```
#
# This lecture contains
#
# a brief discussion about Taylor Expansion
#
# and then
#
# we move to chapter 6 of the book
# and study SIMULTANEOUS LINEAR EQUATIONS
```

```
#
# TAYLOR EXPANSION
# -_-_-_---_-_-_-_-_--
# By using a Taylor expansion we can approximate a given function f(x)
# at a certain point x=a
# by a polynomial.
```

\# The concept of a Taylor series was formulated by the Scottish mathematician
\# James Gregory and formally introduced by the English mathematician
\# Brook Taylor in 1715. If the Taylor series is centered at zero,
\# then that series is also called a Maclaurin series.
\# The polynomial that approximates $f(x)$ at $x=a$ is the
\# nth degree TAYLOR polynomial:
\# $P(x)=f(a)+f^{\prime}(a)(x-a)+\left(f{ }^{\prime \prime}(a)\right) / 2!(x-a)^{\wedge} 2+\ldots+\left(f(a)^{\wedge}(n)(a)\right) / n!(x-a)^{\wedge} n$
\# Example:
\# $\sin (x)$ close to $x=0$ is
\# $\sin (x) \sim x-x^{\wedge} 3 / 3!+x^{\wedge} 5 / 5!\quad .$.
\# With this expansion, it becomes easy to study the limit sin(x)/x

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# ------
# SYMPY
# ------
# In Python, we can use SYMPY to get Taylor expansions.
# Example: Expansion of cos(x) around x=0
import sympy as syp
x = syp.Symbol('x')
# choose n=5 if you want the expansion up to x^4
ff=syp.series(syp.cos(x), x,x0=0,n=5)
print( 'cos(x) ~', ff )
f2 = ff.removeO()
print( 'cos(x) up to x^3: ', f2 )
```

```
print()
```



```
# CAREFUL!! ff and f2 are symbolic expressions
# We cannot use them as functions
# Check what happens with the lines below
# NOT SOLVED!!
print("The function is not solved!")
def func(x):
    return f2
print(func(3))
print()
# WE COULD COPY THE FUNCTION
print('Solved because we copied the function')
x=3
gg = x**4/24 - x**2/2 + 1
print('Taylor of cos up to x^4 with x=3: ', gg)
# WE CAN LAMBDIFY THE EXPRESSION
#
# CAREFUL!! Since above x became the number 3
# Say again that "x" is a SYMBOL
x = syp.Symbol('x')
# To convert a SymPy expression to an expression that can be
# numerically evaluated, use the lambdify function.
print()
print("Now it is solved, because we lambdified the function!")
g2 = syp.lambdify(x,f2)
print(g2(3))
# Now that we have g2 as a FUNCTION of x
# We can get g2 for various values of x
# -----------------------------------------------------------------------
import numpy as np
x = np.arange(1, 2.1, 0.1)
g2(x)
print()
print("And with numpy we can get all values at once")
print(x)
print(g2(x))
# -----------
```

\# Make a plot of sin(x) and
\# the first, third, fifth and seventh degree Taylor polynomials
\# for $x$ from $x=-3.5$ to $x=3.5$ in increments 0.01 .
\# Label your curves.

```
# -------------------------------------------------------------------
# After this review of Taylor expansion, we can understand why
# the central difference gives a better approximation to the
# derivative of a function than
# the forward or backward differences
# See Sec.5.10.2 and Sec.5.10.3 of the book.
# ----------------------------------------------------------------------
```


##  <br> \#

```
print()
# -------------------------------------------------------------------
# CHAPTER 6 of the book
# -------------------------------------------------------------------
# NOTE: chapters beyond chapter 5 are NOT available online!!
# To read them, you can get the book in the library
```

```
# Suppose we want to solve the following four simultaneous equations
# for the variables w, x, y, and z
#
# 2w + x + 4y + z = - 4
# 3w + 4x - y - z = 3
# w-4x + y + 5z = 9
# 2w - 2x + y + 3z = 7
# which can be written in a matrix form as
# A x = v
# where
import numpy as np
A = np.array([[2, 1, 4, 1],
```

$$
\begin{gathered}
{[3,4,-1,-1],} \\
{[1,-4,1,5],} \\
[2,-2,1,3]], \text { float }) \\
v=\text { np.array }([-4,3,9,7], \text { float })
\end{gathered}
$$

```
print("Using 'solve' from numpy.linalg")
# -----------------
# LINALG and SOLVE
# -----------------
# This can be done with the
# module LINALG of the
# NUMPY package
# with the function SOLVE
import numpy.linalg as npa
x = npa.solve(A,v)
print('w, x, y, z = ',x)
print()
print("Using 'inv' from numpy.linalg")
# -----------------
# LINALG and INV
# -----------------
# We can also find the inverse of A
# and use A^{-1}.A.x = x = A^{-1}.v
# to find v.
# The inverse is also contained in numpy.linalg
# and is called "inv"
Ainv = npa.inv(A)
sol = np.dot(Ainv,v)
print('w, x, y, z = ',sol)
# BUT, calculating the inverse of a matrix is a
# slow process. Unless the inverse is really needed,
# it is better to avoid it.
```

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#%%
# WHAT IS BEHIND THE FUNCTION SOLVE?
# Python uses the LU decomposition and backsubstitution.
# To understand what this is, let us start with
# Gaussian elimination and backsubstitution
```

\# ----------------------
\# GAUSSIAN ELIMINATION
\# --------------------
\# Follow the PDF notes called "GaussianElimination"
\# and write a code to find w, x, y, and z for the \# system of linear equations written above.

```
# The purpose of the Gaussian elimination is to write
# the matrix A as an upper triangular matrix,
# so that w, x, y, z can be obtained by backsubstitution.
```


## import numpy as np

$A=n p . \operatorname{array}([[2,1,4,1]$,
$[3,4,-1,-1]$,
$[1,-4,1,5]$,
$[2,-2,1,3]]$, float)
$v=n p . \operatorname{array}([-4,3,9,7], f l o a t)$
Ntot $=\operatorname{len}(v)$
\# Gaussian Elimination
\#
for n in range(Ntot):
\# Divide the row by the diagonal element
\# to get the element 1.
$\operatorname{div}=A[n, n]$
\# NOTE: that we can do the operation on the entire row using ':' as below
\# Alternatively, we could have a loop here.
$A[n,:]=A[n,:] / d i v$
$v[n]=v[n] / d i v$
\# The simplified notation below do the same as above
\# A[n,:] /= div
\# v[m] /= div
\# PRINT to be sure it is doing what we want print()
print('n=',n)
print('A[n,:]=', $A[n,:], '$ and $v[n]=', v[n])$

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# ---------------------------------------------------------------------------
    # Now we do (lower row) - (num)*(row just divided by diagonal element)
    # to get the element 0.
    for k in range(n+1,Ntot):
        mult=A[k,n]
        A[k,:] = A[k,:] - mult*A[n,:]
        v[k] = v[k] - mult*v[n]
        # The simplified notation below do the same as above
        # A[k,:] - = mult*A[n,:]
        # v[m] - = mult*v[n]
        # PRINT to be sure it is doing what we want
# print('k=',k)
# print('A[k,:]=', A[k,:], ' and v[k]=', v[k])
```

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#
# BACKSUBSTITUTION
# create an array of zeros, where the solution will be stored
x = np.zeros(Ntot,float)
# n below goes from n=Ntot-1=3 to n=0 (one before the last term -1)
for n in range(Ntot-1,-1,-1):
    x[n] = v[n]
    # k below goes from k=n+1 to k=Ntot-1 (one before the last term Ntot)
    for k in range(n+1,Ntot):
        x[n] = x[n] - A[n,k]*x[k]
print('w, x, y, z =', x)
# --------------------
# PIVOTING
# --------------------
# If an element of A is zero, which would lead to a division by zero,
# we swap the row with another one that has the farthest element from zero.
# See the PDF notes called "GaussianElimination".
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# --------------------

# LU DECOMPOSITION

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# --------------------

# Follow the PDF notes called "LUdecomposition"

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# to understand what this decomposition is.

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# The basic idea is to write the A matrix as a

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# product of two matrices

# product of two matrices

# A = L U

# A = L U

# where

# where

# L is a lower triangular matrix

# L is a lower triangular matrix

# and

# and

# U is an upper triangular matrix

# U is an upper triangular matrix

# 

# 

# In fact, U is the matrix that we obtain after the

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# Gaussian elimination

# Gaussian elimination

# U = L3.L2.L1.L0.A

# U = L3.L2.L1.L0.A

# 

# 

# and L L L L0^{-1}.L1^{-1}.L2^{-1}.L3^{-1}

# and L L L L0^{-1}.L1^{-1}.L2^{-1}.L3^{-1}

# 

# TRIDIAGONAL and BANDED matrices

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\# When we have tridiagonal matrices or banded matrices, \# the code for the Gaussian elimination can (and should) be simplified! \#
\# For a tridiagonal problem, each row only needs to be subtracted \# from the single row immediately below it!!```

