Functions and Rules

Besides Mathematica®’s large set of built-in mathematical and graphics functions, the most powerful aspects of Mathematica® are its ability to recognize and replace patterns and to build functions based on patterns. Learning to program in Mathematica® is very useful and to learn to program, the basic programmatic elements must be acquired.

The following are common to almost any programming language:

Variable Storage A mechanism to define variables, and subsequently read and write them from memory.

Loops Program structures that iterate. A well-formulated loop will always be guaranteed to exit.

Mathematica® has loop constructions, but it is generally better to take advantage of its List Operations, such as Table. We will discuss these later.

Variable Scope When a variable is defined, what other parts of the program (or other programs) will be able to read its value or change it? The scope of a variable is, roughly speaking, the extent to which it is available.

Switches These are commands with outcomes that depend on a quality of variable, but it is unknown, when the program is written, what the variable’s value will be. Common names are If, Which, Switch, IfThenElse and so on.

Functions Reusable sets of commands that are stored away for future use.

All of the above are, of course, available in Mathematica®.

The following are common to Symbolic and Pattern languages, like Mathematica®.
Patterns This is a way of identifying common structures and make them available for subsequent computation.

Recursion This is a method to define function that obtains its value by calling itself. An example is the Fibonacci number $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ (The value of $F$ is equal to the sum of the two values that preceded it.) $F_n$ cannot be calculated until earlier values have been calculated. So, a function for Fibonacci must call itself recursively. It stops when it reaches the end condition $F_1 = F_2 = 1$. 
Simple programs can be developed by sequences of variable assignment.

1: Here is a simple program that is just a sequence of statements that reassigns \( a \) from an initial value (\( a=1 \)). The program does this: take \( a \) add it to itself and assign the result back to \( a \); raise this new \( a \) to the power \( a \) and assign back to itself. Repeat. In Mathematica®, a semicolon—\( ; \)—just indicates that output should be suppressed. There are five executions—two of them produce output on the screen.

However, it would be cumbersome and unaesthetic if we wanted to generalize the last two lines to many executions of the same type. This is where program loops come in. Do is a simple way to loop over an expression a fixed number of times. This is equivalent to item 1, but could be easily generalized to more iterations.

4: The Do loop does not produce intermediate output, the current value of \( a \) can be obtained by asking Mathematica® for the current value.

6: Here an equivalent example, but extra Print statements are added so that intermediate output can be observed.

8: A For loop is another loop structure that enforces good programming style: Its arguments provide: an initialization, an exit condition, an iteration operator, and a function statement, and is equivalent to item 6, but it includes (a different) initial value for \( a \) in the For statement and iterates 4 times instead of 2.

The are many types of loop constructs; While is yet another.

9: Table is a very useful Mathematica® iterating function. While it iterates, it leaves intermediate results in a List structure. Thus, the built-up list can be analyzed later. It is good practice to use Table instead of Do, For, and While.

10: Except for the initial iteration value of \( a \), and the number of loops, these are practically equivalent to 1, 4, 6, and 9. We can think of this as a little program that takes an initial value of \( a \) and returns a final value as the last member of the resulting list.

11: We can generalize to many initial values, by putting a Table and a For together. The result is a list of lists (each of length 2): The first entry in each list is the initial value (\( dx \)) and the second entry is the result of the For-loop after four iterations for that \( dx \). Because the values tend to get very large, we wrap a Log (natural log) around the result of the For-loop. A special increment structure is utilized—it sets initial and final values as well as the increment size.
ListPlot[datatable]

Options[ListPlot]

Note that the options are written as Rules.

ListPlot[datatable, PlotRange -> (250, 500), PlotStyle -> PointSize[0.025]]

?FindMinimum

By going into the Help Browser, you can see that the output of FindMinimum is a list, the first element of which is the functions minimum value, and the second is a Rule specifying where the minimum occurs.

Let's try and do the above the hard way. I will use Nest to recursively apply the function 4 times (I am just using a shorthand here, we can ignore the use of Nest for this course...). You can see that it works. Don't worry about it, but if you want to know about it, use the Help Browser to get information about Nest and Pure Functions.

Clear[x]

fx = Nest[(2 #)^2 & , x, 4]

Take it derivative and set equal to zero...

dfx = D[fx, x] // Simplify

Finding the zero of this will not be easy... but FindRoot claims it can do it.

FindRoot[dfx, (x, .1, .3)]

1: The data produced from the last example can be plotted. It is apparent that there is a minimum between initial values of 0.1 and 0.3. But, it will be difficult to see unless the visualization of the plot can be controlled.

3: By specifying the ListPlot's option for the range of the y-like variable, the character of the minimum can be visually assessed.

4: It is likely that Mathematica® has functions to find minima; here we look for likely suspects.

5: FindMinimum is a fairly sophisticated function to obtain the minimum of an expression in a specified range, even if the function only returns a numerical result. Here FindMinimum is used, to find a very high precision approximation to the minimum observed in item 3. The function is our For-loop with a variable xvalue as the initial value. We ask FindMinimum to hunt for the xvalue that minimizes the (Log of the) For-loop.

7: This is a fairly advanced example—beginning students should not worry about understanding it yet. Nest is a sophisticated method of repeated applications of a function (i.e., f(f(f(x)))) is nesting the function f three times on an argument x. It is equivalent to the previous methods of producing the iterative structure, but now the result is an expression with a variable x that plays the role of the initial value. This concept uses Pure Functions which are produced by the ampersand &.

8: The minimum of the function can be analyzed the standard way, here by taking derivatives with D. It would not be amusing (that is, for most of us) to find this derivative by hand.

9: FindRoot is sophisticated numerical method to obtain the zero of an expression in a specified range.
Very complex expressions and concepts can be built-up by loops, but within Mathematica® the complexity can be buried so that only the interesting parts are apparent and shown to the user.

Sometimes, as complicated expressions are being built up, intermediate variables are used. Consider the value of \textit{i} after running the program:

\texttt{FindMinimum[For[a = dx; i = 1, i \leq 4, i++, a = 2a; a = a \wedge a]; Log[a], \{dx, 0.15, 0.25\}]}; the value of \textit{i} (in this case 5) has no useful meaning anymore. If you had defined a symbol such as \texttt{x = 2i} previously, then \textit{x} would now have the value of 10, which is probably not what was intended. It is much safer to localize variables—in other words, to limit the scope of their visibility to only those parts of the program that need the variable and this is demonstrated in the next example. Sometimes this is called a “Context” for the variable in a programming language; Mathematica® has contexts as well, but should probably be left as an advanced topic.
Making Variables Local and Using Switches to Control Procedures

Describes the use of `Module` to “hide” a variable: consider the variable `a` from the first item in the above example—its intermediate values during iteration are not always important. Suppose you wish to use the symbol `a` later, that it played an intermediate role hence was not used, and may easily be forgotten. It is good practice to make such variables ‘local’ to their own functions.

An example of a logical switch is demonstrated for `If`.

### Local Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>xvalue</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CurrentValueofA = a;</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xvalue = SnickerDoodle; a = HappyGoLucky;</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Module[</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{xvalue, a, maxIteration = 4, solution, i},</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solution =</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FindMinimum[For[a = xvalue; i = 1,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i = maxIteration, i++, a = 2 a; a = a^a];</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log[a], {xvalue, 0.15, 0.25}];</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print[xvalue /. solution[[2]]]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xvalue</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Switches: If, Which

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If[PrimeQ[a],</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print[a, &quot; is a Prime Number&quot;],</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print[a,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; is not Prime, its divisors are &quot;,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divisors[a]],</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print[&quot;I have no idea what you are asking me to do!&quot;]</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above program is ok, but not very useful because it only works for the current value of `a`. It would be more useful to have something that worked for any value of `a` and could use it over again—that is, turn it into a tool. This involves patterns and function definitions.

1: The symbols `xvalue` and `a` are left over from the last example, even though they played only an intermediate role for the final result. It is not unusual to run the same `Mathematica®` for a day or more—it would be easy to forget that values have been assigned to symbols.

2: This could lead us to mistakenly use its value later as though it might be undefined. This is a common error.

3: The production of such errors can be reduced with a programming practice known as localized variables (also known as variable-scoping). The idea is to hide the variable within its own structure—the variable is said to have a limited scope. `Module` provides a function for doing this. Here symbols `xvalue` and `a` have set values before the call to `Module`, but any value that is changed inside of `Module` has no effect on its “global” value in the rest of the `Mathematica®` session. `Using Module` is a good programming practice for creating your own functions.

4: Even though `Module` changed the symbols `xvalue` and `a`, and used an internal variable `solution`, there should be no effect outside of `Module`.

6: It is useful to build functions that are “smart” (or appear to be so, by applying rules of logic). Here, a simple example of the use of `If` will be applied to a symbol which is the sum of the 23rd, 62nd, and 104th prime numbers.

This is a simple program. First, it checks if `a` is prime using the query-function `PrimeQ`. If the check is true, then it prints a message saying so, and then returns control to the `Mathematica®` kernel.

If the check is false, then it prints out a message and some more useful information about the fact it isn’t prime using `Divisors`. If the statement cannot be determined to be true or false, a message to that effect is printed.
Patterns are extremely important in mathematics and in Mathematica®. The goal for beginners should be to master how to create your own functions: understanding how to use patterns is essential to creating your own functions in Mathematica®.

In Mathematica®, the use of the underscore, _, means “this is a placeholder for something that will be used later.” In other words, you may want to perform a predictable action on an object (e.g., find the value of its cosine, determine if it is prime, plot it), but want to create the action before the object exists. We create the action using a pattern (_), the arbitrary object, and create fixed operations on the pattern.

Usually, one needs to name the pattern to make it easier to refer to later. The pattern gets named by adding a head to the underscore, such as SomeVariableName_, and then you can refer to whatever pattern matched it with the name SomeVariableName.

This is a bit abstract and probably difficult to understand without the aid of a few examples. We start with patterns and replacement in the following example, and then build up to functions in the next example.
Operating with Patterns

Patterns are identified by the underscore _, and the matched pattern can be named for later use (e.g., the_match_).

1: Construct an example $\text{AList} = \{\text{first, second, 2first, 2second}\}$ to demonstrate use of pattern matching. We will try to replace members that match 2 something with something. There is an instructive error in the first try.

2: The rule is applied to $\text{AList}$ through the use of the operator /. (short-hand for ReplaceAll). The pattern here is “two multiplied by something.” The symbol a should a placeholder for something, but a was already defined and so the behavior is probably not what was wanted: 2 something was replaced by the current value of a. Another (probably better, but better left until later) usage is the delayed ruleset :->.

4: After a has been cleared, the symbol a is free to act as a placeholder. In other words, a takes on the temporary value of the last match. The effect of applying the rule is $2 \times$ all somethings are replaced by the pattern represented by a which takes a temporary value of each something.

5: Here is an example that uses each member of a four-member list, names the members, and then uses a rule to operate on the entire list. Study this example until you understand it.

6: The types of things that get pattern-matched can be restricted by adding a pattern qualifier to the end of the underscore. Here, we restrict the pattern matching to those objects that are Integer. The first replacement makes sense; however, the third member of the list is understood by considering that the internal representation of a/b is a Power[b,-1]—the -1 is what was matched.

7: It is not necessary to name a pattern, but it is a good idea if the match is to be used again later. Here, the first thing that gets matched (the list itself) is replaced with the new symbol.

8: For a simple (incomplete and not generally useful) example of the use of patterns, an example producing symbolic derivative of a polynomial will be developed. Here, a polynomial PaulNoMealX in x is defined using Sum.
Sometimes we wish to set a variable immediately and intend for its value to not change until it is reset—for this immediate assignment is used. If the variable is to depend on when it is used, or the context in which it is used, delayed assignment (:=) is in order.

1: Here we set a symbol to the current date. Its value get set as soon as the cell is evaluated, because it is assigned with immediate assignment (=)

2: The value does not change, even though the value of `DateString` would change.

4: To get a variable that will update whenever it is queried, a delayed assignment (:=) is used. In this case, the assignment is not made until the variable is evaluated. And, if the value is queried again, the variable gets updated.

6: Here is an example that uses `Pause` to demonstrate the effect of a delayed assignment.

7: Here is an example that uses `Pause` to demonstrate the effect of a delayed assignment.

8: Here is an example that uses `Pause` to demonstrate the effect of a delayed assignment.

9: Here is an example that uses `Pause` to demonstrate the effect of a delayed assignment.

10: Here is an example that uses `Pause` to demonstrate the effect of a delayed assignment.

11: Here is an example that uses `Pause` to demonstrate the effect of a delayed assignment.

20: Here is an example that uses `Pause` to demonstrate the effect of a delayed assignment.

21: Here is an example that uses `Pause` to demonstrate the effect of a delayed assignment.
Creating Functions using Patterns and Delayed Assignment

Understanding this example is important for beginners to Mathematica!

The real power of patterns and replacement is obtained when defining functions. Examples of how to define functions are presented.

Defining Functions with Patterns

Defining functions with patterns probably combines the most useful aspects of Mathematica. Define a function that takes pattern matching x as its first argument and an argument matching n as its second argument and returns x to the n\textsuperscript{th} power:

1: Here is an example of a pattern: a symbol f is defined such that if it is called as a function with a pattern of two named arguments x\_ and a\_, then the result is whatever x\^a evaluated to be when the function was defined. Don't emulate this example—it is not usually the best way to define a function. In words you are telling Mathematica\textsuperscript{®}, “any time you see f[thing,doodad] replace it with the current value of thingdoodad.”

2: Our example appears to work, but only because our pattern variables, x and a had no previous assignment.

3–6 This shows why this can be a bad idea. f with two pattern-arguments, is assigned when it is defined, and therefore if either x or a was previously defined, then the definition will permanently reflect that definition. The :=-assignment is performed immediately and anything on the right-hand-side will be evaluated with their immediate values.

7–12: What we really want to tell Mathematica\textsuperscript{®} in words is, “I am going to call this function in the future. I want to define the function now, but I don’t want Mathematica\textsuperscript{®} to evaluate it until it is called; use the pattern-matching variables when you evaluate it later.” This involves use delayed assignment which appears as :=. For beginning users to Mathematica\textsuperscript{®}, this is the best way to define functions.

In a delayed assignment, the right-hand-side is not evaluated until the function is called and then the patterns become transitory until the function returns its result. This is usually what we mean when we write \( y(x) = ax^2 \) mathematically—if y is given a value x, then it operates and returns a value related to that x and not any other x that might have been used earlier.

This is the prototype for function definitions.
Until you become more familiar with MATHEMATICA®, it is probably a good idea to get in the habit of defining all function with delayed assignment (\(\texttt{:=}\)) instead of immediate assignment (\(\texttt{=}\)). With delayed assignment, MATHEMATICA® does not evaluate the right-hand-side until you ask it to perform the function. With immediate assignment, the right-hand-side is evaluated when the function is defined making it much less flexible because your name for the pattern may get “evaluated away.”

Defining functions are essentially a way to eliminate repetitive typing and to “compactify” a concept. This “compactification” is essentially what we do when we define some function or operation (e.g., \(\cos(\theta)\) or \(\int f(x)dx\)) in mathematics—the function or operation is a placeholder for something perhaps too complicated to describe completely, but sufficiently understood that we can use a little picture to identify it.

Of course, it is desirable for the function to do the something reasonable even if asked to do something that might be unreasonable. No one would buy a calculator that would try to return a very big number when division by zero occurs—or would give a real result when the arc-cosine of 1.1 is demanded. Thus, a bit of care is advisable when defining functions: you want them to behave reliably in the future when you have forgotten what you have done. Functions should probably be defined so that they can be reused, either by you or someone else. The conditions for which the function can work should probably be encoded into the function. In MATHEMATICA® this can be done with restricted patterns.
This is an example of how one might go about defining a function to return the factorial of a number. Instructive mistakes are introduced and, in the following example, we will make the function behave better with incremental improvements.

We will also show how to speed up programs by trading memory for speed.

The canonical programming example is the factorial function \( n! = (n)(n-1)(n-2)\ldots1 \) where \( 0! = 1 \); here is a...
Here are demonstrations of how to restrict whether a pattern gets matched by the *type of the argument* and how to place further restrictions on pattern matching.

### Restrictions on Patterns

The factorial function is pretty good, but not foolproof as the next few lines will show.

1. `Clear[factorial];
   factorial[0] = 1;
   factorial[n_] := n * factorial[n - 1];

The next line will cause an error to appear on the message screen.

2. `factorial[Pi];`

The remedy is to restrict the pattern:

3. `Clear[factorial];
   factorial[0] = 1;
   factorial[n_Integer] := n * factorial[n - 1];`

This time it doesn’t produce an error, and returns a value indicating that it is leaving the function in symbolic form for values it doesn’t know about.

4. `factorial[Pi];`

### Functions and Patterns with Tests

However, the definition of factorial still needs some improvement—the next line will cause an error.

5. `Clear[factorial];
   factorial[0] = 1;
   factorial[n_Integer ? Positive] := n * factorial[n - 1];`

This time it doesn’t produce an error, and returns a value indicating that it is leaving the function in symbolic form for values it doesn’t know about.

6. `factorial[12];`

7. `factorial[Pi];`

### 3: However, what if the previously-defined factorial function were called on a value such as π? It would recursively call (π − 1)! which would call (π − 2)! and so on. Thus, this execution would be limited by the current value of $\text{RecursionLimit}$. This potential misuse can be eliminated by placing a pattern restriction on the argument of `factorial` so that it is only defined for integer arguments.

5: Here is an improved definition for the `factorial` function using a pattern type: `_Integer`. The type-qualifier at the end of the “_” is the internal representation of whatever the argument was (e.g., `Integer`, `Real`, `Complex`, `List`, `Symbol`, `Rational`, etc.). In this case, the factorial function is *only* defined for integer arguments.

6: Now the function should indicate that it doesn’t have anything further to do with a non-integer argument.

7: However, the definition is still not fool-proof because negative integers will not terminate the recursion properly.

9: A pattern can have conditional matching indicated by the `_?Query` where `Query` returns true for the conditions that the pattern can be matched (e.g., `Positive[2]`, `NonNegative[0]`, `NumberQ[1.2]`, `StringQ["harpo"]` all return `True`). In this example, the function’s pattern—`n_Integer?Positive`—might be understood in words as “Match any integer and then test and see if that integer is positive; if so use `n` as a temporary placeholder for that positive integer.”
A simple example of patterns is demonstrated with graphics. Another method of using conditions is demonstrated.

1: As an example, we will try to duplicate `Mathematica®`’s definition of `Sign`.

2: Because we want our function to return zero when it gets called with an argument of zero—exact or numerical, immediate assignment is used in the first two lines. (It would probably be better to use the _?PossibleZeroQ pattern match here, but slower.)

Because we don’t need to use the value of the matched pattern we can get by without naming it (i.e., _?Positive). I include this for instruction purposes—if I were writing this function for later use, I’d probably go ahead and name the pattern for readability.

3: We Plot our function to see if it behaves properly. We use Plot’s option PlotStyle→Thick to make the curve easier to see.

4: Here is an example using our function and plotting two curves with more plotting options.

5: The ideal molar entropy of mixing is the sum of \( X_i \ln X_i \) for each component \( i \) with composition \( X_i \). Because the composition variables are limited to \( 0 \leq X_i \leq 1 \), our example ideal molar entropy function should reflect this constraint.

Here we use a conditional definition `/;`, to ensure that our \( X \ln X \) function is never called for any \( X \) that are out-of-bounds. The delayed assignment statement \( \text{LHS} := \text{RHS} /; \text{test} \) might be read as, “If the symbol LHS is called, then evaluate (using whatever patterns might appear in LHS) whether test is true; if true, then evaluate RHS with the appropriate pattern replacements.” Note that here, we make \( X = 0 \) a special case and not included in our delayed assignment of the function.

Because \( \ln x \rightarrow -\infty \) as \( x \rightarrow 0 \), it may not be obvious that \( x \ln x \rightarrow 0 \) as \( x \rightarrow 0 \). We use Limit to determine this behavior and use immediate assignment in our function definition. (This is a case where immediate assignment makes sense; with delayed assignment the Limit function would be called each time that \( X \log X \) is called on a zero-argument.

6: This is a plot of the ideal molar entropy of mixing for a binary alloy.
Index

:= delayed evaluation, 36
/. , 33
:> , 33
:=, 35
; , 28
=, 35
$RecursionLimit , 37
Complex, 38
computation speed
  using memory to increase, 37
condition pattern matching, 38
conditional definition (/;), 39
D, 29
DateString, 34
delayed assignment, 35
delayed assignment (:=), 34
delayed evaluation :=, 36
delayed ruleset, 33
Divisors, 31
Do, 28
entropy
  ideal entropy of mixing, 39
Example function
  XLogX, 39
  factorial, 38

factorial, 38

factorial function
  examples of defining, 37
FindMinimum, 29
FindRoot, 29
For, 28, 29
function definitions
  restrictions on the arguments, 38
functions
  creating in Mathematica, 32
  defining with patterns, 35
functions in programming, 26
functions that remember previously calculated values., 37
ideal entropy of mixing, 39
If, 31
Immediate (=) and Delayed (:=) Assignments, 34
immediate assignment (=), 34
increment structure, 28
Integer, 33, 38
intermediate output, 28
intial iteration value, 28
Limit, 39
List, 38
List Operations, 26
ListPlot, 29
localized variables, 31
Log, 28, 29
loops in programming, 26
Mathematica function

/. 33
\[\rightarrow\] 33
\[\rightarrow\] 35
; 28
= 35
Complex, 38
DateString, 34
Divisors, 31
Do, 28
D, 29
FindMinimum, 29
FindRoot, 29
For, 28, 29
If, 31
Integer, 33, 38
Limit, 39
ListPlot, 29
List, 38
Log, 28, 29
Module, 31
Nest, 29
NonNegative, 38
NumberQ, 38
output suppressed with \( t \), 28
pattern matching, 33
pattern qualifier, 33
patterns
conditions on matching, 38
in symbolic programming languages, 27
using to program in Mathematica, 26
Pause, 34
Plot, 39
PlotStyle->Thick, 39
Positive, 38
PossibleZeroQ, 39
PrimeQ, 31
Prime, 31
Print, 28, 31
Rational, 38
Real, 38
ReplaceAll, 33
Sign, 39
StringQ, 38
Sum, 33
Symbol, 38
Table, 26, 28
Timing, 37
While, 28
$RecursionLimit, 37
memory
storing intermediate function values to increase speed, 37
Message Window, 37
Module, 31
modules in programming to limit variable scope, 31
Nest, 29
NonNegative, 38
NumberQ, 38

\( t \)
PossibleZeroQ, 39
Prime, 31
PrimeQ, 31
Print, 28, 31
program loops, 28
programming
  procedural, 28
Pure Functions, 29
Rational, 38
Real, 38
recursion in programming, 27
ReplaceAll, 33
restricting matches on patterns, 38
scope, 31
  reduced variable scope by using modules, 31
scoping
  of variables, 31
Sign, 39
StringQ, 38
Sum, 33
switches
  use in programming, 31
switches in programming, 26
Symbol, 38
Table, 26, 28
Timing, 37
variable initialization, 28
variable scope in programming languages, 26
While, 28
XLogX, 39
zeroes of a function
  numerical solution, 29