Sum(R[0, _k]*S[_k, 1], (_k, 0, n - 1))
612     Block matrices are also supported in SymPy. BlockMatrix elements can be any
613 matrix expression which includes explicit matrices, matrix symbols, and block matrices. All functionalities of matrix expressions are also present in BlockMatrix.
614
615 >>> n, m, l = symbols('n m l')
616 >>> X = MatrixSymbol('X', n, n)
617 >>> Y = MatrixSymbol('Y', m, m)
618 >>> Z = MatrixSymbol('Z', n, m)
619 >>> B = BlockMatrix([[X, Z], [ZeroMatrix(m, n), Y]])
620 >>> B
621 Matrix([
622 [X, Z],
623 [0, Y]])
624 >>> B[0, 0]
625 X[0, 0]
626 >>> B.shape
627 (m + n, m + n)

```

628 **5. Domain Specific Features.** SymPy includes several packages that allow
629 users to solve domain specific problems. For example, a comprehensive physics pack-
630 age is included that is useful for solving problems in classical mechanics, optics,
631 and quantum mechanics along with support for manipulating physical quantities with
632 units.

633 **5.1. Vector Algebra.** The `sympy.physics.vector` package provides reference
634 frame, time, and space aware vector and dyadic objects that allow for three dimensional
635 operations such as addition, subtraction, scalar multiplication, inner and outer
636 products, cross products, etc. Both of these objects can be written in very compact
637 notation that make it easy to express the vectors and dyadics in terms of multiple
638 reference frames with arbitrarily defined relative orientations. The vectors are used
639 to specify the positions, velocities, and accelerations of points, orientations, angular
640 velocities, and angular accelerations of reference frames, and force and torques. The
641 dyadics are essentially reference frame aware 3×3 tensors. The vector and dyadic
642 objects can be used for any one-, two-, or three-dimensional vector algebra and they
643 provide a strong framework for building physics and engineering tools.

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

```

650 >>> from sympy import pi
651 >>> from sympy.physics.vector import ReferenceFrame
652 >>> A = ReferenceFrame('A')
653 >>> B = ReferenceFrame('B')
654 >>> C = ReferenceFrame('C')
655 >>> B.orient(A, 'body', (pi, pi / 3, pi / 4), 'zxz')

```

```

656 >>> C.orient(B, 'axis', (pi / 2, B.x))
657 >>> v = 1 * A.x + 2 * B.z + 3 * C.y
658 >>> v
659 A.x + 2*B.z + 3*C.y
660 >>> v.express(A)
661 A.x + 5*sqrt(3)/2*A.y + 5/2*A.z

```

662 **5.2. Classical Mechanics.** The `physics.mechanics` package utilizes the `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 any arbitrary kinematical constraints or complex loads. The package offers two automated methods for formulating the equations of motion based on Lagrangian Dynamics [19] and Kane’s Method [18]. Lastly, there are automated linearization routines for constrained dynamical systems based on [23].

672 **5.3. Quantum Mechanics.** The `sympy.physics.quantum` package provides quantum functions, states, operators, and computation of standard quantum models.

675 **5.4. Optics.** The `physics.optics` package provides Gaussian optics functions.

676 **5.5. Units.** The `physics.units` module provides around two hundred predefined prefixes and SI units that are commonly used in the sciences. Additionally, it provides the `Unit` class which allows the user to define their own units. These prefixes and units are multiplied by standard SymPy objects to make expressions unit aware, allowing for algebraic and calculus manipulations to be applied to the expressions while the units are tracked in the manipulations. The units of the expressions can be easily converted to other desired units. There is also a new units system in `sympy.physics.unitsystems` that allows the user to work in specified unit systems.

684 **6. Other Projects that use SymPy.** There are several projects that use SymPy as a library for implementing a part of their project, or even as a part of back-end for their application as well.

687 Some of them are listed below:

- 688 • **Cadabra:** Cadabra is a symbolic computer algebra system (CAS) designed specifically for the solution of problems encountered in field theory.
- 689 • **Octave Symbolic:** The Octave-Forge Symbolic package adds symbolic calculation features to GNU Octave. These include common Computer Algebra System tools such as algebraic operations, calculus, equation solving, Fourier and Laplace transforms, variable precision arithmetic and other features.
- 690 • **SymPy.jl:** Provides a Julia interface to SymPy using PyCall.
- 691 • **Mathics:** Mathics is a free, general-purpose online CAS featuring Mathematica compatible syntax and functions. It is backed by highly extensible Python code, relying on SymPy for most mathematical tasks.
- 692 • **Mathpix:** An iOS App, that uses Artificial Intelligence to detect handwritten math as input, and uses SymPy Gamma, to evaluate the math input and generate the relevant steps to solve the problem.
- 693 • **IKFast:** IKFast is a robot kinematics compiler provided by **OpenRAVE**. It analytically solves robot inverse kinematics equations and generates optimized C++ files. It uses SymPy for its internal symbolic mathematics.

- **Sage**: A CAS, visioned to be a viable free open source alternative to Magma, Maple, Mathematica and Matlab.
- **SageMathCloud**: SageMathCloud is a web-based cloud computing and course management platform for computational mathematics.
- **PyDy**: Multibody Dynamics with Python.
- **galgebra**: Geometric algebra (previously sympy.galgebra).
- **yt**: Python package for analyzing and visualizing volumetric data (yt.units uses SymPy).
- **SfePy**: Simple finite elements in Python.
- **Quameon**: Quantum Monte Carlo in Python.
- **Lcapy**: Experimental Python package for teaching linear circuit analysis.
- **Quantum Programming in Python**: Quantum 1D Simple Harmonic Oscillator and Quantum Mapping Gate.
- **LaTeX Expression project**: Easy LaTeX typesetting of algebraic expressions in symbolic form with automatic substitution and result computation.
- **Symbolic statistical modeling**: Adding statistical operations to complex physical models.

7. Conclusion and future work.

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9. Supplement.

9.1. Series.

9.1.1. Series Expansion. SymPy is able to calculate the symbolic series expansion of an arbitrary series or expression involving elementary and special functions and multiple variables. For this it has two different implementations- the `series` method and `Ring Series`.

The first approach stores a series as an object of the `Basic` class. Each function has its specific implementation of its expansion which is able to evaluate the Puiseux series expansion about a specified point. For example, consider a Taylor expansion about 0:

```
>>> from sympy import symbols, series
>>> x, y = symbols('x, y')
>>> series(sin(x+y) + cos(x*y), x, 0, 2)
1 + sin(y) + x*cos(y) + O(x**2)
```

The newer and much faster[1] approach called `Ring Series` makes use of the observation that a truncated Taylor series, is in fact a polynomial. `Ring Series` uses the efficient representation and operations of sparse polynomials. The choice of sparse polynomials is deliberate as it performs well in a wider range of cases than a dense representation. `Ring Series` gives the user the freedom to choose the type of coefficients he wants to have in his series, allowing the use of faster operations on certain types.

For this, several low level methods for expansion of trigonometric, hyperbolic and other elementary functions like inverse of a series, calculating n th root, etc, are implemented using variants of the Newton[7] Method. All these support Puiseux series expansion. The following example demonstrates the use of an elementary function that calculates the Taylor expansion of the `sine` of a series.

```
>>> from sympy import ring
>>> from sympy.polys.ring_series import rs_sin
>>> R, x = ring('x', QQ)
>>> rs_sin(x**2 + x, x, 5)
-1/2*x**4 - 1/6*x**3 + x**2 + x
```

The function `sympy.polys.rs_series` makes use of these elementary functions to expand an arbitrary SymPy expression. It does so by following a recursive strategy

of expanding the lower most functions first and then composing them recursively to calculate the desired expansion. Currently it only supports expansion about 0 and is under active development. Ring Series is several times faster than the default implementation with the speed difference increasing with the size of the series. The `sympy.polys.rs_series` takes as input any SymPy expression and hence there is no need to explicitly create a polynomial ring. An example:

```
>>> from sympy.polys.ring_series import rs_series
>>> from sympy.abc import a, b
>>> from sympy import sin, cos
>>> rs_series(sin(a + b), a, 4)
-1/2*(sin(b))*a**2 + (sin(b)) - 1/6*(cos(b))*a**3 + (cos(b))*a
```

9.1.2. Formal Power Series. SymPy can be used for computing the Formal Power Series of a function. The implementation is based on the algorithm described in the paper on Formal Power Series[16]. The advantage of this approach is that an explicit formula for the coefficients of the series expansion is generated rather than just computing a few terms.

The following example shows how to use `fps`:

```
>>> f = fps(sin(x), x, x0=0)
>>> f.truncate(6)
x - x**3/6 + x**5/120 + O(x**6)
>>> f[15]
-x**15/1307674368000
```

9.1.3. Fourier Series. SymPy provides functionality to compute Fourier Series of a function using the `fourier_series` function. Under the hood it just computes a_0 , a_n , b_n using standard integration formulas.

Here's an example on how to compute Fourier Series in SymPy:

```
>>> L = symbols('L')
>>> f = fourier_series(2 * (Heaviside(x/L) - Heaviside(x/L - 1)) - 1, (x, 0, 2*L))
>>> f.truncate(3)
4*sin(pi*x/L)/pi + 4*sin(3*pi*x/L)/(3*pi) + 4*sin(5*pi*x/L)/(5*pi)
```

9.2. Logic. SymPy supports construction and manipulation of boolean expressions through the `logic` module. SymPy symbols can be used as propositional variables and also be substituted as `True` or `False`. A good number of manipulation features for boolean expressions have been implemented in the `logic` module.

9.2.1. Constructing boolean expressions. A boolean variable can be declared as a SymPy symbol. Python operators `&`, `|` and `~` are overloaded for logical `And`, `Or` and `negate`. Several others like `Xor`, `Implies` can be constructed with `^`, `>>` respectively. The above are just a shorthand, expressions can also be constructed by directly calling `And()`, `Or()`, `Not()`, `Xor()`, `Nand()`, `Nor()`, etc.

```
>>> from sympy import *
>>> x, y, z = symbols('x y z')
>>> e = (x & y) | z
>>> e.subs({x: True, y: True, z: False})
True
```

9.2.2. CNF and DNF. Any boolean expression can be converted to conjunctive normal form, disjunctive normal form and negation normal form. The API also permits to check if a boolean expression is in any of the above mentioned forms.

```

857 >>> from sympy import *
858 >>> x, y, z = symbols('x y z')
859 >>> to_cnf((x & y) | z)
860 And(Or(x, z), Or(y, z))
861 >>> to_dnf(x & (y | z))
862 Or(And(x, y), And(x, z))
863 >>> is_cnf((x | y) & z)
864 True
865 >>> is_dnf((x & y) | z)
866 True

```

867 **9.2.3. Simplification and Equivalence.** The module supports simplification
868 of given boolean expression by making deductions on it. Equivalence of two expres-
869 sions can also be checked. If so, it is possible to return the mapping of variables of
870 two expressions so as to represent the same logical behaviour.

```

871 >>> from sympy import *
872 >>> a, b, c, x, y, z = symbols('a b c x y z')
873 >>> e = a & (~a | ~b) & (a | c)
874 >>> simplify(e)
875 And(Not(b), a)
876 >>> e1 = a & (b | c)
877 >>> e2 = (x & y) | (x & z)
878 >>> bool_map(e1, e2)
879 (And(Or(b, c), a), {b: y, a: x, c: z})

```

880 **9.2.4. SAT solving.** The module also supports satisfiability checking of a given
881 boolean expression. If satisfiable, it is possible to return a model for which the ex-
882 pression is satisfiable. The API also supports returning all possible models. The SAT
883 solver has a clause learning DPLL algorithm implemented with watch literal scheme
884 and VSIDS heuristic[20].

```

885 >>> from sympy import *
886 >>> a, b, c = symbols('a b c')
887 >>> satisfiable(a & (~a | b) & (~b | c) & ~c)
888 False
889 >>> satisfiable(a & (~a | b) & (~b | c) & c)
890 {b: True, a: True, c: True}

```

891 **9.3. SymPy Gamma.** SymPy Gamma is a simple web application that runs
892 on Google App Engine. It executes and displays the results of SymPy expressions as
893 well as additional related computations, in a fashion similar to that of Wolfram|Alpha.
894 For instance, entering an integer will display its prime factors, digits in the base-10
895 expansion, and a factorization diagram. Entering a function will display its docstring;
896 in general, entering an arbitrary expression will display its derivative, integral, series
897 expansion, plot, and roots.

898 SymPy Gamma also has several additional features than just computing the re-
899 sults using SymPy.

- 900 • It displays integration steps, differentiation steps in detail, which can be
901 viewed in Figure 1:

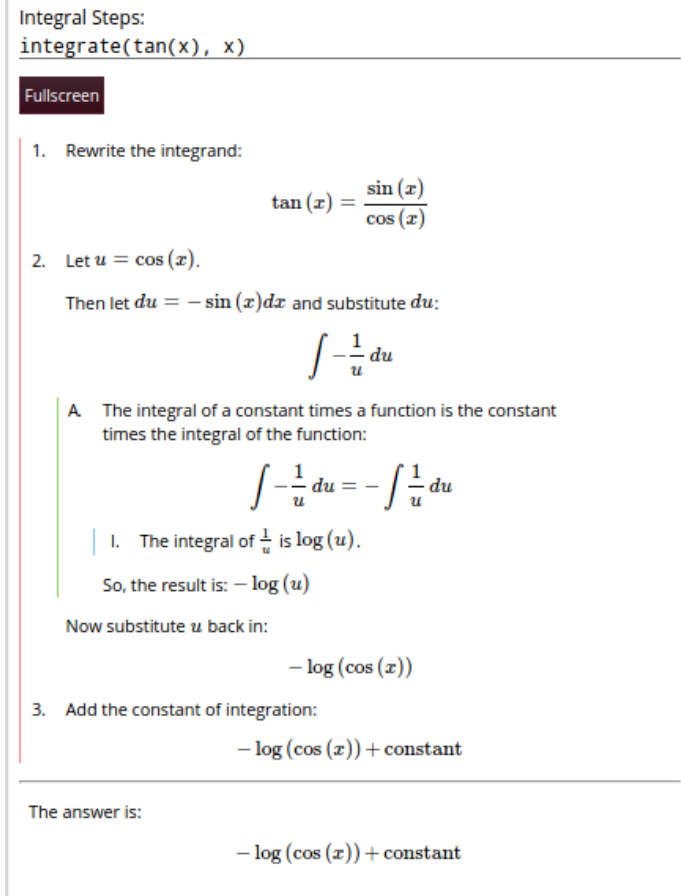


Fig. 1: Integral steps of $\tan(x)$

- It also displays the factor tree diagrams for different numbers.
- SymPy Gamma also saves user search queries, and offers many such similar features for free, which Wolfram|Alpha only offers to its paid users.

Every input query from the user on SymPy Gamma is first, parsed by its own parser, which handles several different forms of function names, which SymPy as a library doesn't support. For instance, SymPy Gamma supports queries like `sin x`, whereas SymPy doesn't support this, and supports only `sin(x)`.

This parser converts the input query to the equivalent SymPy readable code, which is then eventually processed by SymPy and the result is finally formatted in LaTeX and displayed on the SymPy Gamma web-application.

9.4. SymPy Live. SymPy Live is an online Python shell, which runs on Google App Engine, that executes SymPy code. It is integrated in the SymPy documentation examples, located at this [link](#).

This is accomplished by providing a HTML/JavaScript GUI for entering source code and visualization of output, and a server part which evaluates the requested source code. It's an interactive AJAX shell, that runs SymPy code using Python on the server.

Certain Features of SymPy Live:

- It supports the exact same syntax as SymPy, hence it can be used easily, to test for outputs of various SymPy expressions.
- It can be run as a standalone app or in an existing app as an admin-only handler, and can also be used for system administration tasks, as an interactive way to try out APIs, or as a debugging aid during development.
- It can also be used to plot figures ([link](#)), and execute all kinds of expressions that SymPy can evaluate.
- SymPy Live also formats the output in LaTeX for pretty-printing the output.

9.5. Comparison with Mathematica. Wolfram Mathematica is a popular proprietary CAS. It features highly advanced algorithms. Mathematica has a core implemented in C++ [2] which interprets its own programming language (known as Wolfram language).

Analogously to Lisp's S-expressions, Mathematica uses its own style of M-expressions, which are arrays of either atoms or other M-expression. The first element of the expression identifies the type of the expression and is indexed by zero, whereas the first argument is indexed by one. Notice that SymPy expression arguments are stored in a Python tuple (that is, an immutable array), while the expression type is identified by the type of the object storing the expression.

Mathematica can associate attributes to its atoms.

Unlike SymPy, Mathematica's expressions are mutable, that is one can change parts of the expression tree without the need of creating a new object. The reactivity of Mathematica allows for a lazy updating of any references to that data structure.

Products in Mathematica are determined by some builtin node types, such as `Times`, `Dot`, and others. `Times` is overloaded by the `*` operator, and is always meant to represent a commutative operator. The other notable product is `Dot`, overloaded by the `.` operator. This product represents matrix multiplication, it is not commutative. SymPy uses the same node for both scalar and matrix multiplication, the only exception being with abstract matrix symbols. Unlike Mathematica, SymPy determines commutativity with respect to multiplication from the factor's expression type. Mathematica puts the `Orderless` attribute on the expression type.

Regarding associative expressions, SymPy handles associativity by making associative expressions inherit the class `AssocOp`, while Mathematica specifies the `Flat` attribute on the expression type.