

# Introduction to Scientific Computing

## Function vs. Scripts, Functions as Black Boxes, Interacting with Functions and Scripts

---



# Functions vs. scripts

---

- M-file: any set of instructions stored in a MATLAB file



## Function

```
function d = myFunFunction(a,b,c)
% Takes scalar values a, b, and c,
modifies and sums the values

% Modifying the input values
var1 = 2*a;
var2 = b^2;
var3 = sqrt(c);

% Calculating the output
d = var1 + var2 + var3;
```

## Script

```
% Define values of scalars a, b, and c
a = 1;
b = 2;
c = 15;

% Modifying the scalar values a, b, and c
var1 = 2*a;
var2 = b^2;
var3 = sqrt(c);

% Calculating the sum of the modified scalar
values
d = var1 + var2 + var3;
```



# Commonalities between functions and scripts

---

- Both stored in M-files
- Both modified using the “Editor” window
- Standalone pieces of code
- Can be called from the command window or other functions



# Why use scripts?

---

- **What is a Matlab “script”**

- MATLAB M-file where all variables, constants, etc. are called within the file

- **Why develop code with a “script”**

- You may want to develop multiple lines of code to solve a problem
- Consistently typing that code into the command window can become laborious / doesn't “save” your code
- You can rapidly comment out and adjust syntax to debug your code



# Why use functions?

---

## •What is a function?

- A MATLAB M-file that starts with `function`
- Generally, you need to pass information into the function and the function returns one to several results

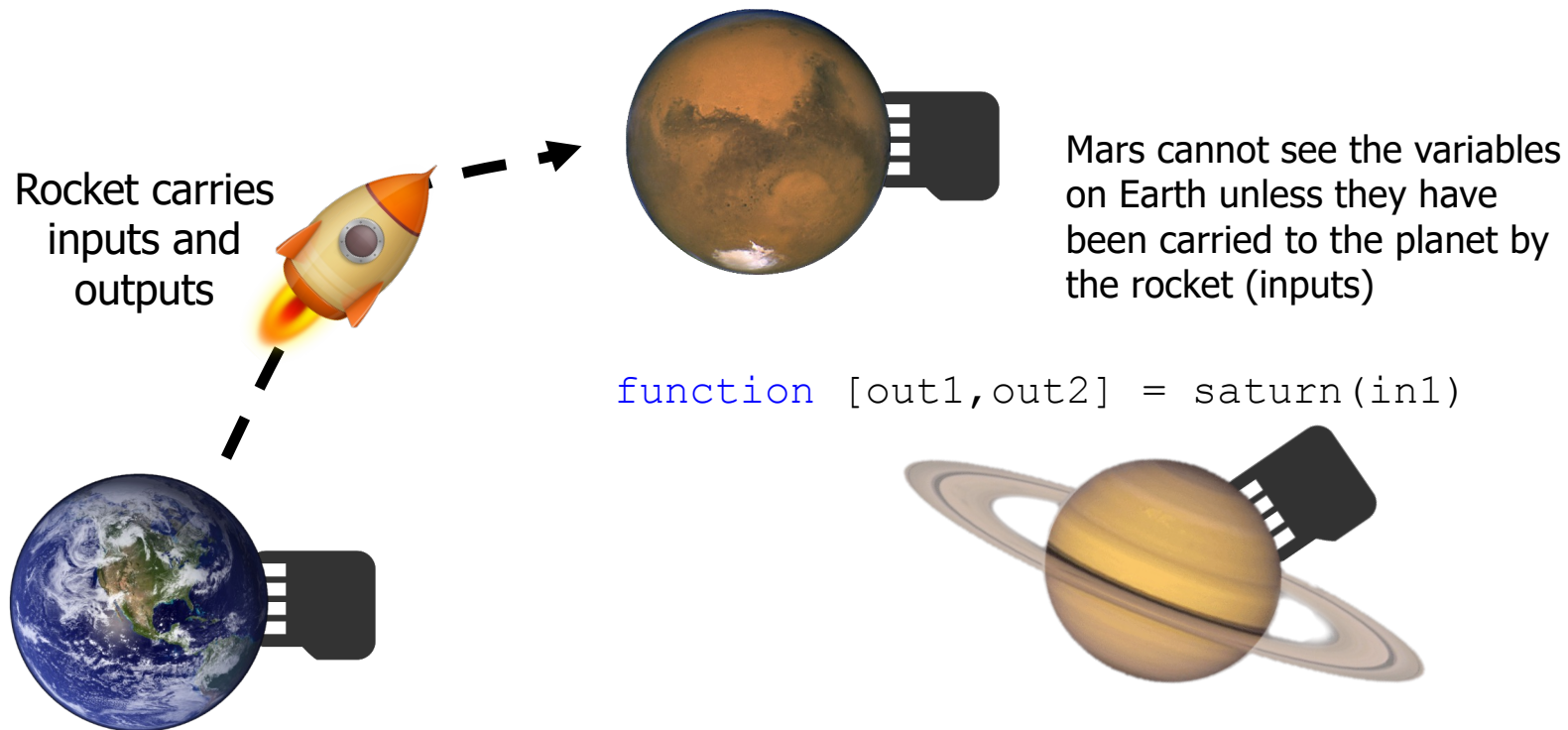
## •Why use functions?

- The function serves as a **black box** of code
- Its functionality has been tested / verified and it can be called at any time without questioning the output
- Long, complicated computations can be broken into multiple, smaller pieces of code
- Enables top-down program design



# Visual interpretation of scripts vs. functions

```
function [out1,out2,out3] = mars(in1,in2)
```



# How to specify / use a function

---

- **Establishing a function requires a specific syntax**

- For a single output and input

```
function output = myFunc(input)
```

- For multiple outputs and inputs

```
function [output1, output2, output3] =  
        myFunc(input1, input2, input3)
```

\*Note: this would be on a single line

- **Naming / saving a function**

- Must start with a letter from the alphabet (a through z)
- The name used to save the function needs to be the function name



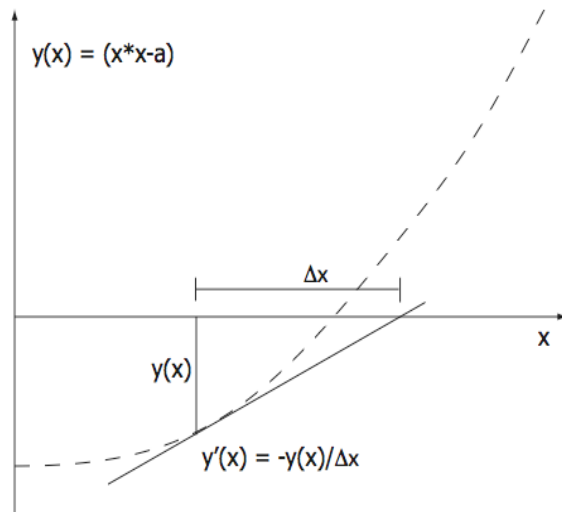
# Newton's Method

Compute the square root of a given number,  $a$ , using only  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $*$ ,  $/$

Consider the function  $y(x) = (x^2 - a)$ .

We are looking for the root of this function, that is  $x$  such that  $(x^2 - a) = 0$

**Newton's Method:** At any given value of  $x$  we approximate the function by its **tangent line** and compute where the line crosses the  $x$  axis. Repeat this procedure to get closer and closer to the answer



$$y(x_i) = (x_i^2 - a); \quad y'(x_i) = 2x_i$$

$$y'(x_i) \approx \left( \frac{-y(x_i)}{\Delta x_i} \right) \Rightarrow \Delta x_i = \left( \frac{-y(x_i)}{y'(x_i)} \right)$$

$$x_{i+1} = x_i + \Delta x_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_{i+1} &= x_i + \left( \frac{-y(x_i)}{y'(x_i)} \right) = x_i + \left( \frac{-(x_i^2 - a)}{2x_i} \right) \\ &= (x_i + (a/x_i))/2 \end{aligned}$$



# Function: `my_sqrt(a)`

---

- **Initial estimate for square root:**  $x = (a/2)$

- Repeat as  $\text{abs}(x^2 - a) > 1.0e-6$

- Compute the function value at  $x$ :  $y = (x^2 - a)$
- Compute the gradient at  $x$ :  $\text{gradient} = 2*x$
- Compute the step:  $\text{step} = -y/\text{gradient}$
- Compute the new estimate:  $x = x + \text{step}$

- **Matlab code**

`my_sqrt.m`



# Interacting with a function

---

- **How do I “call” a function**

- Initiate function execution from the command line - make sure you include the inputs! (DEMO)
- Functions can be called from other functions (DEMO)

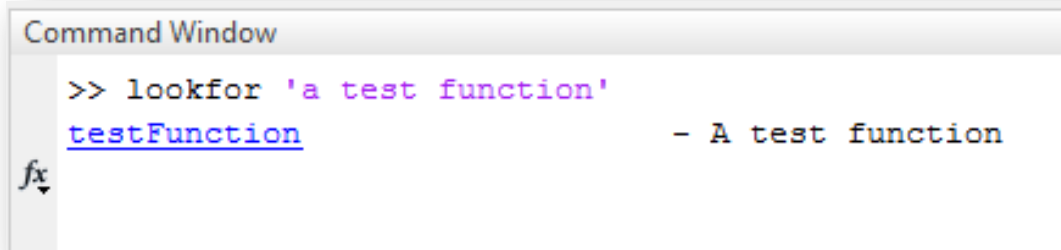


# Function H1 line

---

- The first line of a function is referred to as the “H1 line” and is searchable by MATLAB using `lookfor`

```
function out1 = testFunction(in1)
% A test function
% This would report, in the help function, all of the functionality of the
% function
% in1 = function input (units: not specified)
% out2 = function output (units: not specified)
```



A screenshot of the MATLAB Command Window. The title bar says "Command Window". The command prompt shows the command `>> lookfor 'a test function'`. The output shows the function name `testFunction` underlined in blue, followed by a description `- A test function`. A cursor icon is visible on the left side of the window.



# Function help lookup

---

- The first contiguous block of text is returned as the help query for the function

```
Command Window
>> help testFunction
A test function
This would report, in the help function, all of the functionality of the
function
in1 = function input (units: not specified)
out2 = function output (units: not specified)
fx >>
```



# Recursive functions

---

- Functions can call themselves - such functions are called “**recursive**” functions

• Ex.

```
function recursiveAdd(nToAdd)
% Adds a number to the input up to
% a value of 25

if nToAdd<25
    nToAdd = nToAdd+1;
    disp(nToAdd)
    recursiveAdd(nToAdd);
end
```



# What happens when a function is called

---

1. Arguments are *copied* to the `input` parameters
2. Function body is run in its own *private* work space
  - it can't see or use any variables in the calling context
3. When the function is done the `output` parameters are *copied* to the output parameters so that they are available to the calling context.
4. Paths
  - Matlab finds functions by searching a set of directories specified in the path
  - The current directory is included (first) in that list
  - It is often convenient to store the function definitions in `.m` files in the current directory



# Search paths

---

- MATLAB searches through a series of folders described as the “search path” when functions or scripts are invoked
- These paths are folders on your computer and include the current working folder (the folder from which your functions/scripts are currently running) and folders included during the MATLAB installation (often toolboxes)
- The working folder at startup can be changed using the `userpath` function, e.g. `userpath('C:\MyMATLABwork')`
- The order in which MATLAB searches along paths can be revealed by typing `path` at the command line
- Paths can also be “permanently” added to the search path using the `addpath()` function
- Paths can be removed using the `rmpath()` function



# I called a function - where did my variables go?

---

- **Unless cleared, variables will persist for “scripts”, but not for functions**

- Whatever happens in a function, stays in a function

- For instance, a variable, `myVar`, could be invoked in `myFunction1` and resulting in `myOut`, which is returned to another function, say `myFunction2` - this function could also use `myVar` without retaining “memory” of `myVar` as invoked in `myFunction1`

- **DEMO** - retention of workspace variables for a “script” but not for a function





## Cleaning up your MATLAB workspace and command line

---

- **Variables held in memory can be cleared using the `clear` command or by manually by selecting and deleting variables**
  - Do NOT invoke the clear command within a “function”
  - `clear` can be called within a “script” or from the command line
- **The command window may be cleared using the `clc` command**



# Commenting functions / scripts

---

- **The general rule is at least one comment for every three lines of code**
  - Proper commenting helps others understand, add to, or debug your code
  - Proper commenting helps the instructors grade your assignments
- **Commenting / uncommenting large swaths of code**
  - Highlight a selection or place your cursor on a line and press “ctrl+r” to comment a section or line of code, respectively
  - “ctrl+t” uncomments the code



# Example 1: Monthly Loan Payment

---

- Fixed rate mortgage (抵押贷款、按揭)
- Monthly payment (output)  $c$ 
  - amount paid monthly ensuring that the loan is paid in full with interest at the end of its term
- Depends on (input) :
  - Loan amount  $P_0$  (principal)
  - Interest rate  $r$
  - Number of monthly payments  $N$

$$c = \left[ r + \frac{r}{(1+r)^N - 1} \right] P_0 = \frac{r(1+r)^N}{(1+r)^N - 1} P_0$$

[loan.m](#)



## Example 2 Evaluating an Expression

---

$$f(x) = \frac{x^3 \sqrt{3x+5}}{(x^2+1)^2}$$

• Write a function file to evaluate allowing for  $x$  to be a vector

Calculate

- $f(x)$  for  $x = 6$
- $f(x)$  for  $x = 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11$

[Ex10\\_2.m](#)



# Example 3 Converting Temperatures

---

- Write a function to convert degrees Fahrenheit ( $^{\circ}$  F) to degrees Celsius ( $^{\circ}$  C)  
[FtoC.m](#)

- Use it to solve the following problem:

- The change in length of an object  $\Delta L$  due to temperature change  $\Delta T$  is given by where

$$\Delta L = \alpha * L * \Delta T$$

where  $\alpha$  is the coefficient of thermal expansion.

- Find the change in area of a rectangular aluminum plate 4.5 m by 2.25 m with  $\alpha = 23 \times 10^{-6} / ^{\circ}$  C when the temperature changes from  $40^{\circ}$  F to  $92^{\circ}$  F



# Anonymous Function

---

- Good for short (one-line) calculations used frequently in a longer program.

Example: converting Fahrenheit to Celsius [FtoC.m](#)

- General form

```
function_name = @ (arguments) expression
```

```
FtoC = @ (F) 5*(F-32)./9
```

```
cube = @ (x) x^3
```

```
circle = @ (x,y) 16*x^2+9*y^2
```



# Examples: Anonymous Function

---

$$f(x) = \frac{e^{x^2}}{\sqrt{x^2 + 5}}$$

```
FA = @ (x) exp(x^2)/sqrt(x^2+5)
FA(2)
FA = @ (x) exp(x.^2)./sqrt(x.^2+5)
FA([1 0.5 2])
```

$$f(x,y) = 2x^2 - 4xy + y^2$$

```
HA = @ (x,y) 2*x^2-4*x*y+y^2
HA(2,3)
```



# Subfunctions

---

- A function file can contain more than one user-defined function
- First function defined, the "*primary*," is how the function is known to the rest of the program
- Other functions, "*subfunctions*," are only known *inside* the function file and each has its own workspace (local variables)
- Subfunctions are used to implement “utility” calculations for primary function





## Example 4 Mean and Standard Deviation

---

- Write a function that calculates **mean** (average) and standard deviation of a list of numbers.  
stat.m

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}}$$



# Function Functions

---

- MATLAB built-in function `fzero` can find the zeros (values of  $x$  where  $f(x) = 0$ ) of any function  $f(x)$ . How do we describe  $f(x)$  to `fzero`?
- Function functions like `fzero` accept functions as arguments in two ways
  - Function handle
  - Using the name of the function in a string



# Function Handles

---

- A data type holding a unique value associated with any function (user-defined, built-in, anonymous)
- Obtained by

`@function_name`

`@cos`

`@FtoC` (as function file)

`FtoC` (as anonymous function)

Example: `funplot` - evaluates and graphs a function over a specified range returning a matrix of values at each extreme and the midpoint.

Use user-defined function

Use anonymous function

[funplot.m](#), [Fdemo.m](#)



# Function Names in Strings

---

- Older method, less efficient.

- Pass name of function as a string

`'cos'`

`'FtoC'`

- Evaluate

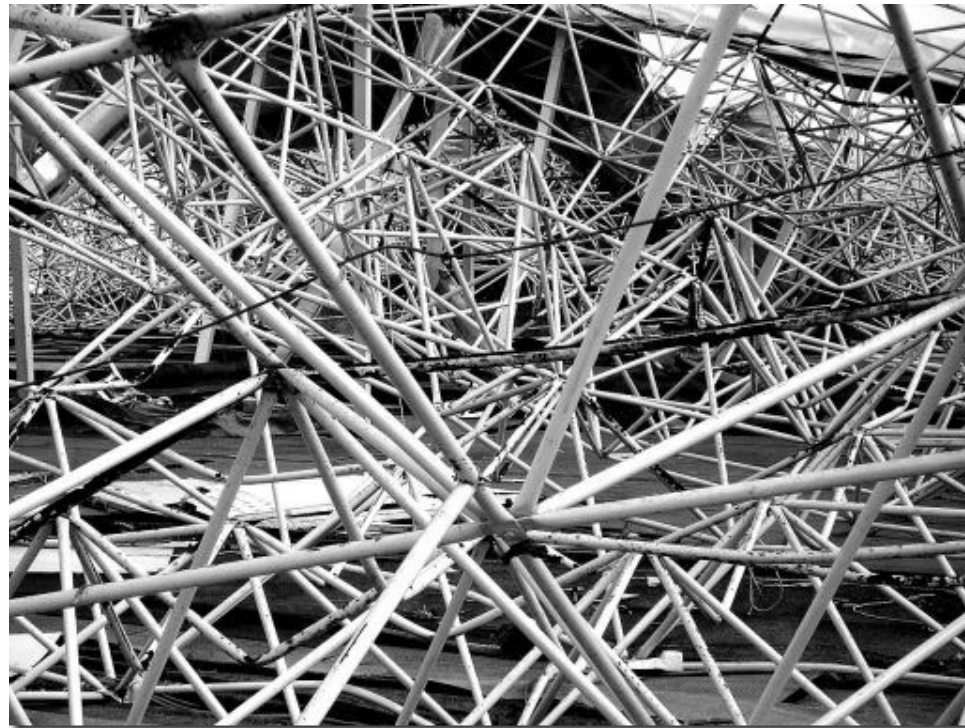
`var = feval('function_name', arguments)`

[funplotS.m](#)



# Solving real problems

---



Start simple and build to complexity

# Accessing Vector Elements, Iteration, Relational Operators

---



# Initializing vectors in MATLAB

---

## •You now know of several ways to input a vector into MATLAB:

- Discrete method

```
x = [0.5, 1.5, 2, 3.2, 1.5, 0.4];
```

- Colon operator - establishes vectors with user-defined ranges and regularly-spaced intervals

```
x = 1:1:5; or x = 1:5;
```

```
x = -5:2:5;
```

- Linspace and logspace

```
x = linspace(1,5,5)
```

```
x = logspace(1,5,5)
```



# Accessing vector elements

---

## •What about accessing vector elements?

- For the following assume we have defined the following vector in memory, which we reset before each operation

`x = [5, 9, 4, 1, 7, 3, 4, 8];`

- Access the first vector index

`y = x(1)`  $\rightarrow y = 5$

- Access a range of vector indices

`y = x(1:3)`  $\rightarrow y = [5, 9, 4]$

`y = x(6:8)`  $\rightarrow y = [3, 4, 8]$

- Access the last vector index

`y = x(end)`  $\rightarrow y = 8$





# Accessing vector elements

---

• **Assume**  $x = [5, 9, 4, 1, 7, 3, 4, 8];$

• Access an offset vector index

$$y = x(1+4) \quad \rightarrow y = 7$$

• Access the antepenultimate vector index

$$y = x(\text{end}-2) \quad \rightarrow y = 3$$

• Access discrete indices

$$y = x([1 \ 3 \ 6]) \quad \rightarrow y = [5, 4, 3]$$



# Overwriting / adding to vector elements

---

- The existing contents of a vector may be overwritten or addended

- For the following assume we have defined the following vector in memory, which we will continuously modify

$x = [1, 2, 3];$

- Overwrite the first index

$x(1) = 5 \quad \rightarrow x = [5, 2, 3];$

- Overwrite the last index

$x(\text{end}) = 1 \quad \rightarrow x = [5, 2, 1];$

- Add ending indices

$x(\text{end}+1) = 8 \quad \rightarrow x = [5, 2, 1, 8];$



# Overwriting / adding to vector elements

---

• **Assume** `x = [5, 2, 1, 8];`

- Add ending indices

`x(end+1) = [6, 9];`

→ assignment error (dimensions don't match)

- Add ending indices

`x(end+1:end+2) = [6, 9];`

→ `x = [5, 2, 1, 8, 6, 9];`



# Removing vector elements

---

- **Vector elements can be removed by specifying an empty set “[ ]”**

- Say we establish the following vector

`x = [8, 4, 5, 9, 3, 2, 5, 6];`

- Removing the first element of the vector

`x(1) = [];`

`→ x = [4, 5, 9, 3, 2, 5, 6];`

- Removing several elements from the vector

`x(end-3:end) = [];`

`→ x = [8, 4, 5, 9];`



# Iteration / `for` loops

---

- **Formula vectorization is preferred for speed, but sometimes iteration / loops are necessary**

- A basic `for` loop that displays 1 through 20, by 1, at the command window

```
for jj = 1:20
    disp(jj)
end
```

- `for` loops are preferred over `while` loops (shown later) when the number of iterations are known a priori / fixed



# Iteration / for loops

---

- **for loops can take in colon operators of any viable form**

```
for jj = 1:3:19  
    disp(jj)  
end
```

- **for loops can also take discrete vectors**

```
for jj = [1 9 5]  
    disp(jj)  
end
```

Note: the for loop needs a closing "end" statement to execute properly



# Iteration / for loops

---

- for loops can be nested

```
for jj = 1:10
    for kk = 1:10
        disp([jj kk])
    end
```

end

Note: each instance of the for loop requires an “end” statement



# An example of a `for` loop

- Section 2.7.1 shows the use of a `for` loop for determining the square root of a number using Newton's method. Why is a `for` loop necessary here?

```
% Newton's method - as shown in section 2.7.1 of Essential Matlab, ed. 5,  
% evaluated using for loops  
  
clear; clc; close all  
  
% We want to know the square root of scalar a  
a = 2;  
  
% Initial guess  
x = a/2;  
  
% For loop to converge to a solution  
for jj = 1:10  
    x = (x+a/x)/2;  
end  
disp(['The approximate square root is ',num2str(x,10),...  
    ' and the actual solution is ',num2str(sqrt(a),10)])
```





# Relational operators

---

- Loops can also be invoked using the `while` command
  - however, we first need to understand relational operators since `while` loops depend heavily on them
- Relational operators compare values (or vectors, matrices) and yield a true or false result



# Relational operators

---

## Relational Operator Syntax in MATLAB

Relational Operator	Meaning
<	Less than
<=	Less than or equal to
==	Equal to
~=	Not equal
>	Larger than
>=	Larger than or equal to



# Iteration / while loops

---

- The `while` command executes a piece of code until a desired condition is satisfied

```
while <relationalExpresion>  
    <expressionToEvaluate>  
End
```

- A simple example

```
a = 1;  
while a < 10  
    a = a+1;  
end
```



# Iteration / while loops

---

while loops are most appropriate when the extent (number of) iterations is unknown a priori

**(DEMO)** Newton's method using a while loop to estimate the square root of a to a finite precision



## Invoking a `for` and `while` loop for $n$ iterations

---

- Say you want to evaluate some expression  $n$  number of times and the value of the expression is not known a priori
  - You have two options: a `for` loop or a `while` loop
  - `for` loops have compact syntax since they don't require a counter



## Invoking a `for` and `while` loop for $n$ iterations

---

- **Example: Newton's Method for evaluating the square root of  $a$**   
`for` loop

```
n = 100;  
a = 2;  
x = a/2;  
for ii = 1:n  
    x = (x+a/x)/2;  
end
```



## Invoking a `for` and `while` loop for $n$ iterations

---

- `while` **loop**

```
n = 100;  
a = 2;  
x = a/2;  
ctr = 0;  
while ctr < n  
    ctr = ctr+1;  
    x = (x+a/x)/2;  
end
```

- **Neither method presents a clear time savings - what are you more comfortable with / what looks cleaner?**



**Looping vs. Vectorization/Array Operations,**  
**Decisions (`if`),**  
**Boolean Expressions**  
**Operations that Require while Loops,**  
**Decisions Involving `if` / `elseif` / `else`,**  
**Logical Operators**

---





# Array operations increase computation speed

---

## •Consider the vector

`a = rand(1,N)` where `N` is the total number of array elements

Say we wish to calculate  $b_i = a_i \times a_i$

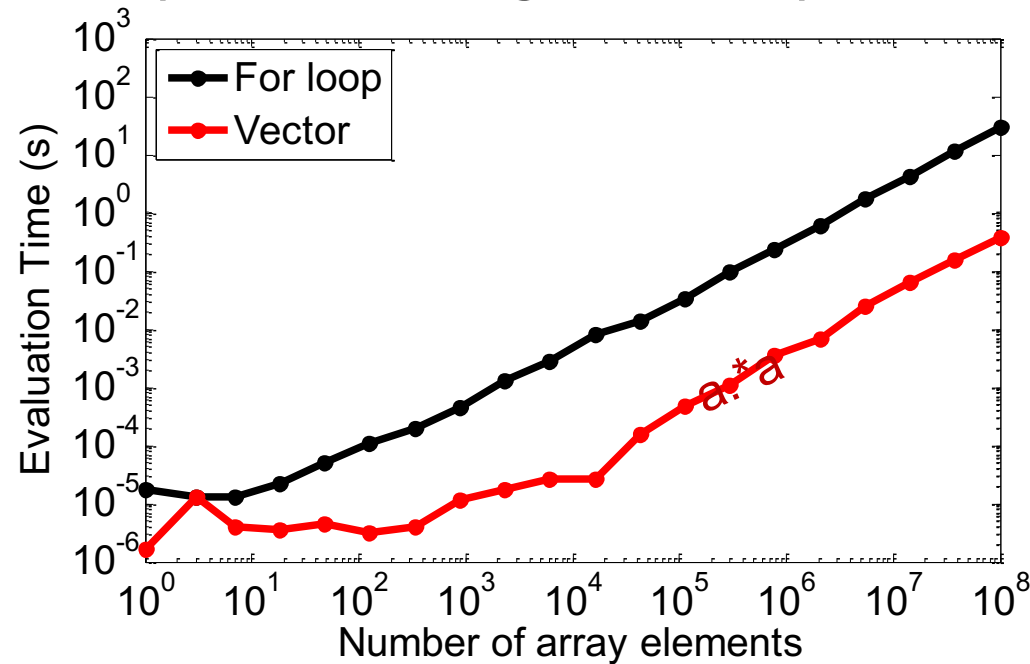
We have three options

- Array operations / vectorization
  - `a.^2`
  - `a.*a`
- Looping
  - Using a `for` loop



# Array operations increase computation speed

Time to Compute  $a*a$  using a for Loop vs. Vectorization



Time savings = orders of magnitude

# Array operations increase computation speed

The Code Used to Generate the Previous Result (for your reference)

```
clear; clc; close all

n = round(logspace(0,8,20));

for jj = 1:length(n)

    a = rand(1,n(jj));

    clear b
    tic
    for kk = 1:length(a)
        b(kk) = a(kk)*a(kk);
    end
    t_for(jj) = toc;

    clear b
    tic
    b = a.*a;
    t_vect(jj) = toc;

end
```

↓ continued...plotting  
commands

```
[ph] = plot(n,t_for,'k.-',n,t_vect,'r.-');
set(ph(1),'LineWidth',4,'MarkerSize',25)
set(ph(2),'LineWidth',4,'MarkerSize',25)
set(gca,'YTick',logspace(-10,10,21))
set(gca,'XTick',logspace(0,20,21))
set(gca,'XScale','log','YScale','log')
set(gca,'FontSize',20)
set(gca,'FontName','Arial')
lg = legend('For loop','Vector');
set(lg,'Location','NorthWest')
xlabel('Number of array elements')
ylabel('Evaluation Time (s)')
```



# Decisions - the `if` statement

---

- What if you want to evaluate a variable, vector, etc. based on certain criteria?

- The `if` statement evaluates a condition and executes a statement or statements if that condition is met

- A simple example

```
a = 1;  
if a == 1;  
    disp('a is equal to 1! Yay!')  
end
```

- Like a `for` loop, the `if` statement is closed with an `end` statement



# Decisions - nested `if` statements

---

## •What if several criteria need to be met?

- The `if` statement can be nested

```
a = 1;
b = 2;

if a == 1;
    if b == 2;
        disp(['a is equal to 1',...
              'and b is equal to 2.'...
              'Double yay!'])
    end
end
```



# Boolean expressions / logical operators

---

Boolean expressions can be used to circumvent nested `if` statements

- The Boolean statements “&&” and “||” evaluate several expressions to determine if both or any of the statements are true

Logical Operator (Vectors / Scalars)	Logical Operator (Scalars)	Meaning
&	&&	and
		or



## Avoiding nested `if` statements using Boolean expressions

---

- The two if criteria can be combined into one if statement to clean up the code

```
a = 1;
b = 2;

if a == 1 && b == 2
    disp(['a is equal to 1',...
        'and b is equal to 2.'...
        'Double yay!'])
end
```



# Decisions: `if`, `elseif`, **and** `else`

---

- We learned about `if` decisions, which can be invoked to evaluate relational/logical criteria

- `if` statements are not limited to one set of criteria
- Multiple criteria may be evaluated using the `if`, `elseif`, `else` formulation
- Example
  - FEM shape function





# A more complete list of logical operators

---

Table of Logical Operators

Logical Operator (Scalars)	Logical Operator (Vectors)	Function call	Meaning
&&	&	and(a,b)	And
		or(a,b)	Or, inclusive
		xor(a,b)	Or, exclusive
~	~	not(a)	Not / compliment



# The difference between `or` and `xor`

---

Truth table for `or` and `xor`

statement a	statement b	<code>or(a,b)</code>	<code>xor(a,b)</code>
F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T
T	F	T	T
T	T	T	F

`or` = truth for both statements leads to positive output

`xor` = truth for both statements leads to a negative output



# Logical NOT

## Logical Vectors

---



# Logical NOT

---

- We have discussed OR and AND ad nauseam - little has been said about NOT
- NOT behaves a little differently - it only requires one input - and returns the logical opposite

`not(0)` or `~0` returns 1

`not(1)` returns 0

`not(3)` returns 0

- **Note:** in the description of logical operators - nonzero values are treated as a truth / 1



# From logical scalars to vectors

---

- We have covered logical scalars - most often in conjunction with decisions or while loops
- A logical scalar value can be invoked by making a relational comparison between one (in the case of not /  $\sim$ ) or two scalar values (in the case of  $>$ ,  $<$ ,  $\geq$ ,  $=$ ,  $\sim$ , etc.)
- A true result is represented by 1 while a false result is represented by 0

• Examples of logical scalars. What would be the result of each of the following?

$$a = 3 > 2$$

$$a = 2 \sim 2$$

$$a = 2 > 3$$

$$a = 2 == 2$$

$$a = 2 \geq 2$$

$$a = \sim 1$$



# From logical scalars to vectors

---

- **Logical vectors are vectors of numbers (0 and 1) representing a `true` (1) or `false` (0) condition based on some relational expression**

- Recall, a logical scalar

`a = 3 <= 4` gives, `a = 1`

This is of a “logical” class and is 1 byte in size (compared to 8 bytes for double precision)

- Logical vector

`a = [0 4 9 7 3 5] <= 4`



# How are logical vectors “made”

---

- Logical vectors occur as a result of a statement on a vector involving a relational operator -or- may be specified through discrete input

- Relational operator operating on a vector

`a = [1 6 5] < 2`

yields `a = [1 0 0]`

- Directly specifying the logical operator

`a = logical([1 0 0])`

Call to logical function required otherwise a double precision number will be created



# Logical vector rules

---

• Say we define the following vectors in MATLAB:

`x = [5 9 2 4 3];`    <- vector of class “double”

`v = logical([1 0 1 0 1]);`    <- logical vector

`xp = x(v);`    <- returns elements of `x` corresponding to `true` (1) indices of the logical vector `v`

• Logical vector rules dictate:

- 1) `v` may be used as a subscript for `x` given that it is of class “logical”
- 2) only the elements of `x` corresponding to 1's (`true`) in `v` are returned
- 3) `x` and `v` must be the same size





# Examples of logical vectors

---

What are the results of the following?

```
x = [1 4 3 6 2 8];  
v = x>3;  
yields v
```

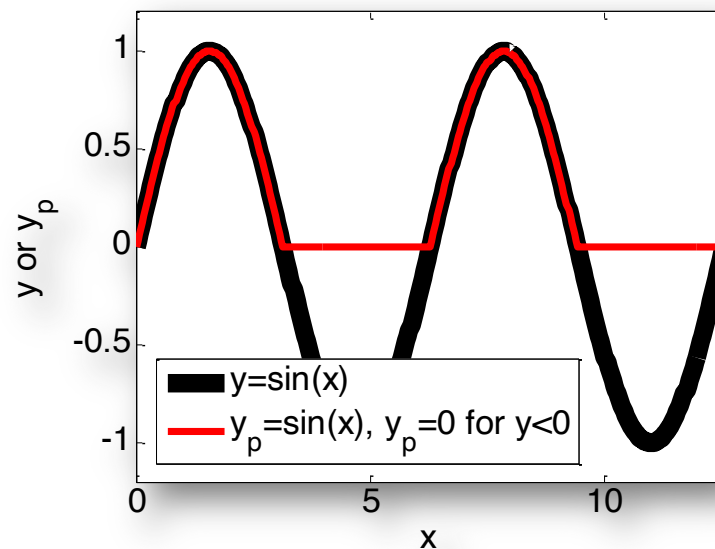
```
x = [1 4 3 6 2 8];  
v = x<-3;  
yields v
```

```
x = [1 4 3 6 2 8];  
v = ~(~x);
```



## Example of logical vector use: $\sin(x)$

Produce the following plot:  $y(x) = \begin{cases} \sin(x) & (\sin(x) > 0) \\ 0 & (\sin(x) \leq 0) \end{cases}$



# Example of logical vector use: $\sin(x)$

---

## Method 1 - for and if expressions (not logical vectors)

```
% Domain vector and sin(x)
x = 0:pi/1000:3*pi;
y = sin(x);

% For loop and if condition used to
% set negative y values to 0
for jj = 1:length(y)
    if y(jj) < 0
        y(jj) = 0;
    end
end

% Plotting the result
plot(x,y,'k.')
```



# Example of logical vector use: $\sin(x)$

---

## Method 2 - logical vectors

```
% Domain vector and sin(x)
x = 0:pi/1000:3*pi;
y = sin(x);

% Set all negative y values to 0
y = y.*(y>0)

% Plotting the result
plot(x,y, 'k.')
```

This syntax is much more efficient!

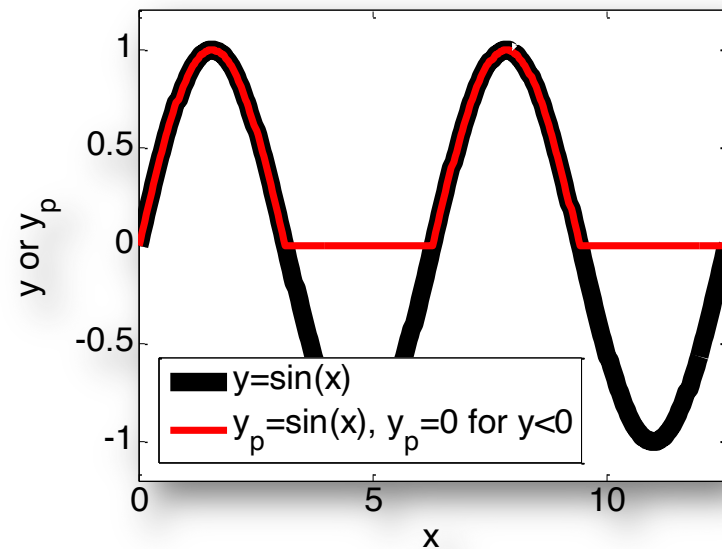


# Code used for plot

```
% Domain and y = sin(x)
x = 0:pi/100:4*pi;
y = sin(x);

% Set y<0 to 0
yp = y.*(y>0);

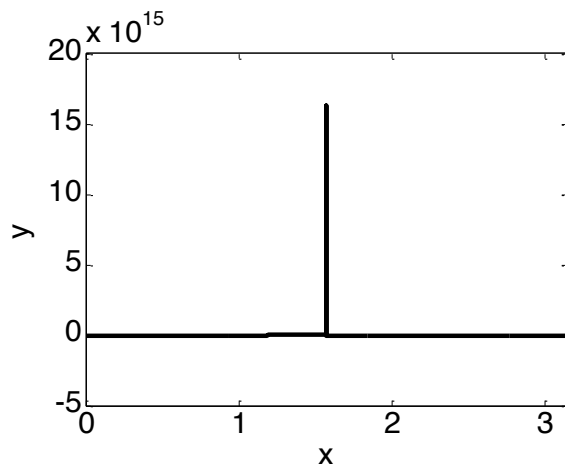
% Plot the result
pl = plot(x,y,'k-',x,yp,'r-');
set(gca,'FontSize',18)
set(pl(1),'LineWidth',10)
set(pl(2),'LineWidth',4)
axis([0 4*pi -1.2 1.2])
xlabel('x'), ylabel('y or y_p')
lg = legend('y=sin(x)',...
           'y_p=sin(x), y_p=0 for y<0');
```



## Example of logical vector use: $\tan(x)$

---

Produce the following plot:  $y(x) = \tan(x)$



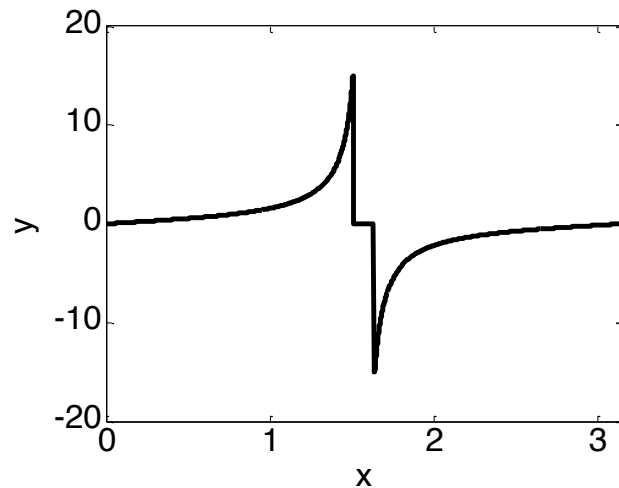
```
x = 0*pi:pi/10000:pi;  
y = tan(x);  
plot(x,y)  
xlim([0 pi])  
xlabel('x')  
ylabel('y')
```

Can we use logical vectors to change the visualization of this function such that the details of  $y$  are not dominated by the asymptote?

## Example of logical vector use: $\tan(x)$

---

Set large (positive and negative) values to 0

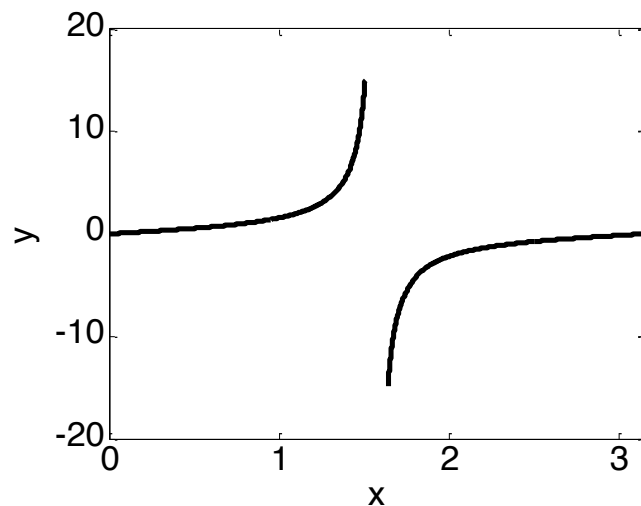


```
x = 0*pi:pi/10000:pi;  
y = tan(x);  
y = y.*(abs(y)<15);  
plot(x,y)
```

## Example of logical vector use: $\tan(x)$

---

Set large (positive and negative) values to NaN



```
x = 0*pi:pi/10000:pi;  
y = tan(x);  
y(abs(y)>15) = NaN;  
plot(x,y)
```

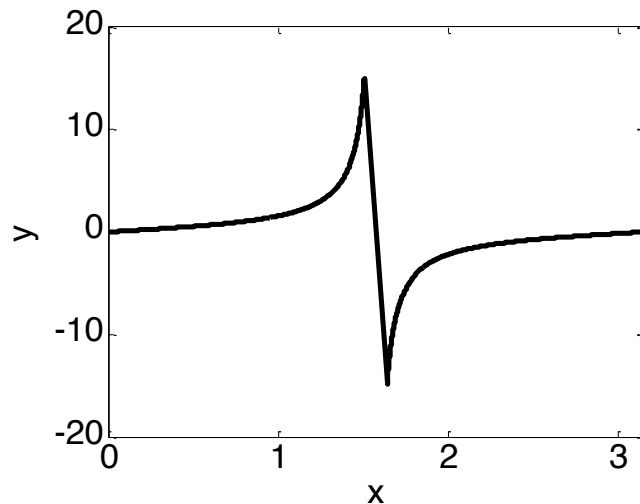
Note: a logical vector has been used to directly index and assign vector values



## Example of logical vector use: $\tan(x)$

---

Remove large (positive and negative) values



```
x = 0*pi:pi/10000:pi;  
y = tan(x);  
x = x(abs(y)<15);  
y = y(abs(y)<15);  
plot(x,y)
```

# Example Sieve of Eratosthenes

---

- Finds all of the primes between 1 and  $n$

- A prime number can be divided evenly only by 1 and itself, and it must be a whole number greater than 1.

- An algorithm that uses logical expressions and logical indexing

- Algorithm

- 1) List the numbers from 2 to  $n$
- 2) The first number in this list must be a prime, add it to the list of primes
- 3) Strike off all multiples of this number from the list
- 4) Repeat steps 2 through 4 until the prime being considered is greater than or equal to the square root of  $n$
- 5) All remaining numbers in the list must also be primes

