

Programming in Maple: The Basics.

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Abstract

This is a tutorial on programming in Maple. The aim is to show how you can write simple programs in Maple for doing numerical calculations, linear algebra, and programs for simplifying or transforming symbolic expressions or mathematical formulae. It is assumed that the reader is familiar with using Maple interactively as a calculator.

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1 Introduction

A few words to those who are familiar with other programming languages.

- Maple is a procedural programming language. It also includes a number of functional programming constructs. If you have written programs in Basic, Pascal, Algol, C, Lisp, or Fortran, you should be able to write numerical programs in Maple very quickly.
- Maple is not strongly typed like C and Pascal. No declarations are required. Maple is more like Basic and Lisp in this respect. However types exist. Type checking is done at run time and must be programmed explicitly.
- Maple is interactive and the programming language is interpreted. Maple is not suitable for running numerically intensive programs because of the interpreter overhead. Though it is suitable for high-precision numerical calculations and as a tool for generating numerical codes.

This document is based on Maple version V Release 3. Maple development continues. New versions come out every one or two years which contain not only changes to the mathematical capabilities of Maple, but also changes to the programming language and user interface. For this reason, I have tried to steer you away from constructs in the language which are being, or are likely to be removed, and have mentioned some things that will be in the language in future versions of Maple.

The *Maple V Language Reference Manual* is the main reference for programming in Maple. It is published by Springer-Verlag. The ISBN number is 0-387-87621-3 . Other useful sources of information include the Release Notes for Maple V Release 3, available from Waterloo Maple Software, the *First Leaves: Tutorial Introduction to Maple*, also published by Springer-Verlag, and the extensive on-line documentation which is accessible with the `?` command in Maple. Part of the reason for writing this document is that some of the important things I have stated here are not mentioned elsewhere, or they are buried in the documentation.

1.1 Evaluation

Before I begin, I want to point out the most important difference between Maple and traditional programming languages. If an identifier has not been assigned a value, then it stands for itself. It is a *symbol*. Symbols are used to represent unknowns in equations, variables in polynomials, summation indices, etc. Consider the Maple assignment statement

```
> p := x^2+4*x+4;
```

$$p := x^2 + 4x + 4$$

Here the identifier p has been assigned the formula $x^2 + 4x + 4$. The identifier x has not been assigned a value, it is just a symbol, an unknown. The identifier p has been assigned a value. It is now like a programming variable, and its value can be used in subsequent calculations just like a normal programming variable. What is the value of p ?

```
> p;
```

$$x^2 + 4x + 4$$

It is the formula $x^2 + 4x + 4$. What is the value of x ?

```
> x;
```

x

It is the symbol x . Because a variable can be assigned a value which contains symbols, the issue of *evaluation* arises. Consider

```
> x := 3;
```

$x := 3$

```
> p;
```

25

Here we assigned x the value 3 and asked Maple to print out the value of p . What should Maple print out? Should it print out the polynomial $x^2 + 4x + 4$ or should it evaluate the polynomial, i.e. compute $3^2 + 4 \times 3 + 4$ and return the result 25? We see that Maple does the latter. This issue of evaluation will come up from time to time as it may affect the efficiency and semantics of a program. This difference between Maple and traditional programming languages, where identifiers can be used for both programming variables and mathematical unknowns is nice. But be careful not to mix the two. Many problems that users encounter have to do with using identifiers for both symbols and programming variables. For example, what happens if we now try to compute $\int p dx$?

```
> int(p,x);
```

```
Error, (in int) wrong number (or type) of arguments
```

An error has occurred in the integration function `int`. Here we are thinking of x as a symbol, the integration variable. But x was previously assigned the integer 3. Maple evaluates the arguments to the `int` function and tries to integrate 25 with respect to 3. It doesn't make sense to integrate with respect to 3! How does one convert x back into a symbol? In Maple one *unassigns* the variable x by doing

```
> x := 'x';
```

$x := x$

```
> int(p,x);
```

$$\frac{1}{3} x^3 + 2 x^2 + 4 x$$

1.2 Expressions: Sums, Products, Powers, Functions

In Maple, mathematical formulae, e.g. things like $\sin(x+\pi/2)$, and $x^3y^2-2/3$ are called *expressions*. They are made up of symbols, numbers, arithmetic operators and functions. Symbols are things like `sin`, `x`, `y`, `Pi` etc. Numbers include `12`, `2/3`, `2.1` etc. The arithmetic operators are `+` (addition), `-` (subtraction), `*` (multiplication), `/` (division), and `^` (exponentiation). And examples of functions include `sin(x)`, `f(x,y)`, `min(x1,x2,x3,x4)`. For example, the formula $p = x^2y + 3x^3z + 2$, which is a polynomial, is input in Maple as

```
> p := x^2*y + 3*x^3*z + 2;
p := x2 y + 3 x3 z + 2
```

and the formula $\sin(x + \pi/2)e^{-x}$ is input as

```
> sin(x+Pi/2)*exp(-x);
cos(x) exp(- x)
```

Notice that Maple simplified $\sin(x + \pi/2)$ to $\cos(x)$ for us. Formulae in Maple are represented as *expression trees* or *DAGs* (Directed Acyclic Graphs) in computer jargon. When we program Maple functions to manipulate formulae, we are basically manipulating expression trees. The three basic routines for examining these expression trees are `type`, `op` and `nops`. The `type` function

```
type( f, t )
```

returns the value `true` if the expression f is of type t . The basic types are `string`, `integer`, `fraction`, `float`, `'+'`, `'*'`, `'^'`, and `function`. The `whattype` function is also useful for printing out the type of an expression. For example, our polynomial p is a sum of 3 terms. Thus

```
> type( p, integer );
false

> whattype(p);
+

> type( p, '+' );
true
```

Note the use of the back quote character `'` here. Back quotes are used for strings in Maple which contain funny characters like `/`, `.` etc. Back quotes are not the same as forward quotes (the apostrophe) `'` or double quotes `"`.

Two other numerical types are `rational`, and `numeric`. The type `rational` refers to the rational numbers, i.e. integers and fractions. The type `float` refers to floating point numbers, i.e. numbers with a decimal point in them. The type `numeric` refers to any of these kinds of numbers, i.e. numbers of type `rational` or `float`. Maple users will have noticed that Maple distinguishes between exact rational numbers and approximate numbers. The presence of a decimal point is significant! Consider

```
> 2/3;
2/3

# That is a rational number, the following is a floating point number
> 2/3.0;
.6666666667
```

ATTENTION Engineers: many of you are used to using and writing Fortran or C software. In Fortran and C you always use decimal numbers. I.e. you have *learned* to always write 0.5 for 1/2. In Maple, if you are typing in a formula, you probably mean 1/2. If you are typing in some data, you probably mean 0.5 . 1/2 is not the same as 0.5 in Maple.

Our example p is a sum of terms. How many terms does it have? The `nops` function returns the number of **op**erands of an expression. For a sum, this means the number of terms in the sum. For a product, it means the number of terms in the product. Hence

```
> nops(p);
3
```

The `op` function is used to extract one of the **op**erands of an expression. It has the syntax

$$\text{op}(i, f)$$

meaning extract the i 'th operand of the expression f where i must be in the range 1 to the `nops` of f . In our example, this means extract the i 'th term of the sum f .

```
> op(1,p);
2
x y
```

```
> op(2,p);
3
3 x z
```

```
> op(3,p);
2
```

The `op` function can also be used in the following way

$$\text{op}(i..j, f).$$

This returns a sequence of operands of f from i to j . For example

```
> op(1..3,p);
2      3
x y, 3 x z, 2
```

A useful abbreviation is `rmop(f)` which is equivalent to `op(1..nops(f), f)` which means create a sequence of all the operands of f . What about the second term of the sum p ? It is a product of 3 factors

```
> type(op(2,p), '*');      # It is a product
true
```

```
> nops(op(2,p));          # It has 3 factors
3
```

```
> op(1,op(2,p));         # Here is the first factor
3
```

```
> op(op(2,p));           # Here is a sequence of all 3 factors
3
3, x , z
```

Indexed names and Functions

Maple has two kinds of variables or *names* as Maple calls them. There are strings like `x`, `sin`, `Pi`, which are of type `string` and indexed names or subscripted variables like $A_1, A_{i,j}, A_{i_j}$ which are of type `indexed`. These examples are input `A[1]`, `A[i,j]`, `A[i][j]` in Maple. Most functions in Maple accept both kinds of variables. The Maple type `name` means either a string or a subscript. Example

```
> type(a,string);
                                true
> type(a,name);
                                true
> whattype(A[1]);
                                indexed
> type(A[1],indexed);
                                true
> type(A[1],name);
                                true
```

If f is an indexed name, then the `nops` function returns the number of indices, and the `op` function returns the i 'th index. Also `op(0, f)` returns the name of the index. Example

```
> nops(A[i,j]);
                                2
> op(1,A[i,j]);
                                i
> op(0,A[i,j]);
                                A
> nops(A[i][j]);
                                1
> op(1,A[i][j]);
                                j
> op(0,A[i][j]);
                                A[i]
```

Functions work very similarly to indexed names. The syntax for a function call is

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots)$$

where f is the name of the function, and x_1, x_2, \dots are the arguments. The `nops` function returns the number of arguments, and the `op` function returns the i 'th argument. Also `op(0, f)` returns the name of the function. Example

```
> nops(f(x,y,z));
                                3
> op(1..3,f(x,y,z));
                                x, y, z
> op(0,f(x,y,z));
                                f
```

We can now create and pick apart any Maple formula. Exercise 6 asks you to write a Maple program that picks apart a Maple formula. We conclude here with some examples showing how this can be done interactively.

```
> f := sin(x[1])^2*(1-cos(Pi*x[2]));
                2
            sin(x[1]) (1 - cos(Pi x[2]))
> whattype(f);
                *
> op(1,f);
                2
            sin(x[1])
> op(1,op(1,f));
            sin(x[1])
> op(1,op(1,op(1,f)));
                x[1]
```

1.3 Statements: Assignment, Conditional, Loops

The Maple syntax for the assignment, if, for and while statements is taken from Algol 60. The assignment statement looks like

$$name := expr$$

where *expr* is any expression and *name* is a variable name. We want to mention here an evaluation problem that you will sooner or later run into. It arises because variables can be assigned expressions which contain symbols as well as numbers. Consider the assignment to *p* earlier.

```
> p := x^2+4*x+4;
                2
            p := x  + 4 x + 4
```

Here we assigned the name *p* to a formula that explicitly contains the symbol *x*. What happens now if we use the same name *p* on both sides of the assignment statement?

```
> p := p+x;
                2
            p := x  + 5 x + 4
```

Nothing spectacular. But let us see how the evaluation rules operate here. The name *p* is assigned the result of evaluating and also simplifying the right hand side $p + x$. In evaluating $p + x$, the value of *p* is the polynomial $x^2 + 4x + 4$ and the value of *x* is just *x*. The result of evaluation is therefore the expression $(x^2 + 4x + 4) + x$. Next this is simplified to the final result $x^2 + 5x + 4$. Now comes the big question. What happens if *p* was not already assigned a value? Let's see what happens. Using *q* instead of *p*

```
> q := q+x;
Warning: Recursive definition of name
            q := q + x
```

Well, you may say, obviously the user forgot to assign q a value first. Indeed that is probably the case, but let us continue and see what happens to Maple. Maple certainly allows q to not have a value just like x in the previous example.

The above statement resulted in a warning from Maple. The name q is now assigned a formula which involves q . What happens now if we try to evaluate q ? We would have to evaluate $q + x$. But to evaluate $q + x$ we have to evaluate q again. Therein lies an infinite evaluation loop. On my system, if I try to evaluate q , Maple dies with a rather spectacular crash

```
> q := q+x^2;
Segmentation fault
```

ATTENTION: a recursive definition of a name like q in the above example will when evaluated typically result in crash as Maple runs out of Stack space. On some systems Maple will die. On other systems, Maple is able to stop just before it dies and report that there is a problem. If Maple ever crashes on you, there is a good chance that this is the reason. Maple will also die of course if there is a true infinite loop in an algorithm.

To recover from such a warning, simply unassign the variable q , i.e. do `q := 'q'`; . Note that Maple does not detect all recursive assignments because this would be too expensive to do in general.

In a conventional programming language, this problem of a recursive definition cannot arise because all variables must have values. If they haven't been assigned a value, this is really an error. Depending on the language, variables either get a default value, or they get whatever junk happens to be present in memory at the time, or in a few cases, the language attempts to detect this and issue an error.

The conditional statement in Maple has the following syntax.

```
if expr then statseq
    [ elif expr then statseq ]*
    [ else statseq ]
fi
```

where *statseq* is a sequence of statements separated by semi-colons, `[]` denotes an optional part, and `*` denotes a part which can be repeated zero or more times. A typical **if** statement would be

```
if x < 0 then -1 elif x = 0 then 0 else 1 fi
```

The **for** statement has two variations. The first one is

```
[ for name ] [ from expr ] [ by expr ] [ to expr ] [ while expr ]
do statseq od
```

Thus each of the **for**, **from**, **by**, **to**, **while** clauses can be omitted. If omitted, the default values are a dummy variable, 1, 1, ∞ and true respectively. A typical example of a **for** loop is

```
for i to 10 do print(i^2) od;
```

If one omits the **for**, **from**, **by** and **to** clauses we have a so called **while** loop.

```

i := 10^10+1;
while not isprime(i) do i := i + 2 od;
print(i);

```

Combining the **for** and **while** loops is sometimes nice, e.g. this example of searching for the first prime $> 10^{10}$ could be done as

```

for i from 10^10+1 by 2 while not isprime(i) do od;
print(i);

```

The above example illustrates that the value of the loop index can be accessed after the loop has terminated.

The second variation on the **for** loop is the so called **for-in** loop. It is really just a short hand for this loop which occurs very often

```

for i to nops(s) do f(op(i,s)) od;

```

where s may be a sum, but in general, any Maple expression or data structure such as a list or set – see next section. One can code this as a **for-in** loop as follows

```

for i in s do f(i) od;

```

The syntax for the **for-in** loop is

```

[ for name ] [ in expr ] [ while expr ]
do statseq od

```

2 Data Structures

More complicated programs involve manipulating and storing data. How we represent our data affects the algorithms that we write, and how fast our programs will run. Maple has a good set of data structures. The ones we will look at here are sequences, lists (or vectors), sets, tables (or hash tables), and arrays. Maple does not have records or linked lists. We'll say how these can be implemented in Maple at the end of this section.

2.1 Sequences

A sequence is a sequence of expressions separated by commas. For example

```

> s := 1,4,9,16,25;
s := 1, 4, 9, 16, 25

> t := sin,cos,tan;
t := sin, cos, tan

```

A sequence of sequences simplifies into one sequence, that is, sequences are *associative*. For example

```

> s := 1,(4,9,16),25;
s := 1, 4, 9, 16, 25

> s,s;
1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25

```

The special symbol NULL is used for the empty sequence. Sequences are used for many purposes. The next section shows how lists and sets are constructed from sequences. Here we note that function calls are really constructed from sequences. For example, the `min` and `max` functions in Maple take an arbitrary number of values as arguments, i.e. a sequence of arguments

```
> max(s);
```

25

```
> min(s,0,s);
```

0

ATTENTION: the `op` and `nops` functions cannot be applied to sequences. This is because the sequence itself becomes the arguments to a function. Thus the calls `op(s)`; and `nops(s)`; are equivalent to `op(1,4,9,16,25)`; and `nops(1,4,9,16,25)` respectively, which result in an error. Put a sequence into a list first if you want to use `op` or `nops`.

The `seq` function is extremely useful for creating sequences. It comes in two flavours, corresponding to the two kinds of `for` loops. The first one is

$$\text{seq}(f(i), i = m..n).$$

The way `seq` works is just as if you had programmed the following loop.

```
s := NULL;
for i from m by 1 to n do s := s, f(i) od;
```

For example

```
> seq( i^2, i=1..5 );
1, 4, 9, 16, 25
> s := NULL; for i from 1 to 5 do s := s, i^2 od;
s :=
s := 1
s := 1, 4
s := 1, 4, 9
s := 1, 4, 9, 16
s := 1, 4, 9, 16, 25
```

Notice that `seq` is more efficient than the `for` loop because it does not create the intermediate sequences. The other flavour of `seq` is

$$\text{seq}(f(i), i = a).$$

This is equivalent to

```
seq( f(op(i,a)), i=1..nops(a) )
```

Here are a couple of interesting examples. The `coeff` function computes the coefficient of the term of degree i of a polynomial in x . The `D` function in Maple is the derivative operator.

```
> a := 3*x^3+y*x-11;
      3
      a := 3 x  + y x - 11
> seq( coeff(a,x,i), i=0..degree(a,x) );
      -11, y, 0, 3
> seq( D(f), f=[sin,cos,tan,exp,ln] );
      2
      cos, - sin, 1 + tan , exp, a -> 1/a
```

2.2 Lists and Sets

Lists, sets and functions are constructed from sequences. A list is a data structure for collecting objects together. Square brackets are used to create lists, for example

```
> l := [x,1,1-z,x];
      l := [x, 1, 1 - z, x]
> whattype(l);
      list
```

The empty list is denoted by `[]`. Sets can also be used to collect objects together. The difference between lists and sets is that duplicates are removed from sets. Squiggly brackets are used for sets, for example

```
> s := {x,1,1-z,x};
      s := {1, 1 - z, x}
> whattype(s);
      set
```

The empty set is denoted by `{}`. The `nops` function returns the number of elements of a list or set and the `op` function extracts the i 'th element. You can also use the subscript notation to access the i 'th element of a sequence, list or set. For example,

```
> op(1,s);
      1
> s[1];
      1
> op(1..3,s);
      1, 1 - z, x
> s[1..3];
      1, 1 - z, x
```

Here is a loop that prints true if a list or set contains the element x , and false otherwise.

```
for i to nops(s) while s[i] <> x do od;
if i > nops(s) then print(false) else print(true) fi;
```

The built in `member` function does this for you. `member(x, s)` returns true if the element x is in the list or set s . You can append a new element to a list l by doing

```
l := [op(l),x];
```

You can remove the i 'th element of a list by doing

```
l := [ l[1..i-1], l[i+1..nops(l)] ];
```

Or, better, use the `subsop` function

```
l := subsop(i=NULL,l);
```

The `subsop` function note can be used for any type of expression. The set operators are `union`, `intersect` and `minus`, e.g.

```
> t := {u,x,z};
                                t := {x, z, u}

> s union t;
                                {x, z, y, u}
```

The Maple user will probably have noticed that Maple orders the elements of sets in a strange order which seems to be unpredictable. The algorithms that Maple uses to remove duplicates, and to do set union, intersection and difference all work by first sorting the elements of the input sets. Maple sorts by *machine address*, i.e. in the order that the elements occur in computer memory. Since this depends on where they are put in memory, this is why the order is strange and unpredictable. The reason Maple sets are implemented in this way is to make the set operations very fast.

2.3 Tables

Tables or hash tables are extremely useful for writing efficient programs. A table is a one-to-many relation between two discrete sets of data. For example, here is a table of colour translations for English to French and German.

```
> COLOUR[red] := rouge,rot;
                                COLOURS[red] := rouge, rot

> COLOUR[blue] := bleu,blau;
                                COLOURS[blue] := bleu, blau

> COLOUR[yellow] := jaune,gelb;
                                COLOURS[yellow] := jaune, gelb
```

The domain of the `COLOUR` table is the name of the colour in English. The range of the table is a sequence of the names of the colours in French and German. In general, the domain and range values can be sequences of zero or more values. The domain values in the table are called the *keys* or *indices*. The Maple `indices` function returns a sequence of them. The range values in the table are called the *values* or *entries*. The Maple `entries` function returns a sequence of them. For example

```
> indices(COLOUR);
                                [red], [yellow], [blue]

> entries(COLOUR);
                                [rouge, rot], [jaune, gelb], [bleu, blau]
```

Note, the order that the `indices` and `entries` functions return the table indices and entries is not necessarily the same order as the order in which they were entered into the table. This is because Maple makes use of *hashing* to make table searching very fast and as a consequence, the order in which the entries were made is lost. However, there is a one to one correspondence between the output of the `indices` and the `entries` functions.

What can one do with a table? Given a table *key* or *index*, we can look up the corresponding entry very quickly. That is, the operation

```
> COLOUR[red];
           rouge, rot
```

returns the French and German names for the colour red quickly. How quickly? Approximately in constant time, no matter how large the table is. Even if our table contains 1000 different colours, the time to search the table will be very fast. That is the basic use of a table. Information is entered into a table by assignment, and table look up is done by table subscript. What else can one do with a table? We can test if an entry is in the table using the `assigned` function and we can remove entries from a table by unassignment. For example

```
> assigned(COLOUR[blue]);
           true

> COLOUR[blue] := 'COLOUR[blue]';
           COLOUR[blue] := COLOUR[blue]

> assigned(COLOUR[blue]);
           false

> print(COLOUR);
           table([
             red = (rouge, rot)
             yellow = (jaune, gelb)
           ])
```

2.4 Arrays

A one-dimensional array is created using the `array` command

```
array( m..n );
```

This creates an array with indices $m, m + 1, \dots, n$. Often m is 1. Entries can be inserted into the array by assignment as for tables, e.g.

```
v := array(1..n);
v[1] := a;
for i from 2 to n do v[i] := a*v[i-1] mod n od;
```

One-dimensional arrays are like tables with one index which is restricted to be in a fixed integer range. Arrays are more efficient to access than tables and range checking on the indices is done. Here is an example of a one-dimensional array used to sort a sequence of numbers. For instance, suppose we are given an array $v = \text{array}(1..n)$ as above. The code presented here sorts v into ascending order using the *bubblesort* algorithm:

```

for i to n-1 do
  for j from i+1 to n do
    if v[i] > v[j] then temp := v[i]; v[i] := v[j]; v[j] := temp fi
  od
od;

```

Another application of one-dimensional arrays is as an intermediate data structure. For example, suppose we represent a polynomial $a(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i$ as a list $[a_0, \dots, a_m]$ of coefficients. Suppose we are given also a polynomial b of degree n . We can use an array c to compute the product $a \times b$ as follows

```

m := nops(a)-1; # degree of a
n := nops(b)-1; # degree of b
c := array(0..m+n); # allocate storage for the product
for i from 0 to m+n do c[i] := 0 od;
for i from 0 to m do
  for j from 0 to n do
    c[i+j] := c[i+j] + a[i+1]*b[j+1]
  od
od:
[seq(c[i],i=0..m+n)]; # put the product in a list

```

Two-dimensional arrays, and higher dimensional arrays work similarly. A two-dimensional array is created by the command

```
array( c..d, m..n );
```

As an example, suppose we are given the vector v of symmetric polynomials in 3 variables x_1, x_2, x_3 .

```

v := array(1..4):
v[1] := 1:
v[2] := x[1] + x[2] + x[3]:
v[3] := x[1]*x[2] + x[1]*x[3] + x[2]*x[3]:
v[4] := x[1]*x[2]*x[3]:

```

Let us construct a two-dimensional array M , where $M_{i,j}$ is the derivative of v_i wrt x_j .

```

> M := array(1..4,1..3):
> for i to 4 do for j to 3 do M[i,j] := diff(v[i],x[j]) od od:
> M;

```

M

```
> eval(M);
```

```

[      0      0      0      ]
[      1      1      1      ]
[ x[2] + x[3]  x[1] + x[3]  x[1] + x[2] ]
[      x[2] x[3]      x[1] x[3]      x[1] x[2] ]

```

ATTENTION: Notice that the value of M is just the name of the array M . Evaluation rules for arrays and tables are special. The reason is so that one can have arrays with unassigned entries. We will not give details about this here. For the moment, whenever you want to print an array or table or return an array or table from a procedure, use the `eval` function.

For further information on arrays see `?array`. Note also that one-dimensional arrays indexed from 1 are used to represent vectors and two-dimensional arrays indexed from 1 are used to represent matrices. See the section on Matrices and Vectors.

2.5 Records

Maple doesn't explicitly have a record data structure like Pascal's `record` or C's `struct`. By a record data structure we mean a data structure for keeping together a heterogeneous collection of objects, i.e. a set of objects not necessarily of the same type.

An example of a place where you would like a record data structure would be in choosing a data structure to represent a quaternion. A quaternion is a number of the form $a + bi + cj + dk$ where a, b, c, d are real numbers. To represent a quaternion, we need to store only the four quantities a, b, c and d . Another example would be a data structure to represent the factorization of a polynomial in $\mathbf{Q}[x]$. The factorization of $a(x)$ looks like

$$a(x) = u \times f_1^{e_1} \times \dots \times f_n^{e_n}$$

where each of the factors $f_i \in \mathbf{Q}[x]$ is monic and irreducible. We need to store the factors f_i and the exponents e_i and the unit $u \in \mathbf{Q}$.

There are several possibilities for representing records in Maple. The simplest, and most obvious, is to use a list. I.e. we would represent the quaternion $a + bi + cj + dk$ as the list $[a, b, c, d]$, and the factorization of $a(x)$ as the list $[u, f]$ where f is a list of lists of the form $[f_i, e_i]$. We use subscripts to refer to a component of the data structure, e.g. the unit part of a factorization would be given by `a[1]`. You can use the *macro* facility to define an identifier to be equal to a constant if you prefer to use a symbol to reference a component as shown in the following example.

```
> a := [-1/2, [[x+1,2], [x-1,1]]];
      a := [-1/2, [[x + 1, 2], [x - 1, 1]]]

> macro(unit=1,factors=2,base=1,exponent=2);
> a[unit];
      -1/2

> a[factors][1][base];
      x + 1

> a[unit]*a[factors][1][base]^a[factors][1][exponent]*a[2][2][1]^a[2][2][2];
      - 1/2 (x + 1)2 (x - 1)
```

A second possibility for representing records in Maple is to use a function call. I.e. we could represent $a + bi + cj + dk$ as `QUARTERNION(i,j,k,l)`. An advantage of this representation is that you we can tell Maple how to do various operations on functions. We will go into details later. Here we shall only mention that you can define how to *pretty print* a function. The example below will show what we mean

```
> QUARTERNION(2,3,0,1);
      QUARTERNION(2, 3, 0, 1)

> 'print/QUARTERNION' := proc(a,b,c,d)  a + b*'i' + c*'j' + d*'k' end;
> QUARTERNION(2,3,0,1);
```

$$2 + 3 i + k$$

Here we have defined a printing procedure or subroutine. This routine is called once for each different `QUARTERNION` function in a result from Maple prior to displaying the result. Note the use of quotes in the procedure, because we want to see the identifiers i, j , and k in the output, and not the value of the variables i, j, k which we might be using for something else.

A third possibility for representing a record is to think of it as a multivariate polynomial in the field names, and to store the values in the coefficients. This is quite useful when the fields are numerical and you wish to be able to do arithmetic on the fields. For example, we could represent a quaternions as a polynomial in the variables i, j, k as in the output representation above. I.e.

```
> z1 := 2 + 3*i + k;
                                z1 := 2 + 3 i + k
> z2 := 2 - 3*i + 2*j + 2*k;
                                z2 := 2 - 3 i + 2 j + 2 k
> coeff(z1,i); # the coefficient in i
                                3
> z1 + z2;
                                4 + 3 k + 2 j
```

Although this looks nice, we don't recommend using the names i, j , or k because you will use them for `for` loop variables!

2.6 Linked Lists

Maple lists are not linked lists. Maple lists are really arrays of pointers to their entries. Maple lists differ from Maple arrays in that they are read only, i.e. you can't assign to a component of a Maple list. Linked lists are recursive data structures. The difference can be seen by studying a simple example. Consider representing a polynomial $a(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$ in Maple. One possibility would be to store the coefficients a_0, \dots, a_n in a Maple list. For instance, we could represent the polynomial $p = x^4 + 3x^2 + 2x + 11$ as follows

```
[11, 2, 3, 0, 1]
```

The degree of the polynomial is the number of entries in the list minus one. Alternatively we could use a linked list

```
[ 1, [ 0, [ 3, [ 2, [ 11, NIL ]]]]]
```

We see that the linked list is a recursive data structure. It is either list of two values, traditionally called the *CAR* and *CDR* – terminology from the Lisp programming language, or it is the special value `NIL` signifying the empty linked list. The first field contains a data value, in our case, a coefficient. The second field is a pointer to another linked list which contains the rest of the data values. Note that in order to compute the degree of a polynomial represented by a linked list, we have to compute the depth of the linked list. If p is a linked list, you could do this using the loop

```
for n from 0 while p <> NIL do p := p[2] od;
```

Now, why would we represent a polynomial using a linked list instead of a Maple list? The principle reason is that we can put a new entry onto the front of a linked list in constant time instead of linear time. For example, suppose we wanted to add the term $5x^5$ to our polynomial p . In the Maple list representation we must create a new list with 6 entries by doing

```
[op(p),5];
```

This requires at least 6 words of storage for the new Maple list. Don't be fooled. The `op` call is short for `op(1..nops(p),p)` which creates a sequence of all the entries in the Maple list p . This takes constant time and uses no storage but now, we have sequence `(11, 2, 3, 0, 1), 5` which results in the new larger sequence `11, 2, 3, 0, 1, 5` being created. This is where 6 words of storage get allocated. In general, adding $a_{n+1}x^{n+1}$ to a polynomial of degree n takes $O(n)$ time and storage. But what about the linked list? To add the term $5x^5$ we do

```
[5,p];
```

which only needs to create a new Maple list of length two, hence constant storage. The time will also be linear time if p is a global variable, but constant time if p is a local variable or parameter inside a procedure. This evaluation detail will be explained in the section on procedures. But for now assume that the running time for this operation is also $O(1)$ for linked lists.

ATTENTION Lisp Programmers: You can't change the components of a Maple list. There can be no equivalent of `REPLACA` and `REPLACDR`. Maple lists, sets, sequences, and functions are read only data structures. Only arrays and tables can be changed.

3 Maple Procedures

3.1 Parameters, Local Variables, RETURN, ERROR

A Maple procedure has the following syntax

```
proc ( nameseq )
  [ local  nameseq ; ]
  [ global nameseq ; ]
  [ options nameseq ; ]
  statseq
end
```

where *nameseq* is a sequence of symbols separated by commas, and *statseq* is a sequence of statements separated by semicolons. Here is a simple procedure which, given x, y , computes $x^2 + y^2$.

```
proc(x,y) x^2 + y^2 end
```

This procedure has two parameters x and y . It has no local variables, no global variables, no options, and only one statement. The value returned by the procedure is $x^2 + y^2$. In general the value returned by a procedure is the last value computed unless there is an explicit return statement. An example of a procedure with an explicit return statement is the following `MEMBER` procedure. `MEMBER(x,L)` returns `true` if x is in the list L , false otherwise.

```

MEMBER := proc(x,a) local v;
    for v in L do if v = x then RETURN(true) fi od;
    false
end;

```

The `MEMBER` procedure has a local variable v so that it does not interfere with the global user variable v . Variables that appear in a procedure which are neither parameters nor locals and are not explicitly declared global are in this new version of Maple given a default declaration local if either the following is true

- A variable or subscripted variable on the left hand side of an assignment
- A variable or subscripted variable in a for or seq loop index

Part of the reason for this is to catch likely errors. For example,

```

> proc(x,n) s := 1; for i to n do s := s+x^i od; s end;

proc(x,n) local s,i; s := 1; for i to n do s := s+x^i od; s end

```

Notice that Maple has declared s and i to be local. If you want variables to really be global, you should declare them explicitly using the `global` statement.

The `ERROR` function can be used to generate an error message from within a procedure. For example, the `MEMBER` routine should check that the argument really is a list and issue an appropriate error message otherwise.

```

MEMBER := proc(x,L) local v;
    if not type(L,list) then ERROR('2nd argument must be a list') fi;
    for v in L do if v = x then RETURN(true) fi od;
    false
end;

```

3.2 Tracing Procedure Execution: `printlevel`

Here is a Maple procedure which computes the greatest common divisor of two non-negative integers using the Euclidean algorithm. For example, the greatest common divisor of the integers 21 and 15 is 3 because 3 is the largest integer that divides both 21 and 15. By the way, the Euclidean algorithm is one of the oldest known algorithms in Mathematics. It dates back to around 300 BC.

```

GCD := proc(a,b) local c,d,r;
    c := a;
    d := b;
    while d <> 0 do r := irem(c,d); c := d; d := r od;
    c
end;

```

The `irem` function computes the integer remainder of two integers. How does the `GCD` routine really work? The simplest tool for looking at the execution of a procedure is the `printlevel` facility. The `printlevel` variable is a global variable that is initially assigned 1. If you set it to a higher value, a trace of all assignments, and procedure entries and exits is printed. Let's see what happens when we compute `GCD(21,15)`;

```

> printlevel := 100;
> GCD(21,15);
{--> enter GCD, args = 21, 15
                                     c := 21
                                     d := 15
                                     r := 6
                                     c := 15
                                     d := 6
                                     r := 3
                                     c := 6
                                     d := 3
                                     r := 0
                                     c := 3
                                     d := 0
                                     3
<-- exit GCD (now at top level) = 3}
                                     3

```

We see that the input arguments to the GCD procedure are displayed together with the value returned. The execution of each assignment statement is also displayed.

An interesting point about our Maple GCD procedure is that this routine works for integers of any size because Maple uses arbitrary precision integer arithmetic. For example, here is the greatest common divisor between $100!$ and 2^{100}

```

> GCD(100!,2^100);
                                     158456325028528675187087900672

```

Our GCD procedure could also have been written recursively and should also include type checking on the input parameters in this way

```

GCD := proc(a:integer,b:integer)
    if b = 0 then a else GCD(b,irem(a,b)) fi
end;

```

The recursive version is simpler and easier to understand. Let us see a trace of the recursive version to see how the printlevel facility can show the flow of computation.

```

> GCD(15,21);
{--> enter GCD, args = 15, 21
{--> enter GCD, args = 21, 15
{--> enter GCD, args = 15, 6
{--> enter GCD, args = 6, 3
{--> enter GCD, args = 3, 0
                                     3
<-- exit GCD (now in GCD) = 3}

```

```

3
<-- exit GCD (now in GCD) = 3}
3
<-- exit GCD (now in GCD) = 3}
3
<-- exit GCD (now in GCD) = 3}
<-- exit GCD (now at top level) = 3}
3

```

3.3 Arrow Operators

For procedures which compute only a formula, there is an alternative syntax called the arrow syntax. This mimics the syntax for functions often used in algebra. For functions of one parameter the syntax is

$$\textit{symbol} \rightarrow [\mathbf{local} \textit{ nameseq};] \textit{expr} .$$

For 0 or more parameters, parameters are put in parentheses i.e.

$$(\textit{ nameseq}) \rightarrow [\mathbf{local} \textit{ nameseq};] \textit{expr}$$

The example which computes $x^2 + y^2$ can be written more succinctly as

```
(x,y) -> x^2+y^2;
```

In Maple V Release 2, the syntax has been extended to allow the body of the procedure to be an **if** statement. So you can define piecewise functions. For example

```
x -> if x<0 then 0 elif x<1 then x elif x<2 then 2-x else 0 fi;
```

3.4 Scope Rules: Parameters, Locals, Globals

Maple supports nested procedures. For example, you can write

```
f1 := proc(x) local g; g := x -> x+1; x*g(x) end;
```

Procedure f_1 has a local variable g which is a procedure. f_1 computes $x * (x + 1)$. However, nested parameters and local variables do not use nested scoping rules. E.g. the above procedure is not equivalent to this one

```
f2 := proc(x) local g; g := () -> x+1; x*g() end;
```

because the reference to x in the g procedure does not refer to the parameter x in f_2 . It refers to the global variable x . Consider these examples

```

> f1(a);
a (a + 1)
> f2(a);
a (x + 1)
> x := 7;
x := 7
> f2(a);
8 a

```

One similarly cannot refer to local variables in outer scopes.

ATTENTION Computer Scientists: Although Maple supports nested procedures, which can be returned as function values, it does not support nested lexical scopes, so you cannot return closures directly. For example, `f -> x -> f(x+1)` does NOT define a shift operator. This is being looked at for a future version of Maple.

3.5 Evaluation Rules: Actual and Formal Parameters, Locals, Globals

Consider the function call $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$. The execution of this function call proceeds as follows. The function name f is evaluated. Next the arguments x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are evaluated from left to right. Then if f evaluated to a procedure, the procedure is executed on the evaluated arguments. There are only 6 exceptions to this, including `eval`, `assigned`, and `seq`. Now, what about the evaluation of variables inside procedures? Consider the procedure

```
f := proc() local p; global x; p := x^2+4*x+4; x := 5; p end
```

Here p is a local variable and there are no parameters. And x is a global variable. What are the evaluation rules for parameters, locals, and global variables? In the introduction we considered the problem

```

> p := x^2+4*x+4;
p := x2 + 4 x + 4
> x := 3;
x := 3
> p;
25

```

Here p and x are global variables. Global variables are evaluated fully, i.e. recursively, hence the result is 25. What if p is a local variable as in our procedure `f` above? I.e. what is the result of executing

```
f();
```

And what if p is a parameter as in the following procedure

```

> x := 'x'; # Make x a symbol first

                                x := x

> g := proc(p) global x; x := 5; p end:
> g(x^2+4*x+4);

```

$$x^2 + 4x + 4$$

For reasons of efficiency and desirability, the Maple designers have decided that local variables and parameters evaluate one level, i.e. the value of p in the above two examples is the polynomial $x^2 + 4x + 4$ not the value 49. Full evaluation only occurs for global variables. The `eval` function can be used to get full evaluation for local variables and parameters, and one level evaluation of global variables should you ever need it. For example

```

> x := 'x'; # Make x a symbol first

                                x := x

> g := proc(p) global x; x := 5; eval(p) end:
> g(x^2+4*x+4);

```

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3.6 Recurrence Equations and Option Remember

The Fibonacci numbers F_n are defined by the linear recurrence $F_0 = 0$, $F_1 = 1$, and $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$. This can be coded directly by

```

F := proc(n)
    if n = 0 then 0 elif n = 1 then 1 else F(n-1)+F(n-2) fi
end;

```

Here are the first few Fibonacci numbers

```

> seq( F(i), i=0..10 );

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55

```

However this is a not an efficient way to compute the Fibonacci numbers. In fact, you will never be able to compute $F(100)$ using this procedure even on the fastest computer. If you count the number of calls to the `F` procedure, you will see that it is called repeatedly on the same arguments. It is clear that one should remember the previous two values when computing the next value. This could be done in a loop in the following way

```

F := proc(n) local fnm1,fnm2,f;
    if n = 0 then RETURN(0) fi;
    fnm2 := 0;

```

```

    fnm1 := 1;
    for i to n do f := fnm1 + fnm2; fnm2 := fnm1; fnm1 := f od;
    fnm1
end;

```

Another way to code this is to use *option remember*. This option is used to store values as they are computed so that they can be used when they are needed. Consider

```

F := proc(n) option remember;
    if n = 0 then 0 elif n = 1 then 1 else F(n-1)+F(n-2) fi
end;

```

This program computes $F(100)$ quite quickly. Each Maple procedure has an associated *remember* table. The table index is the arguments and the table entry is the function value. When F is called with n , Maple first looks up F 's *remember* table to see if $F(n)$ has already been computed. If it has, it returns the result from F 's remember table. Otherwise, it executes the code for the procedure F , and automatically stores the pair $n, F(n)$ in F 's remember table.

We also illustrate the possibility of explicitly saving values in a remember table by using the so called *functional assignment*. This is more flexible than the remember option because it allows one to save only selected values in the remember table.

```

F := proc(n) F(n) := F(n-1)+F(n-2) end;
F(0) := 0;
F(1) := 1;

```

3.7 Types and Map

The `type` function can be used to code a routine that does different things depending on the type of the input. For example, the `DIFF` routine below differentiates expressions which are polynomials in the given variable x .

```

DIFF := proc(a:algebraic,x:name) local u,v;
    if type(a,numeric) then 0
    elif type(a,name) then if a = x then 1 else 0 fi
    elif type(a,'+') then map( DIFF, a, x )
    elif type(a,'*') then u := op(1,a); v := a/u; DIFF(u,x)*v + DIFF(v,x)*u
    elif type(a,anything^integer) then
        u := op(1,a); v := op(2,a); v*DIFF(u,x)*u^(v-1)
    else ERROR('don't know how to differentiate',a)
    fi
end;

```

Types are used in the `DIFF` procedure for two different purposes. The first usage is for type checking. The inputs must be an algebraic expression or a formula, and a name for the differentiation variable. The second usage is to examine the type of the input – is it a sum or product – and decide what differentiation rule is to be used. The `DIFF` example shows the use of the `map` function, a very useful function, which we will now explain. It has the following syntax

$$\text{map}(f, a, x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

The meaning is to apply the function f to the operands of the expression a passing the additional arguments x_1, \dots, x_n to f . In our DIFF procedure, there is one additional argument x . Often, there are no additional arguments. Formally, this is equivalent to computing the sequence

```
seq( f( op(1,a), x1, ..., xn ), i=1..nops(a) );
```

and then creating from this sequence a value of the same type as the type of f . Here are some examples

```
> p := x^3+2*x+1;
      3
      p := x  + 2 x + 1

> map( F, p );
      3
      F(x ) + F(2 x) + F(1)

> map( x -> x^2, p );
      6      2
      x  + 4 x  + 1

> map( degree, p, x );
      4
```

The DIFF function also shows the use of a *structured* type. The types `anything`, `name`, `+` and `*` are simple types. The type `anythinginteger` is a *structured* type. It means that the value must be a power, and the base can be anything, i.e. any type, but the exponent must be an integer. It is equivalent to writing

```
if type(a, '^') and type(op(2,a), integer) then
```

Structured types allow you to replace long type tests with concise tests. Let us illustrate another common case. Many routines take a set or list of names or equations as arguments. For example, the `solve` command allows one to solve a set of equations for a set of unknowns. For example

```
> solve( {x+y=2, x-y=3}, {x,y} );
      {y = -1/2, x = 5/2}
```

A set of zero or more equations can be tested with the type: `set(equation)`, and as set of zero or more unknowns with the type `set(name)`. But the `solve` command also allows a set of algebraic formulae which are implicitly equated to zero, i.e. the example above could have been input this way

```
> solve( {x+y-2, x-y-3}, {x,y} );
      {y = -1/2, x = 5/2}
```

Hence the type should of the first argument should be either a set of equations, or a set of algebraic expressions, i.e. the type `{set(algebraic), set(equation)}`. Notice that this is not the same as `set({algebraic, equation})`. Why?

Further information about the various different types can be obtained from the on-line help system under `?type`.

3.8 Variable Number of Arguments: `args` and `nargs`

It is possible in Maple for a function to take a variable number of parameters. An example of such a function is the `max` function. Here is an initial attempt to code up this function

```

MAX := proc(x1) local maximum,i;
    maximum := x1;
    for i from 2 to nargs do
        if args[i] > maximum then maximum := args[i] fi
    od;
    maximum
end;

```

The special variable `nargs` is the number of arguments, and the variable `args` is a sequence of the arguments, hence `args[i]` is the i 'th argument.

3.9 Returning Unevaluated

The `MAX` procedure that we have just written works for numerical arguments only. If you try the Maple function `max` you will see that it also works for symbolic arguments. Consider

```

> MAX(1,2,x);
Error, (in MAX) cannot evaluate boolean
> max(1,2,x);

                                max(2, x)

```

Maple cannot execute the procedure `MAX` because it cannot compute whether `args[i] < maximum` for a non-numeric value. We want `MAX` of some numbers to compute the answer, but otherwise, we want `MAX(x,y)` to stay as `MAX(x,y)` so we can compute with `MAX(x,y)` symbolically just like `sin(x)` stays as `sin(x)`.

Also, our `MAX` procedure that we wrote only works for numbers of type `numeric`. It would be nice if `MAX` knew that $\pi > \sqrt{2}$ for instance.

To help us write such a `MAX` function, we will make use of the `signum` function which provides a more powerful comparison of two real values. The `signum` function returns -1 if it can show that the $x < 0$, $+1$ if $x \geq 0$, otherwise it returns *unevaluated*, i.e. it returns `signum(x)`. For example

```

> signum(sqrt(2)-1);
                                1
> signum(sqrt(2)-Pi);
                                -1
> signum(a-b);
                                signum(a - b)

```

Let us employ the `signum` function to make our `MAX` function smarter and also let our `MAX` function handle symbolic arguments.

```

MAX := proc() local a,i,j,n,s;
    n := nargs;
    # First, put the arguments in an array
    a := array(1..n);
    for i to n do a[i] := args[i] od;
    # Compare a[i] with a[j] for 1 <= i < j <= n
    i := 1;

```

```

while i < n do
  j := i+1;
  while j <= n do
    s := signum(a[i]-a[j]);
    if s = 1 then # i.e. a[i] >= a[j]
      a[j] := a[n]; n := n-1;
    elif s = -1 then # i.e. a[i] < a[j]
      a[i] := a[j]; a[j] := a[n]; j := n; n := n-1; i := i-1;
    else # cannot determine the sign
      j := j+1
    fi
  od;
  i := i+1
od;
if n = 1 then RETURN(a[1]) fi;
'MAX'( seq(a[i], i=1..n) );
end;

```

What is most interesting about the above code is the last line. The back quotes ' are used to prevent the MAX function call from executing as otherwise it would go into an infinite loop. Instead, the unevaluated function call MAX(...) is returned, indicating that the maximum could not be computed. However, some simplifications may have taken place. For example

```

> MAX( x, 1, sqrt(2), x+1 );
      1/2
MAX(x + 1, 2 )

```

3.10 Simplifications and Transformation Rules

Often one wants to introduce simplifications which can be described algebraically or by transformation rules. For instance, given a function f , we may know that f is both commutative and associative. \max is in fact such a function, i.e. it is true that $\max(a, b) = \max(b, a)$ and $\max(a, \max(b, c)) = \max(\max(a, b), c) = \max(a, b, c)$. How can we implement these properties in Maple? What we want is a *canonical* way for writing expressions involving the \max function. We can implement commutativity by sorting the arguments. For associativity we can unnest any nested \max calls. I.e. we would transform both $\max(\max(a, b), c)$ and $\max(a, \max(b, c))$ into $\max(a, b, c)$. Actually this also implements $\max(\max(a)) = \max(a)$, i.e. \max is idempotent. Here is a MAX function to do this

```

MAX := proc() local a;
  a := [args];
  a := map( flatten, a, MAX ); # unnest nested MAX calls
  'MAX'( op(sort(a)) );
end;
flatten := proc(x,f)
  if type(x,function) and op(0,x) = f then op(x) else x fi
end;

```

For example

```
> MAX(a,MAX(c,b),a);
```

```
MAX(a, a, b, c)
```

We see that we should also recognize the property that $\max(a, a) = a$. To do this, instead of putting the arguments in a list, we will put them in a set so that duplicates are removed. Also, since sets are sorted automatically, we can remove the call to `sort`. Hence we have

```
MAX := proc() local a;  
  a := {args};  
  a := map( flatten, a, MAX );  
  'MAX'( op(a) );  
end;
```

```
> MAX(a,MAX(c,b),a);
```

```
MAX(a, b, c)
```

The reader may be a little puzzled as to just what our `MAX` procedure is doing. We have seen earlier that if we assign a positive integer to the `printlevel` variable, we get a trace of all statements executed. However, often the output from this simple tracing facility is too much. In this case, we would also get the output from the `flatten` procedure. The `trace` function can be used instead to selectively trace procedures. Let's use it to trace the `MAX` procedure

```
> trace(MAX);
```

```
MAX
```

```
> MAX(a,MAX(b,a),c);  
{--> enter MAX, args = b, a
```

```
  a := {a, b}
```

```
  a := {a, b}
```

```
  MAX(a, b)
```

```
<-- exit MAX (now at top level) = MAX(a,b)}  
{--> enter MAX, args = a, MAX(a,b), c
```

```
  a := {a, c, MAX(a, b)}
```

```
  a := {a, c, b}
```

```
  MAX(a, c, b)
```

```
<-- exit MAX (now at top level) = MAX(a,c,b)}
```

```
MAX(a, c, b)
```

3.11 Optional Arguments and Default Values

Many Maple routines accept optional arguments. This is often used to allow the user to use default values instead of having to specify all parameters. Examples are the functions `plot`, `factor`, `collect`, and `series`. Let us consider the `degree` function. The `degree` function computes the degree of a univariate polynomial in one variable, and for multivariate polynomials, the total degree. For example

```
> p := x^3+2*x+1;
```

$$p := x^3 + 2x + 1$$

```
> degree(p);
```

3

```
> q := 3*x^2*y+2*y^2-x*z+7;
```

$$q := 3x^2y + 2y^2 - xz + 7$$

```
> degree(q);
```

3

Sometimes you will want to compute the degree in a specific variable, say x . This can be done by specifying an optional second argument to the degree function, namely, the variable. For example

```
> degree(p,x);
```

3

```
> degree(q,x);
```

2

How would we code the degree function? Let us assume that the input is a formula and if an optional second argument is given, it is a name or set of names for the variables. We would write

```
DEGREE := proc(a:algebraic,x:{name,set(name)}) local s,t;
  if nargs = 1 then # determine the variable(s) for the user
    s := indets(a); # the set of all the variables of a
    if not type(s,set(name)) then ERROR('input not a polynomial') fi;
    DEGREE(a,s)
  elif type(a,constant) then 0
  elif type(a,name) then
    if type(x,name) then if a = x then 1 else 0 fi
    else if member(a,x) then 1 else 0 fi
    fi
  elif type(a,'+') then max( seq( DEGREE(t,x), t=a ) )
  elif type(a,'*') then
    s := 0;
    for t in a do s := s + DEGREE(t,x) od;
    s
  elif type(a,algebraic^integer) then DEGREE(op(1,a),x) * op(2,a)
  else ERROR('cannot compute degree')
  fi
end;
```

The `indets` function used here returns a set of all the *indeterminates* (or variables) that appear in the input. We leave it to the reader to study each rule that is being used here, and the order in which the cases are done.

3.12 Returning Results Through Parameters

Many functions in Maple return more than one value. Of course, it is always possible to return more than one value in a sequence or list. However, it is also possible to return values through parameters like in other programming languages, and often, this is more convenient. For example, consider the `divide` function in Maple which does polynomial long division. The call `divide(a,b)` returns true if and only if the polynomial b divides the polynomial a with no remainder, e.g.

```
> divide(x^3-1,x-1);  
  
true
```

But usually, if b divides a , one wants to do something with the quotient q . In Maple, this can be done by giving the `divide` function a third parameter which is a name which will be assigned the quotient if b divides a , e.g.

```
> if divide(x^3-1,x-1,'q') then print(q) fi;  
  
x2 + x + 1
```

Notice the use of quotes here to pass to the `divide` function the name q and not the value of q . Let us consider another example and study how to write a program which assigns a value to an optional parameter. Consider our `MEMBER` function which tested to see if a value x appears in a list L . Let us modify our function such that `MEMBER(x,L,'p')` still returns whether x appears in the list L , and in addition, assigns the name p the position of the first appearance of x in L .

```
MEMBER := proc(x,L:list,p:name) local i;  
  for i to nops(L) do  
    if x = L[i] then  
      if nargs = 3 then p := i fi;  
      RETURN(true)  
    fi  
  od;  
  false  
end;
```

Here is an example

```
> MEMBER(4,[1,3,5],'position');  
  
false  
  
> position;  
  
position  
  
> MEMBER(3,[1,3,5],'position');  
  
true  
  
> position;  
  
2
```

We see that the effect of the assignment to the formal parameter p inside the `MEMBER` procedure is that the actual parameter `position` is assigned.

4 Programming in Maple

4.1 Matrix and Vector Computation in Maple

A vector in Maple is represented by a one-dimensional array indexed from 1, and a matrix is represented by a two-dimensional array, with row and column indices starting from 1. Here is one way to create a 5 by 5 Hilbert matrix. Recall that a Hilbert matrix is a symmetric matrix whose (i,j) 'th entry is $1/(i+j-1)$.

```
> H := array(1..5,1..5):
> for i to 5 do for j to 5 do H[i,j] := 1/(i+j-1) od od;
> H;
```

H

```
> eval(H);
      [ 1  1/2  1/3  1/4  1/5 ]
      [ 1/2 1/3  1/4  1/5  1/6 ]
      [ 1/3 1/4  1/5  1/6  1/7 ]
      [ 1/4 1/5  1/6  1/7  1/8 ]
      [ 1/5 1/6  1/7  1/8  1/9 ]
```

ATTENTION: Notice that the value of H is just the name of the matrix H. Evaluation rules for arrays, hence matrices and vectors are special. The reason is technical. For the moment, whenever you want to print a matrix or vector use the `eval` function.

The `linalg` package contains many functions for computing with vectors and matrices in Maple. This matrix could also have been created in the following way using the `matrix` command in the linear algebra package.

```
linalg[matrix](5,5,(i,j) -> 1/(i+j-1));
```

Maple can compute the determinant and inverse of the matrix H and many other matrix operations. See `?linalg` for a list of the operations.

Here we show a program for doing a so called row reduction on a matrix using Gaussian elimination. `GaussianElimination(A,'r')` computes the reduced matrix, an upper triangular matrix. It also has an optional 2nd argument which, if given, is assigned the rank of the matrix.

```
GaussianElimination := proc(A:matrix(rational),rank:name)
local m,n,i,j,B,r,c,t;

m := linalg[rowdim](A); # the number of rows of the matrix
n := linalg[coldim](A); # the number of columns of the matrix

B := array(1..m,1..n);
for i to m do for j to n do B[i,j] := A[i,j] od od;

r := 1; # r and c are row and column indices
for c to m while r <= n do
```

```

for i from r to n while B[i,c] = 0 do od; # search for a pivot
if i <= n then
  if i <> r then # interchange row i with row r
    for j from c to m do
      t := B[i,j]; B[i,j] := B[r,j]; B[r,j] := t
    od
  fi;
  for i from r+1 to n do
    if B[i,c] <> 0 then
      t := B[i,c]/B[r,c];
      for j from c+1 to m do B[i,j] := B[i,j]-t*B[r,j] od;
      B[i,c] := 0
    fi
  od;
  r := r + 1 # go to next row
fi
od; # go to next column

if nargs>1 then rank := r-1 fi;
eval(B)

end:

```

The type `matrix(rational)` specifies a matrix (a 2-dimensional array in Maple) whose entries are all rational numbers.

4.2 Numerical Computation in Maple

Floating point numbers in Maple can be input either as decimal numbers or directly using the `Float` function

$$\text{Float}(m,e) = m * 10^e$$

where the mantissa m is an integer of any size, but the exponent e is restricted to be a machine size integer, typically 31 bits. For example, the number 3.1 can be input as either 3.1 or `Float(31,-1)`. The `op` function can be used to extract the mantissa and exponent of a floating point number. Note: the floating point constant 0.0 is treated specially and is simplified to 0, i.e. the integer 0 automatically.

Here is a uniform random number generator that generates uniform random numbers with exactly 6 decimal digits precision in the range $[0,1)$.

```

> UniformInteger := rand(0..10^6-1):
> UniformFloat := proc() Float(UniformInteger(),-6) end:
> seq( UniformFloat(), i=1..6 );

.669081, .693270, .073697, .143563, .718976, .830538

```

Note, the built-in Maple function `rand` does not return a random number in the given range. It returns instead a Maple procedure (a random number generator) which when called returns random integers in the given range.

Floating point arithmetic is done in decimal with rounding. The precision used is controlled by the global variable `Digits` which has 10 as its default value. It can be set to any value however. The `evalf` function is used to evaluate an exact symbolic constant to a floating point approximation. For example

```
> Digits := 25;
> sin(1.0);
                                .8414709848078965066525023

> sin(1);
                                sin(1)

> evalf("");
                                .8414709848078965066525023
```

Maple knows about the elementary functions and many special functions such as $J_\nu(x)$, $\Gamma(x)$, and $\zeta(x)$. In Maple these are `BesselJ(v,x)`, `GAMMA(x)` and `Zeta(x)` respectively. They are all computed to high precision by summing various series.

The model of floating point arithmetic used is that the relative error of the result is less than $10^{1-\text{Digits}}$. This is a stronger model than that used by hardware implementations of floating point arithmetic and it requires that intermediate calculations to be done at higher precision to obtain such accurate results. Here is an example of summing a Taylor series. Suppose we want to compute the error function

$$\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

for small x . If you are unfamiliar with the error function, take a moment to plot it in Maple. We can make use of the Taylor series for $\operatorname{erf}(x)$ about $x = 0$

$$\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \operatorname{erf}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{n!(2n+1)} = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{10} - \frac{x^7}{42} + \frac{x^9}{216} + \dots$$

for computing $\operatorname{erf}(x)$ for small x , $-1 < x < 1$ (with no error checking) as follows

```
ErfSmall := proc(a) local x,x2,result,term,sumold,sumnew;
  x := evalf(a); # evaluate the input at Digits precision
  Digits := Digits + 2; # add some guard digits
  sumold := 0;
  term := x;
  sumnew := x;
  x2 := x^2;
  for n from 1 while sumold <> sumnew do
    sumold := sumnew;
    term := - term * x2 / n;
    sumnew := sumold + term / (2*n + 1);
  od;
  result := evalf( 2/sqrt(Pi)*sumnew );
  Digits := Digits-2;
  evalf(result) # round the result to Digits precision
end;
```


few digits correct? Modify the Newton iteration used in the SqrtNewton procedure appropriately so that it doubles the number of Digits at each step. How much faster does this make the iteration run?

Because Maple's floating point model is implemented in software, it is much slower than hardware floating point arithmetic. Maple also has a function called `evalhf` for evaluating in hardware floating point arithmetic. This function uses the builtin C library routines for floating point arithmetic. Consequently it is much faster than Maples software floats, but it is still slower than hardware floats because it is not compiled. See `?evalhf` for details.

4.3 Computing with Polynomials in Maple

Computing with polynomials and also rational functions is Maple's forte. Here is a program that computes the Euclidean norm of a polynomial. I.e. given the polynomial $a(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$, it computes the $\sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^n a_i^2}$.

```
EuclideanNorm := proc(a)
  sqrt( convert( map( x -> x^2, [coeffs( expand(a) )] ), '+' ) )
end;
```

Reading this one liner inside out, the input polynomial is first expanded. The `coeffs` function returns a sequence of the coefficients which we have put in a list. Each element of the list is squared yielding a new list. Then the list of squares is converted to a sum.

Why is the polynomial expanded? The `coeff` and `coeffs` functions insist on having the input polynomial *expanded* because you cannot compute the coefficient(s) otherwise. The following example should clarify

```
> p := x^3 - (x-3)*(x^2+x) + 1;
      3          2
      p := x  - (x - 3) (x  + x) + 1

> coeffs(p);
Error, invalid arguments to coeffs
> expand(p);
      2
      2 x  + 3 x + 1

> coeffs(expand(p));
      1, 3, 2

> EuclideanNorm(p);
      1/2
      14
```

ATTENTION: If you want to compute the coefficients of a polynomial in some variable, you should always expand the polynomial in that variable first. You can use the `expand` function but this expands the polynomial in all variables. Alternatively, you can use the `collect` function. `collect(p,x)` expands a polynomial p in x only. See `?collect` for other details and for working with multivariate polynomials.

The `EuclideanNorm` procedure works for multivariate polynomials in the sense that it computes the square root of the sum of the squares of the numerical coefficients. E.g. given the polynomial $p = ux^2 + y^2 + v$, the `EuclideanNorm` procedure returns $\sqrt{3}$. However, you may want to view this

polynomial as a polynomial in x, y whose coefficients are symbolic coefficients in u, v . We really want to be able to tell the `EuclideanNorm` routine what the polynomial variables are. We can do that by specifying an additional optional parameter, the variables, as follows

```
EuclideanNorm := proc(a,v:{name,set(name),list(name)})
  if nargs = 1 then
    sqrt( convert( map( x -> x^2, [coeffs(expand(a))] ), '+' ) )
  else
    sqrt( convert( map( x -> x^2, [coeffs(expand(a),v)] ), '+' ) )
  fi
end;
```

The type `{name,set(name),list(name)}` means that the 2nd parameter v may be a single variable, or a set of variables, or a list of variables. Notice that the `coeffs` function itself accepts this argument as a 2nd optional argument. Finally, our routine doesn't ensure that the input is a polynomial. Let's add that to

```
EuclideanNorm := proc(a,v:{name,list(name),set(name)})
  if nargs = 1 then
    if not type(a,polynomial) then
      ERROR('1st argument is not a polynomial',a) fi;
    sqrt( convert( map( x -> x^2, [coeffs(expand(a))] ), '+' ) )
  else
    if not type(a,polynomial(anything,v)) then
      ERROR('1st argument is not a polynomial in',v) fi;
    sqrt( convert( map( x -> x^2, [coeffs(expand(a),v)] ), '+' ) )
  fi
end;
```

The type `polynom` has the following general syntax

$$\text{polynom}(R, X)$$

which means a polynomial whose coefficients are of type R in the variables X . An example is `polynom(rational,x)` which specifies a univariate polynomial in x with rational coefficients, i.e. a polynomial in $Q[x]$. If R and X are not specified, as in the first case above, the expression must be a polynomial in all its variables.

Basic functions for computing with polynomials are `degree`, `coeff`, `expand`, `divide`, and `collect`. There are many other functions for computing with polynomials in Maple, including facilities for polynomial division, greatest common divisors, resultants, etc. Maple can also factor polynomials over different number fields including finite fields. See the on-line help for `?polynom` for a list of facilities.

To illustrate facilities for computing with polynomials over finite fields, we conclude with a program to compute the first *primitive trinomial* of degree n over $GF(2)$ if one exists. That is, we want to find an irreducible polynomial a of the form $x^n + x^m + 1$ such that x is a primitive element in $GF(2)[x]/(a)$. The `iquo` function computes the **integer quotient** of two integers.

```
trinomial := proc(n:integer) local i,t;
```

```

    for i to iquo(n+1,2) do
        t := x^n+x^i+1;
        if Primitive(t) mod 2 then RETURN(t) fi;
    od;
    FAIL
end;

```

4.4 Reading and Saving Procedures: read and save

You can write one or two line Maple programs interactively. But for larger programs you will want to save them in a file. Typically, one would use an editor to write the Maple program and save it into a file, then read the program into Maple before using it. A program can be read into Maple using the `read` command. For example, if we have written a Maple procedure `MAX` in the file `MAX`, in Maple we read this file into Maple by doing

```
read MAX;
```

You can save your Maple procedures or any formulae that you have computed in your Maple session in a file from inside Maple using the `save` statement, which has the form

```
save f1, f2, ..., filename;
```

This saves the values of the variables `f1`, `f2`, ... in text format in the file `filename`. You can also save Maple data in internal format or the so called “.m” format. This format is more compact and can be read faster by Maple. One simply appends “.m” to the filename as follows

```
save f1, f2, ..., 'filename.m';
```

This saves the values of `f1`, `f2`, ... in the file `filename.m` You can then read them back in to Maple using the `read` command:

```
read 'filename.m';
```

4.5 Debugging Maple Programs

The simplest debugging tool is the *printlevel* facility. `printlevel` is a global variable that is initially assigned 1. If you set it to a higher value, a trace of all assignments, procedure entry and exits are printed. The higher the value of `printlevel`, the more levels of procedure execution that will be traced. Often, however, the output from the `printlevel` facility will be too much. The `trace` function allows you to trace the execution of the specified functions only. Examples of these two tools have already been given in this document. We mention here one further tool. If you set the `printlevel` variable to 3 or higher, then if a run-time error occurs, Maple will print a stack trace of the calling sequence at the time the error occurs. Specifically, it will print the arguments to all procedures currently being executed, and the values of the local variables and the statement being executed in the procedure where the error occurred. This is simplest illustrated by an example.

```

> f := proc(x) local y; y := 1; g(x,y); end:
> g := proc(u,v) local s,t; s := 0; t := v/s; s+t end:
> printlevel := 4:
> f(3);
Error, (in g) division by zero
    executing statement: t := v/s
    locals defined as: s = 0, t = t
    g called with arguments: 3, 1
    f called with arguments: 3

```

4.6 Interfacing with other Maple Facilities

We have shown how one can tell Maple properties about a function f by coding them as a procedure. Suppose instead you wish to teach Maple to differentiate a formula involving f . You may want to teach Maple how to evaluate f numerically so that f can be plotted, or how to simplify expressions involving f etc. What do you need to do? Many Maple routines have interfaces that allow you to teach these routines about your f function. These include `diff`, `evalf`, `expand`, `combine`, `simplify`, `series`, etc. To teach Maple how to differentiate a function W one writes a routine called `'diff/W'`. If the `diff` routine is called with an expression $f(x)$ which contains $W(g)$ then the `diff` routine will invoke `'diff/W'(g,x)` to compute the derivative of $W(g)$ with respect to x . Suppose we know that $W'(x) = W(x)/(1 + W(x))$. Then we can write the following procedure which explicitly codes the chain rule.

```
'diff/W' := proc(g,x) diff(g,x) * W(g)/(1+W(g)) end;
```

Hence we have

```

> diff(W(x),x);
          W(x)
    -----
    1 + W(x)

> diff(W(x^2),x);
          2
    x W(x )
    2 -----
          2
    1 + W(x )

```

As a second example, suppose we want to manipulate symbolically the Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind $T_n(x)$. We can represent these in Maple as `T(n,x)`. Suppose also that for a particular value of n we want to expand `T(n,x)` out as a polynomial in x . We can tell Maple's `expand` function how to do this by writing the routine `'expand/T'`. When `expand` sees `T(n,x)`, it will invoke `'expand/T'(n,x)`. Recall that $T_n(x)$ satisfies the linear recurrence $T_n(0) = 1$, $T_1(x) = x$, and $T_n(x) = 2xT_{n-1}(x) - T_{n-2}(x)$. Hence we can write

```

'expand/T' := proc(n,x) option remember;
    if n = 0 then 1
    elif n = 1 then x
    elif not type(n,integer) then T(n,x) # can't do anything
    else expand(2*x*T(n-1,x) - T(n-2,x))
    fi
end;

```

This routine is recursive, but because we used the remember option, this routine will compute $T(100, x)$ quite quickly. Here are some examples

```
> T(4,x);
                                T(4, x)

> expand(T(4,x));
                                4      2
                                8 x  - 8 x  + 1

> expand(T(100,x));
                                2                                100
                                1 - 5000 x  ... output deleted ... + 633825300114114700748351602688 x
```

One can also tell Maple how to evaluate your own function f numerically by defining a Maple procedure 'evalf/f' such that 'evalf/f'(x) computes $f(x)$ numerically. For example, suppose we wanted to use the Newton iteration shown earlier for computing the square root of a numerical value. Our function might look like

```
'evalf/Sqrt' := proc(a) local x,xk,xkm1;
  x := evalf(a); # evaluate the argument in floating point
  if not type(a,numeric) then RETURN( Sqrt(x) ) fi;
  if x<0 then ERROR('square root of a negative number') fi;
  Digits := Digits + 3; # add some guard digits
  xkm1 := 0;
  xk := evalf(x/2); # initial floating point approximation
  while abs(xk-xkm1) > abs(xk)*10^(-Digits) do
    xkm1 := xk;
    xk := (xk + x/xk)/2;
  od;
  Digits := Digits - 3;
  evalf(xk); # round the result to Digits precision
end;

> x := Sqrt(3);
                                x := Sqrt(3)

> evalf(x);
                                1.732050808

> Digits := 50;
                                Digits := 50

> evalf(Sqrt(3));
                                1.7320508075688772935274463415058723669428052538104
```

4.7 Calling External Programs

Often one wants to get Maple to call an external program, which might have been written in C or Fortran. There are really two reasons we might want to do this. Obviously, if Maple cannot do something, and another program can, it may make sense to use the other program, instead of reimplementing an algorithm in Maple. The other reason is efficiency. Although Maple is efficient

at symbolic computations, it is not generally efficient at machine precision numerical computations. E.g. you may want to use a Fortran library routine to compute numerical eigenvectors.

Communication of data in Maple must be done via files. The Maple program must write the data needed by the external program out to an input file. Maple can start running the external program with the `system` command. The external program must read the data from the input file and must write its results into an output file. After the program has finished executing, Maple reads the results from the output file back into Maple. A sketch of the Maple code to do this would be

```
interface(quiet=true);
writeto(input);
... # write any data into the file input
writeto(terminal);
interface(quiet=false);
system(...); # execute the external program
read output;
... # continue processing in Maple
```

Let us look at this more closely. The first command, `interface(quiet=true);` turns off all diagnostics from Maple, i.e. bytes used messages, warnings, etc. so that they will not be written into the `input` file. This is reset by `interface(quiet=false);` after the data has been written to the `input` file.

The next command `writeto(input);` opens the file named `input` for writing. All Maple output from this point will go into this file. Output will typically be created by the `lprint` or the `printf` commands. The command `writeto` overwrites the file. If you want to just append some data to what is already in the file, use the command `appendto` instead of `writeto`.

After the data has been written to the file, the file is closed implicitly by resetting output back to the terminal with the command `writeto(terminal);`.

The `system` command is used to execute the external program. The exact call that the system command makes will depend on the system. Under Unix, the call might look something like

```
system('foo < in > out');
```

The external program `foo` is executed on the input file `in` and its results are written to the file `out`. Note that the system command returns a value indicating whether the external program terminated normally. Under Unix, it returns 0 for normal termination.

Finally, we read the results in the `out` file back into Maple using the `read` command if the data is in Maple's format, or the `readline`, `sscanf`, or `readdata` commands described below for reading arbitrary data.

In this mode, Maple calls the external program like a subroutine. After reading the results back into Maple, Maple continues execution. This is actually a very simple means for calling an external program, and easy to debug. You can check the files to make sure that they have the data in the format expected. However, the disadvantage is that communicating data via a file of text is not the most efficient approach. In many applications this inefficiency will not matter if the work done by the external program is significant.

4.8 File Input/Output of Numerical Data

We wish now to discuss in more detail how to output data from Maple into a file suitable for reading by another program, and how the data should be formatted by the external program so that Maple can read it in.

In Maple V Release 2 the file I/O facilities now include the the routines `printf`, `sscanf` and `readline`. The routine `printf` is used for general formatted printing. It is modelled after the `printf` routine from C and is the same except that it also accepts the `%a` option for algebraic output. Here is a typical example of using `printf` to print floating point data.

```
> printf('A float in fixed point: %f and scientific notation: %e\n', x, x );
A float in fixed point: 0.577216 and scientific notation: 5.772157e-01
```

The `printf` function takes a string as it's first argument which specifies text to be printed and how the values, which are given as additional arguments are to be printed using `%` control sequences. `%e` control sequences. The escape sequence `\n` is used to print a new line. Other useful control sequences are `%d` and `%s` for printing integers and strings, and also the control sequence `%a` for printing a Maple algebraic expression. See `?printf` for other options.

The `readline` routine is used to read a single line of text from a text file as a string. The `sscanf` routine can be used to scan a string and extract any numbers. It is the inverse of `printf`. So to read in some data, one can read each line of a file using `readline` and for each line use `sscanf` to extract data. The utility routine `readdata` has been written to read files of text which contain columns of numerical data separated by blanks or tabs. The `readdata` routine returns a list of the data, or a list of lists of the data if more than one column is specified. Suppose the file `foo` looks like this

```
2.1    3.2    1.2
2.4    3.1    3.4
3.9    1.1    5.5
```

Here is the result of reading in the data.

```
> readlib(readdata): # load the readdata function from the library
> readdata(foo,2); # read the first two columns of the data

[[2.1000000000000000, 3.2000000000000000],
 [2.4000000000000000, 3.1000000000000000],
 [3.9000000000000000, 1.1000000000000000]]
```

4.9 Fortran and C output

The `fortran` and `C` commands generate output of Maple formulae in a format suitable for a Fortran or C compiler. This is useful when you have developed a formula in Maple, or perhaps a vector or matrix of formulae, and you wish to evaluate these formulae in a Fortran or C subroutine. How do you translate the Maple formulae into Fortran or C? The Maple functions `fortran` and `C` are written for this purpose. Here is an example. Suppose we have created the following polynomial in Maple which, by the way, is an approximation to the complementary error function $\text{erfc}(x) = 1 - \text{erf}(x)$ on the range $[2,4]$ accurate to 5 decimal digits.

$$f := -3.902704411 x + 1.890740683 x^2 - 1.714727839 x^3 + 3.465590348 x^4 - .0003861021174 x^5 + .5101467996 x^6 - .09119265524 x^7 + .009063185478 x^8$$

It is not important to know what the complementary error function is for the purpose of this example though. It is in fact related to the Normal distribution in statistics. Neither is it important here to know how we created the approximation f . We needed a rough approximation to this function in the given range because our Fortran and C libraries did not have this function built in. For the interested reader, we used the command `chebyshev(erfc(x),x=2..4,10^(-5))` to create a Chebyshev series approximation and used our ‘`expand/T`’ routine that we wrote earlier to convert it to a polynomial. To evaluate the approximation f above efficiently, we want to write the polynomial in Horner form. Then we want to generate Fortran code. We could do

```
> h := convert(f,horner);
h := 1.890740683 + ( - 3.902704411 + (3.465590348 + ( - 1.714727839
+ (.5101467996 + ( - .09119265524 + (.009063185478 - .0003861021174 x) x) x) x)
) x) x) x
> fortran(h);
t0 = 0.1890741E1+(-0.3902704E1+(0.346559E1+(-0.1714728E1+(0.510146
#8E0+(-0.9119266E-1+(0.9063185E-2-0.3861021E-3*x)*x)*x)*x)*x)*x
```

Maple has generated two lines of Fortran code complete with continuation character since the formula is longer than one line. The floating point numbers have automatically been translated to single precision Fortran E notation and have been truncated to 7 decimal digits. And Maple has put the result in the variable `t0` for us. Let us now output C code into a file `temp.c` assigned to the variable `r`. Note, the C function must first be loaded into Maple.

```
> readlib(C);
> C([r = h],filename='temp.c');
```

If we look at the file ‘`temp.c`’ we find that it contains

```
r = 0.1890740683E1+(-0.3902704411E1+(0.3465590348E1+(-0.1714727839E1+(
0.5101467996+(-0.9119265524E-1+(0.9063185478E-2-0.3861021174E-3*x)*x)*x)*x)*x)*
x)*x;
```

The reader can study the help pages for `?fortran` and `?C` for additional information capabilities and options to these commands.

5 Exercises

1. Write a Maple procedure called `remove1` where `remove1(x,L)` removes the first occurrence of the value x from the list L . If x is not in the list L , return FAIL.
2. Write a Maple procedure called `variance` that computes the variance of a list of numbers. I.e. `variance(x)` computes

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$$

where n is the number of elements of the list x and μ is the average of the numbers in list x . Your routine should print an error if the list is empty.

3. Write a Maple procedure that computes the Frobenius norm of an m by n matrix A . The Frobenius norm is $\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |A_{i,j}|^2}$.
4. Write a Maple procedure which sorts an array of numbers faster than the *bubblesort* algorithm in the section on arrays, e.g. by using shell sort, quick sort, merge sort, or heap sort or some other sorting algorithm. Modify your Maple procedure to accept an optional 2nd argument f , a boolean function to be used for comparing two elements of the array.
5. Write a Maple procedure which computes the Fibonacci polynomials $F_n(x)$. These polynomials satisfy the linear recurrence $F_0(x) = 1$, $F_1(x) = x$, and $F_n(x) = xF_{n-1}(x) + F_{n-2}(x)$. Compute and factor the first 10 Fibonacci polynomials. Can your program compute $F_{50}(x)$?
6. Write a Maple procedure called `structure` that when given a Maple expression returns the structure of the expression as a tree, namely
 - for atomic objects (integers and strings) just return the object
 - otherwise, return a list with the type of the object as the first element, and the remaining elements the structure of the operands of the object.

For example: `structure(x^3*sin(x)/cos(x))`; should return

```
[*, [^, x, 3], [function, sin, x], [^, [function, cos, x], -1]]
```

Your routine should handle the Maple types integer, fraction, float, '+', '*', '^', string, indexed, function, range, equation, set, list, series and table. Test your function on the following input

```
Int( exp(-t)*sqrt(t)*ln(t), t=0..infinity ) =  
int( exp(-t)*sqrt(t)*ln(t), t=0..infinity );
```

7. Extend the `DIFF` procedure to differentiate general powers, the functions `ln`, `exp`, `sin`, `cos` and to return unevaluated instead of giving an error when it does not know how to differentiate the given input. Extend `DIFF` to handle repeated derivatives, i.e. how to `DIFF` the function `DIFF`. For example, `DIFF(DIFF(f(x,y),x),y)` should output the same result as `DIFF(DIFF(f(x,y),y),x)`.

8. Write a routine `comb` that when given a set of values and a non-negative integer n returns a list of all combinations of the values of size n . For example

```
> comb( {a,b,c,d}, 3 );
      { {a,b,c}, {a,b,d}, {a,c,d}, {b,c,d} }
```

Modify your routine to work for lists which may contain duplicates, e.g.

```
> comb( [a,b,b,c], 2 );
      [[a,b], [a,c], [b,b], [b,c]]
```

9. The Maple function `degree` computes the total degree of a polynomial in a given variable(s). For example, the polynomial

```
> p := x^3*y^3 + x^4 + y^5;
> degree(p,x); # degree in x
      4
> degree(p,{x,y}); # total degree in x and y
      6
```

We showed how one could code the degree function in Maple with our `DEGREE` function. However, the `degree` function and our `DEGREE` function only work for integer exponents. Extend the `DEGREE` so that it computes the degree of a general expression, which may have rational or even symbolic exponents, e.g.

```
> f := x^(3/2) + x + x^(1/2);
      f := x3/2 + x + x1/2
> DEGREE(f,x);
      3/2
> h := (x^n + x^(n-1) + x^2) * y^m;
      h := (xn + x(n-1) + x2) ym
> DEGREE(h,x);
      max(n, 2)
> DEGREE(h,{x,y});
      max(n, 2) + m
```

10. Write Maple procedures to add and multiply univariate polynomials $a(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i$ and $b(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i x^i$ which are represented as

- (a) a Maple list of coefficients i.e. $[a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0]$
- (b) a linked list of coefficients i.e. $[a_n, [a_{n-1}, \dots, [a_1, [a_0, NIL]] \dots]]$.

11. The data structures in the above exercise are inefficient for sparse polynomials because zeros are represented explicitly. E.g. consider the polynomial $x^{10} + x + 1$. Represented as a Maple list it would be

[10,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,1,1]

and as a linked list it is

[10, [0, [0, [0, [0, [0, [0, [0, [0, [1, [1, NIL]]]]]]]]]]].

A more efficient representation for sparse polynomials is to store just the non-zero terms. Let us store the k 'th non-zero term $a_k x^{e_k}$ as $[a_k, e_k]$ where $e_k > e_{k+1} \geq 0$. Now write procedures to add and multiply sparse univariate polynomials which are represented as

- (a) a Maple list of non-zero terms
 - (b) a linked list of non-zero terms
12. The Gaussian integers $\mathbf{Z}[i]$ are the set of complex numbers with integer coefficients, i.e. numbers of the form $a + bi$ where $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$ and $i = \sqrt{-1}$. What is most interesting about the Gaussian integers is that they form a Euclidean domain, i.e. they can be factored into primes, and you can use the Euclidean algorithm to compute the GCD of two Gaussian integers. Given a Gaussian integer $x = a + bi$ let $\|x\| = a^2 + b^2$ be the norm of x . Write a Maple procedure `REM` that computes the remainder r of two non-zero Gaussian integers x, y such that $x = qy + r$ where $\|r\| < \|y\|$. Use your remainder routine to compute the GCD of two Gaussian integers.
13. Write a Maple n-ary procedure `GCD` that does integer and symbolic simplification of GCD calculations in \mathbf{Z} . E.g. on input of `GCD(b, GCD(b, a), -a)`, your procedure should return `GCD(a, b)`. For integer inputs, your routine should compute the GCD directly. For symbolic inputs, your `GCD` procedure should know the following
- (a) `GCD(a,b) = GCD(b,a)` (GCD's are commutative)
 - (b) `GCD(GCD(a,b),c) = GCD(a,GCD(b,c)) = GCD(a,b,c)` (GCD's are associative)
 - (c) `GCD(0,a) = GCD(a)` (the identity is 0)
 - (d) `GCD(a) = GCD(-a) = abs(a)`
14. Write a Maple procedure `monomial(v,n)` which computes a list of the monomials of total degree n in the list of variables $[v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m]$. For example, `monomial([u,v],3)` would return the list $[u^3, u^2v, uv^2, v^3]$. Hint: consider the Taylor series expansion of the product

$$\prod_{i=1}^m \frac{1}{1 - v_i t}$$

in t to order t^n – see Maple's `taylor` command.

15. Given a sequence of points $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ where the x_i 's are distinct, the Maple library function `interp` computes a polynomial of degree $\leq n$ which interpolates the points using the Newton interpolation algorithm. Write a Maple procedure which computes a natural cubic spline for the points. A natural cubic spline is a piecewise cubic polynomial where each interval $x_i \leq x \leq x_{i+1}$ is defined by the cubic polynomial

$$f_i(x) = a_i x^3 + b_i x^2 + c_i x + d_i \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$$

where the $4n$ unknown coefficients are uniquely determined by the following $4n$ conditions

$$\begin{aligned} f_i(x_{i-1}) &= y_{i-1}, & f_i(x_i) &= y_i, & i &= 1 \dots n \\ f'_i(x_i) &= f'_{i+1}(x_{i-1}), & f''_i(x_i) &= f''_{i+1}(x_{i-1}), & i &= 1 \dots n-1 \\ f''_1(x_0) &= 0, & f''_n(x_n) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

These conditions mean that the resulting piecewise polynomial is C^2 continuous. Write a Maple procedure which on input of the points as a list of (x_i, y_i) 's in the form $[x_0, y_0, x_1, y_1, \dots, x_n, y_n]$ and a variable, outputs a list of the segment polynomials $[f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n]$. This requires that you create the segment polynomials with unknown coefficients, use Maple to compute the derivatives and solve the resulting equations. For example

```
> spline([0,1,2,3],[0,1,1,2],x);
```

$$[- \frac{1}{3} x^3 + \frac{4}{3} x^2, \frac{2}{3} x^3 - 3 x^2 + \frac{13}{3} x - 1, - \frac{1}{3} x^3 + 3 x^2 - \frac{23}{3} x + 7]$$

16. Design a data structure for representing a piecewise function. The representation for the piecewise cubic spline above does not interface with other facilities in Maple. Let us represent a piecewise function as an unevaluated function instead as follows. Let

$$\text{IF}(c_1, f_1, \dots, c_{n-1}, f_{n-1}, f_n)$$

mean

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{if } c_1 \text{ then } f_1 \\ &\text{if } c_2 \text{ then } f_2 \\ &\dots \\ &\text{else } f_n \end{aligned}$$

- Write a Maple procedure called `IF` that simplifies such a piecewise function for conditions which are purely numerical.
- Write a procedure called `evalf/IF` which evaluates an `IF` expression in floating point, hence allowing `IF` expressions to be plotted.
- Write a procedure called `diff/IF` which differentiates an `IF` expression.

E.g. your procedures should result in the following behaviour.

```
> IF( x<0, sin(x), cos(x) );
      IF(x < 0, sin(x), cos(x))
> diff(",x);
      IF(x < 0, cos(x), - sin(x))
> IF( Pi/3<0, sin(Pi/3), cos(Pi/3) );
      IF(1/3 Pi < 0, 1/2 31/2, 1/2)
> evalf(");
      .5000000000
```

Modify your IF procedure to simplify nested IF expressions, and to handle constant conditions like the example above. E.g. your IF procedure should result in the following behaviour.

```
> IF( x<0, 0, IF( x<1, x^2, IF(x>2, 0, 1-x^2) ) );
```

$$\text{IF}(x < 0, 0, x < 1, x^2, 2 < x, 0, 1 - x^2)$$

```
> IF( Pi/3<0, sin(Pi/3), cos(Pi/3) );
```

$$1/2$$

17. The following iteration is known as the Halley iteration

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - f(x_k)/f'(x_k) / \left(1 - \frac{f(x_k)f''(x_k)}{2f'(x_k)^2} \right) .$$

Program this iteration in Maple and check that it converges cubically. Prove that the convergence is cubic.

18. The command `dsolve` solves ordinary differential equations analytically, although not all ODE's can be solved in closed form. But it is always possible to obtain a series solution which may be useful. We are given the ODE

$$y'(x) = f(x, y(x))$$

and the initial condition $y(0) = y_0$ and we want to find the first few terms in the series

$$y(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} y_k x^k .$$

Write a Maple procedure which on input of $f(x, y(x))$ and the initial condition y_0 constructs a linear system of equations to solve. I.e. let

$$y(x) = y_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n y_i x^i$$

substitute this finite sum into the ODE, equate coefficients and solve for the unknowns y_i . Note, you will want to use the `taylor` command to truncate the result to order n . Test your Maple procedure on the following ODE

$$y'(x) = 1 + x^2 - 2xy(x) + y(x)^2, \quad y(0) = 1$$

You should get the following series

$$y(x) = 1 + 2x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + O(x^6)$$

Compute the solution analytically using Maple's `dsolve` command and check that your series solution agrees with Maple's analytic solution.

Develop a Newton iteration to solve for the series $y(x)$ which converges quadratically. I.e. the k 'th approximation

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - f(x_k)/f'(x_k)$$

is accurate to $O(x^{2^k})$. Thus the iteration starts with $x_0 = y_0$ and computes $x_1 = y_0 + y_1x$ then $x_2 = y_0 + y_1x + y_2x^2 + y_3x^3$ and so on. Write a Maple procedure to compute the series.

19. Modify the GaussianElimination procedure so that it does a complete row reduction of a rectangular matrix of rational numbers reducing the matrix to Reduced Row Echelon Form. Now modify your procedure to work with a matrix of formulae. Use the `simplify` function to simplify the intermediate results.
20. The use of the Taylor series for computing $\text{erf}(x)$

$$\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \text{erf}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{n!(2n+1)}$$

becomes increasingly inefficient for large x because it converges slowly. It also becomes increasingly inaccurate because of cancellation of positive and negative terms. Write a Maple procedure which sums the terms of the asymptotic series for $\text{erf}(x)$

$$\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \text{erf}(x) = 1 - \frac{2\sqrt{\pi}}{x} e^{-2x} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 1 \times 3 \times \dots \times 2n-1}{2^n x^{2n}}$$

for large x until it converges. How large must x be before this series converges at `Digits` decimal digits of precision? Combine the use of both the Taylor series and the asymptotic series to write a procedure that computes $\text{erf}(x)$ for all x accurate to `Digits` decimal digits of precision.